

**INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE**

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# INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW

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## Prevention and Compensation of Unemployment

by

B. Seeböhm ROWNTREE

*Director of Rowntree and Co. Ltd. and of Confectionery  
Ingredients Ltd.*

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THROUGHOUT the world we are experiencing a volume of unemployment which is probably without precedent in the annals of modern industry, and which makes us realise the urgent need for dealing effectively with this problem. There can be no doubt that hitherto it has not received the attention it deserves from those responsible for the conduct of industry. The existence of unemployment has been regarded by the employers with far too much indifference, and by the workers with far too much of the spirit of fatalism; and there has been a general reluctance to come to close grips with the evil with a determination to remedy it. Fortunately, the human aspects of industry are now receiving a constantly increasing amount of attention, and we may hope to make up for our past lethargy by rapid progress in the immediate future.

In this article I propose to deal with the problem of unemployment as it normally presents itself, not with the entirely abnormal conditions with which the world is temporarily confronted. Those conditions call for special remedies, but when these have been applied there will still remain the normal problem.

### EXTENT OF THE EVIL

There are no reliable unemployment statistics covering a number of years for any country. This is unfortunate, because, if accurate comparisons could be made between different countries, we should know a great deal more both with regard to the causes of unemployment and its possible remedies.

Before precise statistics can be arrived at, however, it will be necessary to agree upon some definition of unemployment. For instance, how should short time be regarded? Suppose a

hundred men are working 25 per cent. short time, it would create a false impression to say that virtually 25 men were unemployed; and yet the lessened demand for work might have been met by dismissing 25 men and retaining the rest at full time. Again, is a man unemployed who is looking for a highly specialised job, and steadfastly refuses any other offered to him? What of the men or women who would work for wages if a post just to their fancy turned up, but who can exist without working. If asked, they would probably say that they wanted work, and would regard themselves as unemployed; but their condition is absolutely different from that of the labourer with wife and family to keep, who is anxiously and fruitlessly searching for work.

These examples will show that it is no easy task to define unemployment in such a way that statistical tables can be drawn up which actually reveal the extent of the evil. Of course, in countries where unemployment insurance is so widespread as to cover the vast majority of those to whom unemployment may mean want and suffering, much more reliable statistics are available than in countries where there is no universal unemployment insurance. Still, even in these countries statistics are incomplete, and it is to be hoped that the International Labour Office will take the action necessary to induce all industrialised countries to prepare more complete, as well as more comparable, unemployment statistics, which are an essential preliminary to any scientific attempt to deal effectively with the problem.

But although we have no complete or reliable international statistics, we know that there is much unemployment in all industrialised countries. During the period 1888-1913 it varied in Great Britain, in the trade unions which made returns, between 2.1 per cent. in 1889 and 1890 and 7.8 per cent. in 1908. It is uncertain how far the trade unions represented were typical of the industrial population generally; but, apart from the quite exceptional conditions due to the war, the percentage of unemployed workers probably varies from about 2 per cent. to about 10 or 11 per cent. As to other highly industrialised countries, such as the United States, Germany, France, and Italy, careful examination of such information as is forthcoming suggests that conditions are not materially better or worse than in Britain.

The following table gives such statistics as are available regarding unemployment Among trade unionists up to 1913. I omit subsequent years, as they are entirely abnormal. Although the figures in the table are the most informing that are available, they are very unsatisfactory. They are incomplete, and the trades they cover vary from country to country. Their main use is to support the view based on enquiry and observation, namely, that unemployment is a serious problem in all industrialised countries, and that apparently it varies little in gravity from one country to another.



	United Kingdom	France	Germany <sup>(1)</sup>	Belgium	Netherlands	Denmark	Norway	Sweden	United States	
									New York State <sup>(4)</sup>	Massachusetts
1903	5.1	10.1	2.7	3.4	—	—	—	—	—	—
1904	6.5	10.8	2.1	3.0	—	—	4.0	—	12.1	—
1905	5.4	9.9	1.6	2.1	—	13.2	4.4	—	8.5	—
1906	3.6	8.4	1.1	1.8	—	6.1	3.2	—	6.8	—
1907	3.7	7.5	1.6	2.1	—	6.8	2.8	—	13.6	—
1908	7.8	9.5	2.9	5.8	—	11.0	3.7	—	28.0	12.6
1909	7.7	8.1	2.8	3.4	—	13.3	5.0	—	14.9	6.6
1910	4.7	6.4	1.9	2.0	—	11.1	2.9	—	13.6	6.1
1911	3.0	6.3	1.9	1.9 <sup>(2)</sup>	2.7 <sup>(3)</sup>	9.2	1.9	5.3	18.7	6.6
1912	3.2	6.0	2.0	1.9 <sup>(2)</sup>	4.2 <sup>(3)</sup>	7.6	1.3	5.4	15.2	5.2
1913	2.1	5.3	2.9	2.7 <sup>(2)</sup>	5.1 <sup>(3)</sup>	7.3	1.6	4.5	20.9	6.6

(1) The unemployment figures for Germany cannot be compared, for instance, with those for the United Kingdom, since the waiting period before unemployment benefit is paid is about twice as long in Germany, and the benefits paid are for a much shorter period.

(2) Excluding diamond workers the figures are 1.7 for 1911, 1.3 for 1912, and 2.0 for 1913.

(3) Excluding diamond workers the figures are 2.2 for 1911, 1.7 for 1912, and 1.6 for 1913.

(4) The figures for New York State include a large proportion of workers in more or less seasonal trades, such as the building and clothing trades. If these figures were left out of the statistics, the figures in some cases would be reduced to about a third of those given.

I turn from this necessarily incomplete review of the amount of unemployment to consider the steps which should be taken in connection with it. I will deal with this question under two headings, first, the prevention of unemployment, and, secondly, the measures advisable to mitigate the hardships and the privation which follow in its train.

### PREVENTION OF UNEMPLOYMENT

Obviously, the best cure for unemployment is employment, and we must ask to what extent that remedy can be applied. Many schemes have been tried, and many more suggested, for preventing unemployment. Thus it has often been argued that the volume of unemployment might be substantially reduced if the central and local government authorities would, so far as possible, withhold their orders for goods and services when trade was good, and place them when it was bad. It has been estimated that it would be possible in Britain to regulate work entailing (at present wages) a wage-bill of about £50,000,000 a year. Included in the above is the labour cost on post office buildings, school buildings, barracks, Admiralty shipbuilding, War Office stores, etc. The work would be held over in years when trade was booming and given out when it was depressed. Obviously, such a policy, if carried out, would tend to steady the demand for labour. Although over a term of years no actual additional demand for labour would be created, and although in a time of trade prosperity a man who would otherwise have been

employed might find himself temporarily without work, it would be much easier for him during such a period of trade expansion to find work in the ordinary channels of trade than it would be for a man who is unemployed in a time of trade depression. Again, even if over a term of years the total number of weeks of unemployment were not reduced at all, it would nevertheless be a social advantage that twelve men should be out of work for a week in a time of trade prosperity looking for jobs which were pretty easy to find, rather than that one man in a time of trade adversity should be out of work for three months. It must not be forgotten, however, that the policy would affect a limited class of workers, principally builders and navvies. It would not materially affect unemployment among textile workers, coal miners, engineers, and in many other industries. Briefly, it may be said that the policy, in so far as it is found practicable, is sound, but can only be a partial solution of the problem.

The provision of new work by local government bodies has also been suggested as a feasible remedy, and wherever it is possible for the government to undertake such work it affords a bona fide solution of the problem; but experience has shown how exceedingly difficult it is to overcome the practical difficulties. In a time of trade depression, generally speaking, all industries are suffering from unemployment, and it affects women as well as men. The kinds of new and additional work which the public authorities can put in hand are limited in number; they cannot create an entirely new and additional demand for clothing for the army or police, nor can they create an additional demand for furniture or stationery for government buildings. They have to fall back on such schemes as new roads, mending of existing roads, laying out parks, the reclamation of waste land and afforestation, or possibly such building schemes as the making of harbours, foreshores, etc. Now all this is heavy navvy work, and must be carried out in specified localities. In some cases, as, for instance, in afforestation, no accommodation exists for housing large numbers of men in the locality where the work would have to be done. The practical difficulties of making effective use of such schemes are, therefore, very great, even if we get over the initial difficulty that they often have a suggestion of relief work, which tends to lower the morale and output of the men engaged on them. Briefly, then, as in the case of the last named proposals for dealing with unemployment, the provision of new work in times of trade depression only affords a very partial remedy for the evil.

Mr. (now Sir William) Beveridge pointed out in his book, *Unemployment: a Problem of Industry*, that in the absence of any organised attempt to regulate the labour market, every large employer tends to keep a separate reserve of workers, who hang about the factory gate or the dock waiting

until they are wanted. In so far as the maximum demand for labour of a given kind is not likely to be made by all employers on the same day, it follows that the aggregate of persons in all the reserves could be greatly reduced if there were one common reserve in the town or district, on which all employers could call. But as long as a man stands a fair chance of getting an occasional job in a particular factory or on the docks, he is disinclined to look for work elsewhere. He continues to hang about, and is unemployed perhaps for half his time or more. If, however, a general industrial reserve were created, and the unneeded reservists attached to a particular factory were told that no work could ever be provided for them, they would turn to other jobs where there is a demand for labour, and gradually become absorbed in industry. There are always, Sir William Beveridge argues, in times of normal trade activity, employers who are prevented from fully developing their businesses through lack of adequate labour. The men who form the unneeded reserve for docks and factories elsewhere do not discover these potential vacancies, because they continue to cling to the casual work immediately to hand. One of the objects aimed at by the employment exchanges in Britain is to centralise reserves, and in certain cases they have been markedly successful in doing this.

The system of state employment exchanges is sound. The exchanges are capable of rendering real service in quickly bringing together employers and workers. But if they are to be fully successful, they must be staffed with well-paid and highly capable men and women, who will command the confidence of the best workers and best employers. In Britain they have been run "on the cheap" and consequently have only proved partially successful. No state should adopt a national scheme of employment exchanges unless it is prepared to spend a good deal of money.

There should be very close co-operation between the exchanges and the trade unions, many of which keep their own registers of unemployed members. I should like to see the employment exchanges in every considerable town become a central hall of labour—where all the principal trade unions were housed, in rooms rented from the exchange, and where many of the commercial activities connected with industry and labour were centralised. British experience has also shown the need for placing more responsibility for the local management of exchanges on local representatives of employers' associations and trade unions.

A method of actually reducing the volume of unemployment is to give men ordinarily engaged in industry a subsidiary occupation to which they may revert when their ordinary occupation fails. This operates effectively in Belgium, where cheap workmen's trains enable workmen to live in the country although working in the towns. The

Antwerp docker comes into Antwerp early in the morning from the village where he lives. If he finds work, well and good; but if not, instead of hanging about Antwerp on the chance of finding a job, he returns to his village and spends the remainder of the day working on his small holding. Similarly, the Brussels bricklayer, while following his trade in the summer, seldom comes into town in winter when trade is scarce. He can occupy his time better at the heavy work on his own land, the cultivation of which he leaves to his wife and family during the summer, while he is engaged at his trade (1).

Another advantage Belgium derives from her cheap transport is that a man unable to find work at home can often find it in another district, and can travel backwards and forwards daily or weekly for a very small sum, even if the distance is considerable. A careful enquiry which I made some years ago into the relative proportion of unemployment in Britain and Belgium convinced me that there was less unemployment in Belgium than in Britain, and I attribute this in no small measure to her transport facilities.

The Belgian system, which enables town workers to live in the country, where they can have a piece of land, has a further important advantage. In times of trade depression it is the marginal man who suffers most keenly, and all men, as they grow old, tend to become marginal men. They may still have a considerable capacity for work, but they can seldom get jobs in competition with younger and more vigorous men. So they suffer from total unemployment, and the community loses the value of their services. But if they have land of their own, they can fall back on their occupation as agriculturists. Although they may not get as much out of the land as more robust men would do, they can at least get out of it as much as they put in. Instead of starving in the town, they are maintaining a simple standard of life in the country or can work for neighbouring farmers or help on a neighbour's small holding. Or rather, as, in practice, men in a civilised community are not allowed to starve, but are maintained in large measure out of public funds, they are, by merely avoiding that contingency, to that extent contributing to the national wealth.

The above are the principal ways of preventing unemployment which have been suggested or tried. They are all

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(1) This admirable arrangement is only rendered possible by the very adequate transport system which Belgium boasts. In 1913 Belgium had 24.4 miles of light railway per 100 square miles of area, as against 5.5 miles in Germany, 6.3 in France, and 2.8 in Great Britain. In addition, Belgium had at that time 25.8 miles of main railways per 100 square miles of area, while Great Britain had 22.9 miles, Germany 18.2 miles, and France 12.3 miles. Thus Belgium had about twice as much main and light railway combined per 100 square miles of territory as Great Britain, more than twice as much as Germany, and nearly three times as much as France.

worthy of careful study, and there is no doubt that if full advantage were taken of them, they would collectively do much to lessen the volume of unemployment. Moreover, if systematic and continuous thought, supported by adequate international statistics, were given to the whole question, other means of reducing unemployment would be discovered. But when every possible step in this direction has been taken, there will still remain an unemployment problem. First, the volume of employment depends to no small degree on whether harvests are good or bad, and this factor is largely beyond human control. Secondly, a certain reserve of workers is necessary to the successful functioning of industry, and, in considering the size of that reserve, it is important to bear in mind that labour is not so mobile as some of the writers on industrial and economic subjects would have us believe.

#### UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE

We may now, therefore, turn to the second division of our subject—namely, that of methods alleviating the hardship and privation arising from such unemployment as cannot be avoided. In considering this subject, it is important to bear in mind that the chief evil of unemployment is not so much the inability to find work as the consequent lack of income, and we must deal with unavoidable unemployment by remedying this evil. We are thus driven to the consideration of some means of unemployment insurance. To my mind the case for instituting a universal scheme of insurance on a scale sufficiently liberal to remove the menace of unemployment is unanswerable. An incidental, but none the less important, effect of a liberal insurance scheme would be to increase the spending power of the community in times of depression and thus to regulate employment. But would the cost of such a universal scheme prove prohibitive? And would the adoption of such a policy demoralise the workers?

Setting aside the entirely phenomenal condition arising out of the war, and which should in justice be regarded as part of the cost of the war, it is probable, as previously stated, that, on the average, about 5 per cent. of the workers in Britain are unemployed and 95 per cent. are employed; and there is no evidence to show that the average amount of unemployment is materially different in other industrial countries. Suppose, for the moment, that workers receive full pay when unemployed, the insurance premium required would, therefore, involve a tax on industry approximately equal to 5 per cent. of the wage-bill. But this would be the outside limit, the maximum charge upon industry. For, human nature being what it is, no one would propose a scheme in which a worker receives fully as much when unemployed as when working; and against the initial cost of the scheme, various and important savings must be set, such as would

result from the removal of the worker's fear of unemployment, from which arises much of the "ca'canny" opposition to piece-work and to the adoption of improved machinery and better methods of organisation. On reviewing the whole matter, it seems clear that there should be no financial difficulty in working out a scheme of unemployment insurance applicable to all workers and providing benefits on a scale sufficiently liberal to remove the real menace of unemployment, though representing a weekly income so much less than the worker's full pay that he will not be encouraged to malingering or to cease to look for work.

There might be a national scheme of unemployment insurance, or an industry might be responsible for its own unemployed, or there might be schemes applicable to individual factories or groups of factories, or there might be some combination of the above methods. Great Britain has adopted the first of these methods. Practically all manual workers between sixteen and seventy years of age and clerical workers whose salaries do not exceed £250 a year come under it. The premiums payable are 1s. 3d. a week in the case of men and 1s. 1d. for women, the employers paying 8d. and 7d. respectively and the workers 7d. and 6d. The benefits, which are limited to one week for every six weekly contributions previously made and which in no case can exceed 22 weeks in any one year, are 15s. for men and 12s. for women. Smaller contributions are payable in the case of boys and girls under 18, and the benefits they receive are half the above amounts<sup>(2)</sup>.

The solvency of the scheme is guaranteed by the Government, which must make up out of the exchequer any loss that may be occasioned. There is no doubt but that this scheme has been of very great value in Great Britain, and, had it not been in existence, one shrinks from contemplating the consequences of the abnormally high proportion of unemployment during the depression of trade following the war. But an income of 15s. for a man with a wife and children is entirely insufficient to supply even the bare necessities of living. Thus the scheme fails to remove the menace of unemployment, and to secure the beneficial reactions which accrue from the removal of that menace.

The questions to consider are four: the minimum rate or scale of benefit which would remove the menace of unemployment in the worker's mind; the cost of providing such minimum; the responsibility for providing it, or the question of who is to pay the premiums; and the type of scheme best adapted for securing it—national, or by separate industries, or any other.

(2) In March of this year the Unemployment Insurance Fund had accumulated a reserve of £22½ millions, and the benefits were raised to 20s. for men and 16s. for women. Since then the volume of unemployment increased so rapidly that in about three months the reserves were almost exhausted, and the benefits were again temporarily reduced to 15s. for men and 12s. for women. [The Unemployed Workers' Dependents (Temporary Provision) Act, November 1921, has now increased the benefit due under the state scheme, for a period of six months, by 5s. a week for the wife, and 1s. a week for each child, of an insured worker. (Ed. *International Labour Review*)].

Bearing in mind that our primary object is to remove from the workers' minds the fear of privation and suffering arising from unemployment, it follows that the amount of benefit in any economical scheme must vary with the needs of the individual worker. I suggest that the benefit should provide all workers with half of their earnings when in work. In addition to this, a married man should receive ten per cent. of his earnings for a dependent wife, and five per cent. for each dependent child under 16, with a maximum of 75 per cent. of his average earnings. Careful calculations recently made show that the cost of providing this benefit in Britain, on the assumption that on the average 5 per cent. of workers are unemployed, would be about £56½ millions per annum (3).

As to who should pay the premiums, a strong case can be made out for laying the whole burden of the scheme on the employer. Under a capitalist system of industry, the capitalist, in fact, says to the workers: "Let us co-operate in an industrial enterprise — I will find the necessary capital, and you will provide the labour. The first charge on our joint enterprise shall be the payment to you of wages and salaries in accordance with the current scale. Then will follow the payment of all other charges incidental to the enterprise, and, after all these have been paid, if there is anything over, I will take it as payment for the contribution I have made in finding the capital". In a sentence this means: "I will take the risks of industry, and, because I take the risks, I am justified in claiming the profits". But one of the grave risks of industry is unemployment in periods of trade depression, and if this risk is borne by the workers, the capitalist is not fulfilling his part of the bargain, and one of the main defences of the capitalist system disappears.

On psychological grounds, however, it is desirable that the workers should regard the whole scheme as the result of co-operative effort between employers and themselves, and, therefore, that they should directly bear some portion of the cost. As a matter of fact, it matters little whether, in the first instance, the cost of the scheme is laid on the employer or is shared between him and the worker, for, after a short time, it will, by the play of economic forces, rest on whichever party is, at the moment, economically weaker. I suggest that the total cost might be distributed as follows.

Contributors	Contributions		
	Amount (£)	Per cent. of wages-bill	Per cent. of total cost of scheme
Employers	37,000,000	2.5	65.5
Workers	15,000,000	1.0	26.5
State	4,500,000	—	8.0
Total	56,500,000		100

(3) These calculations were made before the recent wage reductions were effected. The cost of the scheme would, therefore, be somewhat

The figure of £4½ millions was the amount which the state was contributing to the national unemployment insurance scheme at the time the proposals I am here describing were first worked out by an unofficial committee of which I was a member. Although the above scheme is much more ambitious than the national scheme now in force, the contribution which it is proposed that the state should pay is not increased in view of the condition of national finances.

We have now to consider whether a scheme giving benefits such as I have described would best be administered by the state, by industries, or by factories, either individually or in groups. Obviously, a state scheme is the simplest, and it would have the great advantage that it could be universally applied as soon as it was adopted. But there is no doubt that there would be a tendency to abuse it on account of the comparatively high benefits. There is, unfortunately, a widespread willingness to take advantage of the state. To the individual workers the source of the benefit appears almost as remote as heaven. Sometimes, too, I fear, public opinion among workers might support a worker who sought to take advantage of the state rather than co-operate with it to check abuse. At the same time, I believe that administrative checks could be introduced which would reduce malingering to an amount so small that it would not imperil the success of the scheme. In view of the important advantages to be secured by introducing a scheme on a national scale, I am inclined to think that this would be the right course to adopt, leaving industries free to contract out of the scheme if they satisfied the government that they could provide at least equally liberal benefits.

As regards the advantages of an industrial scheme over a national scheme, I think the principal one is that it impresses upon the industry its responsibility for the workers connected with it, and promotes a sense of co-operation between the parties. Obviously, if the ground were covered by a number of industrial schemes, suitable arrangements would be made for workers to exchange from one industry to another.

As to the question whether it would be possible for individual factories or small groups of factories to adopt a scheme giving benefits such as I have described, I doubt whether the whole ground could be covered in this way. The complications involved would be too many.

At the same time an individual factory need not wait to provide unemployment benefit for its own employees until a more comprehensive scheme is adopted. In the case of my own firm <sup>(4)</sup> we have promised to set aside 1 per cent. of our

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less now, but, as will appear shortly, its actual cost is not a matter of great moment. The important question is the proportion the premiums bear to the wage-bill.

(4) See International Labour Office : *Daily Intelligence*, Vol. II, No. 22, 2 May 1921, p. 7.



wage-bill, in addition, of course, to the contributions we must make under the national scheme, and we undertake to continue to set aside this 1 per cent. until the fund amounts to 5 per cent. of our wage-bill. The number of weeks during which workers may receive benefit under the scheme varies according to the length of their service prior to the period of unemployment. One week's benefit is granted for every two months' service up to two and a half years, and after that an additional week's benefit for every additional year of service. No one is eligible for benefit under the scheme until he has been in the employ of the firm for six months and is twenty years of age or over. In the case of workers employed on short time, the first 10 per cent. of short time is disregarded, and the remainder (averaged over a suitable period) is paid for on the same scale as unemployment. Short-time pay is given to all workers irrespective of their length of service. The fund is administered by a committee appointed entirely by the workers. The great majority of our employees are members of trade unions which for, a contribution of two pence per week provide unemployment benefits of 6s. a week. Independently of our scheme, therefore, the men get 21s. a week when unemployed (15s. from the state and 6s. from the trade union), and the women get 18s. (12s. from the state and 6s. from the trade union). Our calculations show that the premium of 1 per cent. on our wage-bill which we pay should be sufficient to bring these benefits up to the amount proposed above, namely, half earnings for all workers, plus 10 per cent. for a dependent wife and 5 per cent. for dependent children up to 16 years of age, with a maximum of 75 per cent. of the average wage, or £5 per week, whichever is the less.

An important feature of the scheme is that while we guarantee the premiums, we do not guarantee the benefits. If the scheme were abused, the premium might not suffice to pay the benefits expected. Thus all the workers have an interest in seeing that it is not abused, lest on their becoming unemployed they should find the funds so depleted that they could not obtain their full benefits. The scheme is working well. Scarcely any action which we have taken at the works in connection with the betterment of the conditions of service has been more warmly appreciated than this works unemployment scheme, and I can cordially recommend the policy to my fellow employers. In fact, a scheme almost exactly similar to that described above has recently been adopted for the whole of the British match industry<sup>(5)</sup>, which is highly organised, through action taken by its joint industrial council. It is, I believe, the first instance of a whole industry adopting a scheme of unemployment insurance on such a liberal scale.

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(5) *Daily Intelligence*, Vol. II, No. 49, 10 June 1921, p. 10.

It may, of course, be urged that, although the total cost of providing adequate insurance against unemployment is small compared to the total wage-bill, competition between individual firms and nations is so keen that even an addition of about 1½ per cent. to the working costs would involve a handicap which could not wisely be accepted<sup>(6)</sup>. I doubt whether this reasoning is sound, for I believe that the reactions favourable to industry which would result from the adoption of a liberal unemployment insurance scheme would more than make up for its cost. If, however, I am wrong in this, and if the adoption of a scheme of unemployment insurance sufficiently liberal to remove from the minds of the workers the menace of unemployment would place a burden on industry, then it seems to me it is essentially a matter in which action should be taken by the International Labour Organisation of the League of Nations, which should seek to make adequate insurance against unemployment an integral part of industry in all industrialised countries, so that the fear of international competition should not stand in the way of the adoption of the scheme.

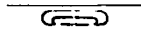
In reviewing what I have written, I am conscious of the inadequate treatment given to so complicated and urgent a problem. Exigencies of space have prevented me from dealing at all fully with many aspects of the question whose importance warrants full treatment. Perhaps, however, I have said enough to emphasise how important it is that far more careful and systematic attention than in the past should be devoted to the elaboration of schemes for lessening the volume of unemployment, and that, with the least possible delay, schemes of unemployment insurance should everywhere be introduced, sufficiently liberal to remove the menace of such unemployment as proves to be unavoidable.

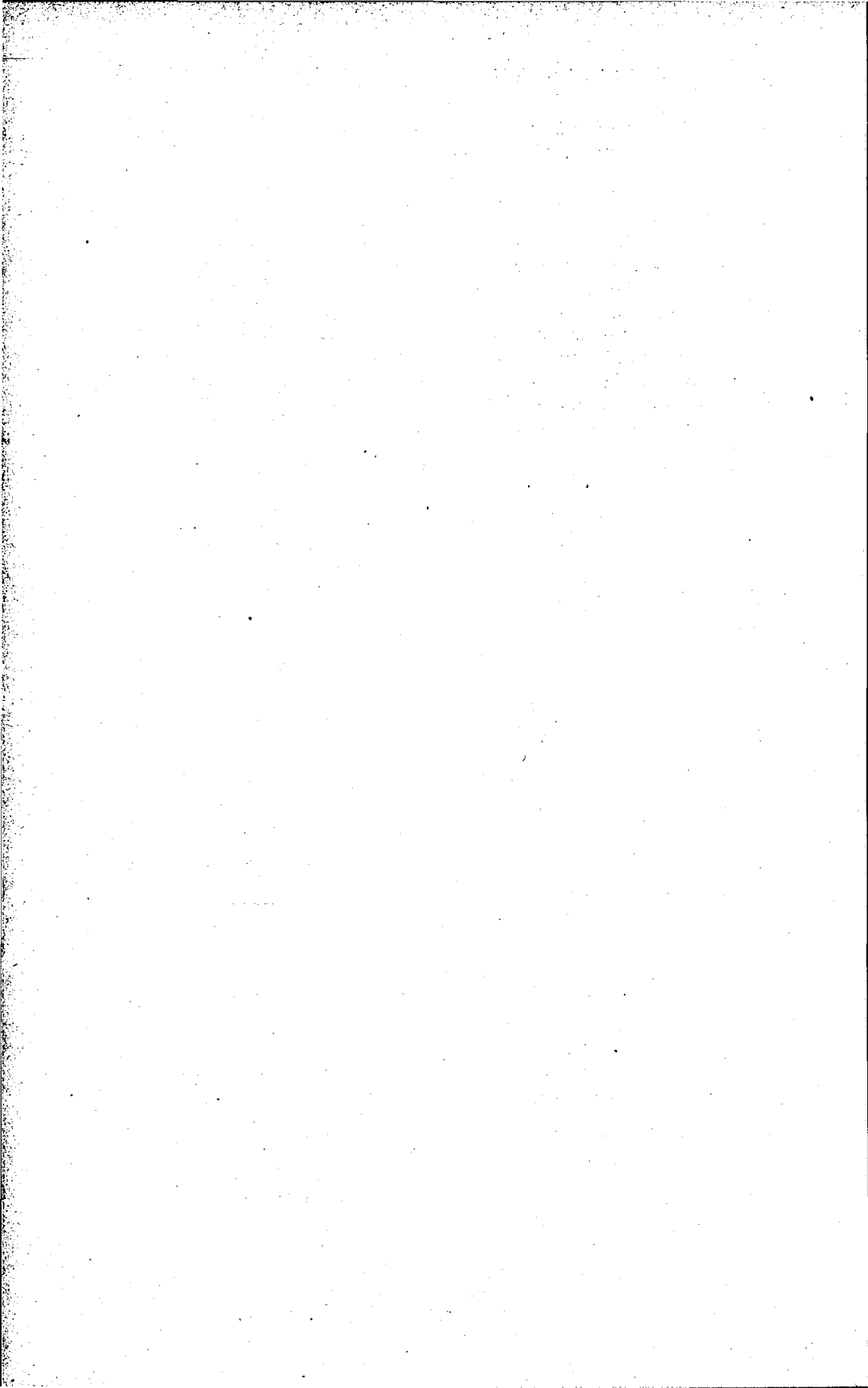
The criticism may be urged against me that I have not dealt at all with the abnormal situation which exists to day. This is not because I fail to appreciate the urgency of the immediate problem, but because its solution cannot be arrived at by methods which are universally applicable. Certainly international arrangements might be set on foot to meet the difficulties arising out of variations in exchange rates, and the League of Nations has already taken steps in this connection. But the emergency measures necessary to cope with the present evil must vary with local circumstances. For instance, relief works which might be suitable for one country might be quite impossible in another. It is certain that in view of the cataclysmic economic and industrial

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(6) It must be remembered that, under the national unemployment insurance scheme, employers are already paying premiums equal to about 1 per cent. on their wage-bill. The addition I propose above would, in the case of a national scheme, be about another 1½ per cent.

upheaval consequent on the war a severe unemployment crisis was inevitable, no matter what steps had been taken to prepare for such a contingency. But if the various countries concerned had given to the problem of unemployment the serious attention which it so urgently demanded, and if some systematic attempt had been made to cope with the cyclical trade depressions, we should have been comparatively well able to face the present crisis. Although, therefore, I have not attempt to discuss emergency measures, I have thought it an opportune time to survey the subject of unemployment generally. Just now the public is profoundly impressed with the gravity of the evil, and will perhaps be more ready to give careful consideration to proposals for dealing with it than would be the case in a time of trade prosperity.





# Unemployment within Employment <sup>(1)</sup>

by

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THE time seems to have arrived when we must pull our discussion of unemployment down out of the skies of speculative thought and interpret it in terms of actual everyday shop practice. This paper deals with the part any individual manufacturer can play—in fact must play—if he would hold his own under conditions likely to obtain in the industry of the near future. Unemployment in the large is an insoluble problem. It is only as we break it up into its constituent parts that we discover the remedial procedures. Nearly every representative manufacturing plant regularly collects the data required for the studies here recommended. But only a few plants here and there—and then in spasmodic fashion—have so collected the data as to reveal the relative significance of the various causes contributing to the total of unemployment.

Almost without exception our heretofore established standards for industrial management are in flux—in the crucible of change and refinement. It is equally true that all those criteria by which we seek to test the effectiveness of our industrial organisation are in process of revision. Yesterday's satisfaction with methods and results is today's divine discontent. Hence it behooves those of us who seek a place in tomorrow's sun to keep our technique so fluid as to be able to check performance with the measuring sticks of the moment and not with those of a day that is past and gone.

Henry L. Gantt, one of the great pioneers in the management movement, once said to me: "The ultimate object of everything we do in industrial engineering is to enable us to set tasks", that is, to establish a definite daily accomplishment for each and every worker. The daily check on the causes of failure to perform such predetermined tasks has come to be regarded as perhaps the most exacting test of good shop technique.

In the intervening years since Gantt made this remark we have come to recognise that the accomplishment of a predetermined task by an individual worker, or by any number of individual workers is but a part of the whole problem of effective manufacturing. For if the individual workers are

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(1) A paper read before the Cleveland (Ohio) meeting of the Taylor Society, 9 May 1921.

to have the opportunity to work at all, management must concern itself with many matters not directly related to the individual task. And so a much broader generalisation, it seems to me, would be to the effect that everything we do—or should do—in industry must lead in the direction of affording increasingly steady employment for the entire body of workers. So the following discussion is a study of chronic unemployment rather than of its more acute phases, which we are at the moment experiencing.

It will be only as we study the everyday and all-the-year-round variety of unemployment and learn to cope with it that we shall be able to prevent, or at least to minimise, the effects of these great waves of unemployment, which we have come to look upon as necessarily associated with periods of business depression. My purpose then is (1) to direct attention toward what, I take it, will come to be recognised as the more important causes of unemployment in a well-ordered industrial society, (2) to localise responsibility for the reduction of the unemployment factor, and (3) more especially to advocate the development of increasingly precise methods of measuring the various phenomena we class under the general head of unemployment.

Assuming that the proper length of the work-day has been determined, employment for the individual or the group or the community as a whole is measured by the amount of time actually occupied in production work. The unemployment factor, then, is the percentage by which this falls short of the theoretical maximum. All current practice encourages another point of view—that the test of employment is being on somebody's pay-roll. Under such a concept, if every available worker were actually on someone's payroll, there would be no unemployment; which is, of course, absurd.

In approaching any large national problem good practice suggests that we first seek some method of localising it. So to bring this problem of unemployment within the range of our individual industrial hearthstones, so to speak, I have divided its treatment into two parts:

- (a) Unemployment *within* employment, and
- (b) Unemployment *without* employment;

the former being the unemployment of men and women who, technically at least, have jobs—those who are considered or consider themselves the employees of a given plant. It is becoming the union policy to have available work apportioned among the employees, rather than to have some laid off or discharged in order that the rest may work full time. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers do not consider lack of work a sufficient cause for discharge. Within the last few months one clothing establishment employing over 2,000 was working the entire staff less than one day a week. Even with work at this low-ebb the effort on the part of the union

to hold the employer to responsibility for employment was in no way relaxed. We saw something of the same attitude on the part of the employees of Baldwin Locomotive Works—a non-union plant—when early in 1914 a normal staff of 19,000 had been reduced to 4,000, working part time. The unemployment was continued so long as to cause great destitution. But even in homes where essential furniture like chairs and beds had been disposed of the workers still considered themselves to be Baldwin employees. This feeling was so strong in many instances as to preclude any thought of looking for employment elsewhere.

Of course, a worker may "have a job" in the foregoing sense and yet obviously not be participating at all in the wage distribution or, if participating, then not to a normal extent and perhaps not fully occupied during the period of such participation. Under our definition of unemployment, be it remembered, we included all varieties of waiting time, whether paid for by the employer or not. It all represents an economic waste.

My own impression is that the total of "Unemployment without employment", i.e. the unemployment of what may be called jobless men, represents a relatively small percentage of the total. In some industries, and especially in good times, it may easily represent an almost negligible part of the total unemployment. If this assumption proves even relatively near the truth, it will pay us to devote our most painstaking attention to the unemployment of men and women who can, very broadly speaking, be said to have jobs.

And, of course, if we can assume that—let us say—ninety per cent. of all the unemployment in the world is that suffered or enjoyed by those "with jobs", we have localised the responsibility, in the first instance at least, within the scope of the individual plant. And every employer is cited at the bar of public opinion to show cause why he is not guilty of contributory negligence in adding to the sum total of unemployment. In other words, the burden of proof is on every employer who lays any claim to industrial leadership to show that he has availed himself of every possible device for providing steady employment.

But *self-interest* will more and more move manufacturers to undertake the detailed study of the unemployment problem, as it becomes recognised that general industrial effectiveness, and more especially low costs, are altogether inconsistent with intermittency of employment.

It would certainly be most unfortunate if there was any warrant for feeling that in this matter we were like rudderless ships on unknown and boisterous seas. And yet this appears to be the attitude most commonly held. The moment the subject of unemployment is mentioned, we are apt to drift off into a more or less loose discussion of the possible influence of exchange, the tariff, the disorganisation due to a change

from a seller's to a buyer's market, styles, and seasonal demand, through all of which we are supposed to be relieved of our individual responsibility. This is frequently little more than a smoke-screen to cover up either our lack of knowledge or a purposeful avoidance of responsibility. If what has already been done in this field has not proven that reasonably steady employment is possible of attainment for most industrial establishments, it at least points strongly in that direction.

Before we get very far in the scientific study of any subject we discover the need for some means of making measurements. So it is in this study of unemployment, and, of more immediate interest, in this study of "unemployment within employment". The moment we undertake the analysis of our own contributions to the total distress, we discover that "we need some formula or expression or device by which we can measure the amount of unemployed time of those who have jobs. Such a mechanism will enable us to rate the performance of individual employers in this respect, to evaluate the results achieved in different industries in providing steady work, and even to contrast the experience of different communities in this matter. In applying this test we should be able to determine the record made in any given period of time—a day, a week, a month, a season, or a year. The formula should be so exact as to include lay-offs of a few moments or of a few hours as well as of days and of weeks" (2). Such a measure as the one proposed should be so broadly conceived as to be applicable to a given room or department of a single industrial establishment or to the plant as a whole, to regional divisions of an industry or to the industry throughout the nation, to geographical areas including all industries, and to the nation at large. We seek a method which is both reasonably exact and capable of being developed in the direction of even greater exactitude. But to be broadly useful the method must be one that is readily simplified to meet the conditions found in most small concerns or expanded to meet the necessities of our more highly organised industrial establishments. For the lack of a more descriptive title I suggest we call this factor—this measuring stick for unemployment—the "Unemployment Score". Such Unemployment Score, it will be understood, is the percentage by which the actual employment, given an individual or group, compares to the theoretically possible maximum.

It seems desirable to point out the absolute dissimilarity between labour turnover (3) and the Unemployment Score.

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(2) *Unemployment within Employment*, by Morris L. Cooke, in the *American Federationist*, Washington, D. C., Nov. 1919, pp. 1034-1036.

(3) The educational value of the term "labour turnover" in calling attention to the waste involved in frequent changes of employees has been very great. It can also be said that "by appreciating the human consequences of high labour turnover, organised labour has come to see a practical value to wage-earners through better labour administration policies". (Extract from a letter by a labour leader.)



An unnumbered *Bulletin* of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, on the *Standard Definition of Labour Turnover and Methods of Computing the Percentage of Labour Turnover*, says :

Labour turnover for any period consists of the number of separations from service during that period. Separations include all quits, discharges, and lay-offs, for any reason whatsoever.

The percentage of labour turnover for any period considered is the ratio of the total number of separations during the period to the average number of employees on the force report during that period. The force report gives the number of men actually working each day as shown by attendance records.

In the ten or fifteen years of its use this term "labour turnover" has, of course, achieved some degree of definition. But even so it is a crude unit of measurement, with not much significance in a well-run establishment. A study of the definition will show that its relation to the proposed unemployment-within-employment factor, or Unemployment Score, proposed in this paper, is at best indirect.

The usefulness of such a factor or Score will be limited, unless it is arrived at as the summary of factors measuring contributory causes, each in turn built up in like manner. The process should be capable of being carried to any useful degree of sub-division. Let me illustrate this broadly. Assume that the possible theoretical total of working hours for those engaged in a given building last week was 1,000 units of production time. Things ran unusually smoothly, material was delivered on schedule, there were no labour troubles, and the workers were actually engaged during 920 units of production time. The unemployment is, of course, the difference between the theoretical and the actual, or 80 units of production time. Under this proposal the Unemployment Score will be

$$\frac{1,000-920}{1,000} = \frac{8}{100} \text{ or } 8 \text{ per cent.}$$

We can take the figures on that same building for all of last year and, assuming a result not so favourable, we can take 50,000 units as the theoretical maximum for the entire year of which not more than 30,000 were actually accomplished. Then the Unemployment Score would be 40 per cent. Under the proposed plan it must be possible to subdivide this percentage indefinitely. Thus the major causes may be rated as follows :

	per cent.
Absenteeism	5
Lack of materials	10
Bad weather	4
Strikes	10
Scattering	11
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Total	40

Any such approach to the study of unemployment involves some assumptions which, while not current, seem to be fully in line with our probable industrial development. For instance, it appears to be altogether in the interest of a higher qualitative production that much more importance should attach to the separation of the individual worker from a given industrial unit than to his joining it. Trial periods of employment are generally accepted as reasonable. A mistake made in taking on a given worker may always be "rectified" by a discharge before the end of the trial period. This is the purpose of the trial engagement. But once the worker has been finally accepted and made a part of the organisation, he must be held much more tenaciously than is our common practice. This is not because of any ownership to the title of the job, but simply because, if the worker has been carefully selected at the start, well trained in his specific duties, and properly oriented in the organisation, his leave-taking must be a matter of financial and human concern. In the long run, however, we cannot hold people for whom we do not provide work. So we pass to the concept that it may be just as bad to take more work than our "regular force" can perform as it is to fail to secure enough work to keep that "regular force" busy.

It is the testimony of the best managers the world over that, as we learn to carry on a given class of work in better fashion, the percentage of skilled workers increases. In fact, there is an abundance of evidence supporting the theory that, when industry becomes truly scientific, there will be no place for the unskilled. Hence we can safely conclude that the better the management, the greater will be the financial sacrifice necessarily associated with lay-offs and dismissals.

I believe we have now arrived at the time when the manufacturers who are to be the most prosperous in the long run will definitely decide on the size of force required and hold to it. In almost every case this will mean a force smaller than the one now employed. The better methods involved in this decision to give steady employment to those employed almost invariably mean an ultimate reduction in the normal force. Every effort should be made to effect this reduction gradually through normal separations and not by "firing" anybody. There is nothing here to preclude growth, but it should be growth considered in the light of a steady long-time demand for service.

Another idea which, while not current, nevertheless appears to be inherent in effective manufacturing, suggests that idleness on the part of piece-workers has as decided an effect on costs as idleness anywhere else. The employer does not appear to pay in any way for this type of idleness, simply because he does not pay in direct wages. But he pays in unnecessarily high piece-rates and in other more indirect ways. In an economic sense all idleness during predetermined

hours of work is waste. Important as it is from a manufacturing standpoint to keep machines busy, it is much more so to keep the workers busy. Viewed from this angle a check on man-hours becomes altogether as important as a check on machine-hours.

If these Unemployment Scores are to have the largest social significance and be fully effective as a guide to operating policies, lost time of every character and description must be included in the percentages, especially at the start. I recall, on a visit some years ago to an establishment which had just introduced so-called "Industrial Democracy", that a large number of the employees throughout the plant had obviously nothing to do. It developed that, as a feature of the new order, a promise of continuous employment had been made. The firm thereafter experienced difficulty in getting an adequate supply of their raw material; hence the people idle at their work-places. Continuous employment comes as the result of planning and good management. It cannot be had by the issuing of an order.

On the other hand, a type of unemployment results directly from a high type of management—I almost am tempted to say the highest type—such, for instance, as is found at the Clothcraft Shops. Under the quota system which they have used so successfully, employees having finished their tasks are permitted to go home. Hence the attendance curve begins to drop shortly after one o'clock. Under our definition, the difference between the total of these hours of work and the predetermined hours of work (44-hour week basis) constitutes unemployment. It may be considered a desirable variety. But it should be measured.

I do not want to multiply hypothetical illustrations, but to convey a more detailed idea of the picture which a fully developed Unemployment Score might give. Let us assume that a given group of workers over a given period have been employed 64 per cent. of the theoretical time, leaving 36 per cent. as the Unemployment Score, which might be divided as shown on the following page.

Such Unemployment Scores would have an added significance, if there were included in the plan some classifying and weighting of the various contributing causes, so as to show their importance from a management standpoint. For instance, unemployment occasioned by bad belting practice might be heavily penalised on the ground that it can be absolutely eliminated under proper management. Again, some types of unemployment within employment, such as that occasioned by considered vacations, are altogether desirable from a social standpoint. Cognisance of all such considerations should be taken in the weighting scheme.

Assuming that we had Unemployment Scores for a number of different branches of the same enterprise or for a number of different plants in the same industry or for typical plants

## AN "UNEMPLOYMENT SCORE" (1)

Productive Time 64 %			
A. Orders 12 %	1. Inadequate volume	8 %	
	2. Lack of standardisation	1 %	
	3. Uneven flow of orders	0	
	4. Miscellaneous	3 %	
B. Lack of materials 8 %	1. Broken promise of manufacturer	2 %	Chargeable to Purchasing, Storekeeping, Gang boss, Drafting room, etc.
	2. Transportation delay	1 %	
	3. Errors	3 %	
	4. Seasonal (as with canneries)	0	
	5. Miscellaneous	2 %	
C. Absenteeism 6 %	1. Sickness	3 %	Colds Contagious Chronic
	2. Accidents	0	
	3. Home conditions	1 1/2 %	
	4. Recognised holidays	0	
	5. Liquor	1 1/2 %	
	6. Weather	0	
	7. Tardiness	1 %	
	8. Vacations, regular	0	
	9. Personal business incl. jury duty	0	
	10. Miscellaneous	1 %	
D. Equipment 2 %	1. Belting	1 1/2 %	
	2. Broken parts	0	
	3. Poor adjustment	1 %	
	4. No power	0	
	5. Introduction of machines	0	
	6. Miscellaneous	1 1/2 %	
E. Factory control 8 %	1. Strikes and labour stoppages	4 %	Order of Work Routing Delay getting into work Tools or jigs not ready
	2. Lock-outs	0	
	3. Bad planning	1 1/2 %	
	4. Stock-taking	0	
	5. Disciplinary layoffs	1 1/4 %	
	6. Labour policy	1 %	
	7. Sales—Factory maladjustment	2 %	
	8. Miscellaneous	1 1/4 %	
100 %		36 %	

(1) The percentages here given are assumed for purposes of illustration and for their suggestive value.

from each of several different industries, it would be possible for those making poor records in any respect to seek the counsel of those securing better results.

Until we have developed a generally recognised method of taking off Unemployment Scores, each employer will have to make for himself certain assumptions and adopt tentative rules. But a very little experimentation in any well-run establishment will make data now being regularly collected available for this purpose. The Unemployment Score is nothing more than a re-assembling of data usually available through methods current in well-run plants. It would appear that the expense involved in collating these figures would be trifling, especially in those plants where individual job-tickets are used as a part of the wage system. It is suggested that a working result will be expedited by providing at the start a heading "Unassigned", into which can be thrown all items of unemployment within employment the proper classification of which may be in doubt.

We approach nearer and nearer the time when propositions for unemployment insurance must be seriously entertained in this country. The development of a satisfactory scheme for measuring and accurately analysing unemployment will certainly facilitate the operation of such plans. It will remove what appears to be the strongest argument against unemployment insurance at the present time, i.e. a lack of information as to its real causes and our almost complete inability to localise and pro-rate responsibility for it. Under the proposed Wisconsin law <sup>(4)</sup> a manufacturer's previous record in affording steady employment determines the rate he pays. This affords a strong incentive for learning how to provide steady employment before such a law goes into effect. Of course, the most important service which unemployment insurance can render will grow out of the pressure it will exert on management to reduce unemployment to a minimum. This statement is warranted through our experience with workmen's compensation Acts. The relief afforded injured workmen and their families, important as it has been, is nothing compared with the results obtained in the matter of accident prevention.

It is altogether certain that, through this kind of study of unemployment, we are going to expose certain weaknesses

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(4) The main features of the State of Wisconsin Unemployment Compensation Bill (which was introduced on 4 February 1921 by Senator Huber) are the following :

(i) *Scope of Act.* Applies to all employees of every corporation or non-incorporated employer employing more than three persons.

(ii) *Exemptions.* (a) Farmers ; (b) employees of State, cities, towns, villages, townships, and school districts ; (c) those receiving pensions of \$500 or over annually ; (d) persons mainly dependent upon others for their livelihood ; (e) private employers of less than three persons.

(iii) *Requirements.* (a) Must have worked for one or more employers six months under the Act ; (b) must make application in proper manner and be continually unemployed ; (c) must be available and capable, but

in our present manufacturing methods. For instance, it will be promptly demonstrated that steady volume, both for the plant as a whole and by departments, is equally desirable both from the standpoint of profits and of steady employment<sup>(5)</sup>. It seems highly probable, if this could be demonstrated by each factory for itself, that some of the more obvious expedients by which steady volume is encouraged would be introduced.

Perhaps an even better illustration of the kind of facts which will be developed by a scientific analysis and tabulation of unemployment data will be the effect of jobbing or contract

unable to obtain suitable employment (but is not required to work where there is a strike or lock-out, or where less than prevailing wages are paid, etc.).

(iv) *Rate.* \$ 1.50 for each working day for males and females over 18 years, and 75 cents for those between 16 and 18 years ; payments to commence the third day and paid weekly.

(v) *Employers must insure Payments.* Unless exempted by the Industrial Commission, every employer must insure his liability for payments of unemployment compensation in a mutual insurance company that is under the control of the Compensation Insurance Board. No employer shall deduct from employee's wages, or otherwise make him pay, the cost of insuring this liability.

(vi) *Unemployment Compensation Rating Bureau.* Every mutual insurance company doing business under this Act shall be a member of the State Bureau to classify industries for unemployment compensation purposes, and to establish premium rate systems based upon the regularity of employment.

(vii) *Service Card.* Every employee shall be provided by the Industrial Commission with a card or book, upon which the employment agency shall record the number of weeks the employee has been in the services of the employers ; this will then show how many weeks of unemployment compensation the unemployed worker is entitled to.

(viii) *Rates.* (a) Not more than thirteen weeks shall be payable in any calendar year ; (b) for every four weeks' work, employees are entitled to one week of unemployment-compensation ; (c) no agreement by any employee to waive his rights to unemployment compensation under this Act shall be valid ; (d) no compensation shall be paid on account of stoppage of work through a strike or lock-out.

(ix) *Claims and Procedures.* All claims shall be first considered by a deputy of the Industrial Commission, who shall give his decision in allowing or disallowing claim within one day ; whereupon an order on the employer is issued for the amount of unemployment compensation due.

(x) *Contested Cases.* In any case where the claim is disputed, it shall be referred to the Industrial Commission, and a still further appeal is provided to the circuit court, the court action to be defended by the Industrial Commission.

(xi) *Unemployment Advisory Board.* Consisting of five members, representing both employer and employees, selected by the Industrial Commission from lists submitted by employers and employees. The fifth member shall be selected at large to serve as chairman. The Board shall serve without pay, and shall meet monthly to aid in general administration of the Act.

(xii) *Penalties.* Employees endeavouring to secure payment by fraud, or employers attempting to avoid payment through misrepresentation, may be punished by a sentence of imprisonment, or fine, or both, at the discretion of the court.

(5) Henry L. GANTT : *Organising for Work*. New York, Harcourt Brace & Howe. 1919.

work on steadiness of employment. It should be obvious that it is much more difficult to provide an even flow of work when one is doing it measurably under the specifications or on the demand of customers rather than on one's own detailed plans. But the weight of this handicap will not be revealed until we are able to compare the Unemployment Scores of establishments on a repetitive basis, i.e. continuously manufacturing stocks to be put on sale, with those still operating on a contractual or jobbing basis, i.e. making goods only as sold or ordered. Getting away from jobbing and into repetitive manufacturing constitutes one of the master-strokes lying ready to the hand of American industry, whereby we can secure not only a large reduction in costs, but make possible a vastly better showing as to continuity of employment. Our slogan must be "make-then-sell"; our present practice is too largely to "sell-then-make".

For the development of any such mechanism as the Unemployment Scores we must depend, as usual, upon the best managed plants. But it is also true that the most interesting and helpful Scores will come from those plants which have only started on the road to good management. It should be obvious that in the Scores made by the best plants many factors common to most plants will not appear at all, simply because they have been eliminated. I rather think that the Score now being made by a few model plants is from 8 per cent. to 10 per cent.; the average achieved by representative American plants is probably not far from 25 per cent., while plants falling to 40 per cent. and even 50 per cent. cannot be considered exceptional.

In my opinion the employer who wants a master-index to the effectiveness of his management—one that includes a maximum of facts—would do well to develop his Unemployment Score.

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# The Right of Association among Agricultural Workers in Germany

by

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THE right of association was not generally won by workers, even in progressive states, until the second half of the nineteenth century. Up till that time prohibitions against it, where they were survivals of an old régime, were in the nature of police measures. A new point of view was introduced by the ideas which sprang up in the course of the classical period of the study of economics in England and in the course of the French Revolution. This new point of view rejected the coercion exercised by the old guild principle; the economic freedom of the individual and his liberty of action were demanded; he was to be protected from that restriction which any association on a professional or trade basis must impose. Thus the results of the French Revolution were the prohibitive laws against the right of combination of the year 1791; while in England and America the charge of "conspiracy" was again and again used against associations of workers.

In the long run no legislative or judicial prohibitions were able to hold back the march of economic and social forces. The growth of the industrial system crowded large masses of workers together in confined districts and into single establishments. Industrial competition had the effect of depressing labour conditions; the individual worker, while he was powerless against the great employer, was at the same time continually in touch with large numbers of comrades who were suffering as he suffered. It was the most natural thing for them to consult together as to how they could help themselves, as to how they could counter the power of capital by the power of the greater number, or, when the power of numbers nevertheless suffered defeat in the course of an unorganised struggle, to collect capital themselves for carrying on the fight, and, by means of a determined struggle on wisely thought out principles, to influence the labour market so as to force better conditions on their own behalf.

These considerations no doubt explain the fact that workers in large-scale industry were the first to make use of the right of association. The idea and principle of association,

however, did not remain confined to such industry; in many countries it spread to agriculture. Obviously, it could only take root where there was an agricultural labouring class of some importance, in other words, in countries like Italy and Hungary where large-scale agricultural operations were carried out on large estates. But even in such districts the workers constantly lacked a sharp sense of class-consciousness, especially in districts such as East Germany, where they received a considerable portion of their wages in kind, which made the prosperity or reverse of the undertaking a matter of great importance to them, and where wages rose steadily because labour was short.

At the same time agriculture proved to be peculiarly sensitive to labour upheavals. Whereas in industry the strike — the most important weapon of the combined workers — normally implies nothing beyond a temporary hold up of production, in agriculture it may involve its annihilation or at best irremediable mischief. It is therefore not astonishing that special legal enactments have often been considered necessary in order to make agricultural strikes difficult or impossible. Thus the French general Combination Act of 14-17 June 1791 was followed by a special Act of 28 September—6 October of the same year prohibiting combination in agriculture. In Prussia agriculturists since 1851 had petitioned the Diet to include agricultural workers in the prohibition of the right of association contained in the Industrial Code of 1845. In 1854 an Act was introduced and passed by a narrow majority. This Act did not forbid association of agricultural workers, but made it a punishable offence for them to conspire to stop or obstruct work or to incite others so to conspire. In 1866 the Government made an attempt to obtain the repeal of this Act. The attempt was unsuccessful and the legislation of 1854 remained in force within the frontiers of Prussia as existing in that year until the Revolution of 1918. There was similar legislation in other German states. Much of this legislation, however, existed principally on paper and its practical application by the courts was almost unknown. The reason is not so much that those concerned were unaware of its provisions, or that it had fallen into desuetude by custom, as that until 1918 agricultural strikes were exceedingly rare. However, these Acts had one very important effect; they kept alive among agricultural workers the feeling that they were in an exceptional position in the eyes of the law; they thus contributed to encourage that rural exodus which has been so greatly deplored. In fact, their most harmful effects were inflicted on the agricultural employers themselves — the very persons who had demanded their enactment and who had continued to oppose their repeal.

It should be noted, however, that these Acts did not actually prevent or even make more difficult the formation

of unions of agricultural workers. It was not the formation of unions which they prohibited, but strikes. Other reasons must be sought to explain the late formation and slow development of agricultural trade unions and the fact that there was no difference in this respect between those parts of Prussia in which the Act of 1854 was in force and those in which it was not. The first and principal reason is to be found in the fact that agricultural workers are extremely scattered, which makes it very difficult to recruit members or to hold those frequent and regular meetings which are so great a help to membership. Another factor is the patriarchal relation between employer and employed, which has persisted much more intensely and much longer in the country, especially on small and medium-sized properties, than in the towns; there was and there is a much more intimate common life and a much less marked class distinction between the farmer and his labourers than between the master craftsman or small manufacturer and his workmen. But even the large landowner, when he managed his own estate, stood in a closer relation to his employees than the town factory owner; at the same time he enjoyed the social and political advantages of his traditional position as leader and master. The custom of providing labourers with a house and of concluding long-term labour contracts also increased the personal dependence of the rural worker.

Trade unionist principles made no headway in the country districts of Germany until the beginning of the twentieth century. The German Agricultural Workers' Union (*Deutscher Landarbeiterverband*) was founded in 1909 as a "Free" (Socialist) trade union; in 1911, after surmounting the usual initial difficulties, it was affiliated to the General Committee of German Trade Unions. Its membership, for the period before the war, was 9,532 at the end of 1910, 15,696 at the end of 1911, and 18,157 and 20,267 at the end of each of the years 1912 and 1913 <sup>(1)</sup>. During the war its membership, like that of all other trade unions, fell rapidly; the average 1918 membership was only 9,923. The Central Union of Agricultural Workers (*Zentralverband der Landarbeiter*), which is affiliated with the Christian trade unions, went through the same process. Its membership was 751 at the end of 1912, and 3,576 at the end of 1913. Towards the end of the war, a considerable increase was already noticeable; the average 1918 membership was 6,973.

The effects of the November upheaval of 1918 were possibly nowhere so revolutionary as where agricultural workers' right of association was concerned. Here, however, new

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(1) REICHSAMT FÜR ARBEITSVERMITTLUNG: *Die Verbände der Unternehmer, Angestellten, Arbeiter und Beamten im Jahre 1918: 22. Sonderheft zum Reichsarbeitsblatte*; p. 37. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing. 1920. See also *Sonderhefte* 6, 8, 11, 13, 16, 19 for previous years.

legislative conceptions were much less important than the positive changes which took place. The manifesto of the Council of People's Representatives of 12 November 1918 pronounced "the abolition of the Servants' Code and the Exceptional Laws against agricultural workers", and a stroke of the pen abrogated the Prussian Act of 1854. But reform did not end with the repeal of these antiquated laws. A rapid succession of measures, some of which were Emergency Orders, laid the basis for a new labour code, which included agricultural no less than industrial workers. The Order of 23 December 1918 laid the legal foundations for a code of collective agreements; where such agreements were of great importance they were allowed to be made legally binding on a whole industry, whereby very great privileges were conferred on those trade associations concluding them. The same Order made it obligatory to elect workers' committees in all undertakings, including agricultural undertakings, which employed twenty or more workers, and regulated the settlement of labour disputes by arbitration committees, before which trade associations were entitled to appear. The Provisional Order on Agricultural Labour of 24 January 1919 imposed the issue of a series of employment regulations on all agricultural undertakings having such workers' committees. Finally, the Works Councils Act of 4 February 1920 transformed these workers' committees into works councils with much larger powers. The rights, of the trade unions were, however, maintained, while the issue of employment regulations, which had previously been in the sole hands of the employer, henceforward had to be a matter of agreement between him and his works council. Nevertheless, a collective agreement was held to take precedence over any agreements reached in a single factory.

These far-reaching changes in the rights of labour were very favourable to the growth of trade unionism, more especially where, as in agriculture, it had previously made but little progress. But other causes were responsible for the sudden and amazing increase in the membership of the unions, especially of the agricultural unions. The tremendous wave of political excitement and the worker's supremely heightened spirit of class consciousness and his sense of power encouraged all to combine within their trade and made it easy to get men to join the unions. Again, the ever-growing insecurity and wretchedness of the economic situation convinced each separate worker of the value and necessity of trade unionism, without which no single individual had a chance of surviving such violent fluctuations of prices and wages.

The following analysis shows the growth in membership during and after the war of the two principal agricultural trade unions mentioned above.

At the end of	German Agricultural Workers' Union ("Free")	Central Union of Agricultural Workers (Christian)
	members	members
1918	16,349	9,953
1919	624,935	77,523
1920	780,000 <sup>(1)</sup>	150,000 <sup>(1)</sup>

(1) Estimated.

In the course of the Revolution political workers' councils had been formed in the towns. In order to counteract the neglect of agricultural interests, agricultural councils of labourers and peasants were also formed in many country districts with a National Agricultural Workers' and Peasants' Council (*Reichs-Bauern- und Landarbeiterrat*) at the head. This Council issued an appeal in favour of collective bargaining. But the agricultural councils hardly proved competent to carry out their functions; most of them dropped out of existence when the first storms of the Revolution had swept past. The agricultural unions, on the other hand, concluded a large number of collective agreements, so that agricultural employers' associations also came to be formed for the purpose of carrying on negotiations as well as with a view to the prevention of "outlaw" (*wilde*) strikes. In 1919 these associations amalgamated to form the National Federation of Associations of Agricultural and Forestry Employers (*Reichsverband land- und forstwirtschaftlicher Arbeitgebervereinigungen*).

This Federation on the one hand, and, on the other, the two agricultural trade unions, together with certain dairy workers' unions and unions of salaried employees in agriculture combined to form at the beginning of 1920 the National Joint Industrial Association of Agricultural Employers' and Workers' Organisations (*Reichsarbeitsgemeinschaft landwirtschaftlicher Arbeitgeber- und Arbeitnehmervereinigungen*). This was modelled on the Central Joint Industrial Association of Employers' and Workers' Organisations in Industry (*Zentralarbeitsgemeinschaft der gewerblichen Arbeitgeber und Arbeitnehmer*); this body had come into being immediately the Revolution had taken place, after long drawn out negotiations dating back a considerable length of time. The Central Industrial Association was a powerful organisation which included all the great trade union federations, Social Democratic, Christian, and the neutral Hirsch-Dunker unions, as well as the great employers' associations. Its chief aim was to collaborate in providing for the masses of demobilised men who were streaming back from the front, and to conclude collective agreements so as to improve and standardise labour conditions and to avoid "outlaw" labour conflicts. It was a notable triumph for trade unionism that the employers consented to form this joint

association; trade unionism, together with the principle of collective bargaining which had previously been rejected by many employers' organisations, now obtained the most formal recognition, and a struggle which had lasted for decades was crowned with success. The agricultural unions reaped the fruits of this victory; they had, of course, previously been in a much worse position on the question of recognition than the industrial unions. The great agricultural unions which were affiliated to the National Agricultural Workers' and Peasants' Council issued a manifesto towards the beginning of 1919, in which the employers were challenged not to dismiss or penalise workers on account of their membership or activity in a trade union and to recognise existing collective agreements as binding, while the members of the trade unions themselves were strictly bidden not to enter on "outlaw" strikes, but to submit all disputes to the arbitration committees and above all to their unions. A similar manifesto was issued by the Central Joint Industrial Association in connection with the political general strike of March 1920. Since then that body has done other good work, especially by encouraging collective bargaining.

Collective bargaining, which had previously been almost unknown in agriculture, now became widespread. Official statistics <sup>(2)</sup> give the number of the collective agreements concluded in agriculture and forestry, gardening and fishing as follows:

At the end of	Number of-		
	collective agreements	undertakings included	persons employed
1912	90	532	4,243
1918	81	740	5,293
1919	483	9,265	90,577

The number of agreements coming into force in 1919 is given as 477. These covered 9,210 establishments and employed 90,296 workers. Various sources of information indicate that a further considerable increase in the number of agreements concluded took place in 1920. Moreover, while most of the older collective agreements applied to gardening, or similar occupations, many of the newer ones apply to agriculture in the proper sense of the word. Among those which came into force at the end of 1919, there were 386 of these, embracing 5,617 undertakings employing 72,099 persons. Of the organisations associated in concluding them, 320, embracing 4,895 undertakings employing 57,036 persons, had arbitration and conciliation boards set up by a collective understanding. Altogether, under the Order of 23 December

(2) REICHSAMT FÜR ARBEITSVERMITTLUNG: *Die Tarifverträge im Deutschen Reiche am Ende des Jahres 1919. Nebst einem Anhang: Die Reichstarifverträge am Ende des Jahres 1920.* 23. Sonderheft zum Reichs-Arbeitsblatte. Berlin, Reimar Hobbing. 1921.

1918, 83 agricultural collective agreements had been filed for registration up to 31 December 1920, and 37 had been registered as binding.

The conclusion of these collective agreements, to be sure, has not proceeded smoothly or peacefully. The vast wave of strikes which swept over Germany after the Revolution affected agriculture no less than other occupations. Agricultural strikes used formerly to be such a rare and extraordinary phenomenon in Germany that they were not recorded in official statistics at all. Even the 1919 figures are incomplete. They give 164 agricultural strikes, including one political strike. The 163 purely economic strikes affected 932 undertakings employing 24,955 persons, and the maximum number of workers on strike at one time was 22,253; the number of working days lost was 115,951, or an average of 5.2 per striker, and the average duration of a strike was 3.4 days. These figures are certainly far from negligible, but they are as nothing in comparison with those for strikes in industry (which are also incomplete), namely, 4,932 strikes, 899 of which were political; 3,682 strikes were called on economic grounds, and in these the maximum number of persons on strike at one time was 1,906,210, while the number of working days lost reached the enormous total of 32,463,620; the average duration of a strike was also much longer than in agriculture, namely 9.4 days<sup>(3)</sup>. It is true that in 1920 the number and extent of strikes in agricultural occupations had considerably increased as against the number in 1919; there were 366 strikes affecting 3,220 undertakings. The maximum number of persons on strike at one time was 53,606, the number of working days lost 227,168, and the average duration of a strike 5.0 days<sup>(4)</sup>.

It is unnecessary to labour the point that strikes in agriculture are much more serious than strikes in industry. A stuff which remains unwoven today can be finished a month hence, nor will the economic life of the nation suffer any very serious loss. More intensive work will generally make good the loss in production. It is otherwise in agriculture. Every day lost in the sowing season will be so much of the harvest lost. Every day lost at harvest time will perhaps be so much absolute loss of produce. The question then arises whether it is really right and possible to allow to agriculture the same unlimited right to strike as is allowed to industry. At present this is a much more vital problem in Germany than in most other countries. Such immense burdens have been imposed on the German economic system by the Treaty of Versailles and the Ultimatum of 1921 that it will be impossible in future to pay for the large quantities of foreign foodstuffs which the German population used to require in peace time in

(3) *Statistik des Deutschen Reichs*, Vol. 290.

(4) Information supplied by the *Reichsamt für Arbeitsvermittlung*.

addition to the yield of its own flourishing agriculture. As the treaty further imposed the loss of large provinces producing an agricultural surplus, and also of the colonies, it is essential that the productivity of German agriculture should be raised to the highest point possible. Every day's work lost in agriculture means an increased degree of that underfeeding of the population, which has already attained such terrible dimensions. One may indeed ask whether under these circumstances some restriction of the right of association and strike is not advisable. So far the German legislator has rightly denied the suggestion.

Attention has already been drawn at the beginning of this article to the inconsiderable influence which actual legislation on the right of association has had on the number of strikes. Artificial barriers erected by the law never hold out against outbreaks of elemental force. On the contrary, when water is dammed up too high, its power increases. Large, powerful organisations, as a rule, find leaders conscious of their responsibility. Experience has shown this to be the case in German agriculture. Since the Revolution strikes have generally broken out either where organisations have failed to take root, or else where they have not been established long enough to introduce the discipline of common action among an enormous influx of new members untrained in trade unionism. Danger does not lie in the existence of strong agricultural trade unions ; it lies rather in the recognised difficulty of organising such workers, and it is not improbable that a certain reaction will follow the recent progress of the last few years <sup>(5)</sup>. A tendency is already showing itself in many parts of Germany to split off from the larger unions, a tendency due to the influence of extremist leaders, who can gain a temporary ascendancy over these undisciplined workers with comparative ease. By 1920 the membership of one of these radical unions, the German Agricultural Workers' Union of the Midlands (*Mitteldeutscher Landarbeiterverband*), was estimated to have reached 8,000. But the other side, building on the strong common interests of a rural population, is also making attempts to form unions of the kind known as "industrial peace unions" or by their opponents as "yellow unions". The German League of Agricultural Workers (*Deutscher Landarbeiterbund*), founded in 1919, reached a membership of 4,900 during its first year. In 1920 it joined with other unions of the same kind to form the National League of Agricultural Workers (*Reichslandarbeiterbund*), which, on its foundation, claimed to have a membership of 40,000 and later of 65,000. There is also the Union of Catholic Agricultural Workers of Bavaria (*Verein katholischer ländlicher*

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(5) A certain instability is also noticeable in the agricultural workers' movement in other countries, e.g. in Sweden. Cf. the *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, No. 1, April 1921, pp. 110 sqq.



*Dienstboten Bayerns*), with 28,000 members, which is on a confessional basis. The principal centre of the "industrial peace" movement is Pomerania; in many districts of that province it appears to be stronger than the trade union movement. This has been the actual cause of greater violence and rivalry in quarrels and disputes.

In view of the great increase in the number of strikes called in the last few years the legislature has begun to turn its attention to the prevention and settling of labour disputes. The arbitration committees established by the Order of 23 December 1918 have already been mentioned. A proposed Bill, embodying an arbitration code, would develop them still further; this Bill is under consideration by the Federal legislative assemblies <sup>(6)</sup>. Among its clauses is one which compels the disputants to submit their dispute to the competent arbitration authority before taking any further steps. As no penalties are imposed for a breach of this regulation, it has nothing but moral force. The same remark applies to the further provision that in the case of public utility undertakings, which in the sense of this clause include agricultural undertakings during the time of harvesting crops necessary for the public food supply, there must be a secret ballot among the workers or the employers before a strike can be called or a lock-out declared, and that this ballot must show a two-thirds majority in favour of such action; also to the clause providing that, in the case of such ballot, at least a week must have elapsed after the arbitration award has been pronounced.

It may be assumed that, should such regulations become law, they will obtain recognition in spite of the fact that they are guaranteed by no penal measures, because they express nothing but what common sense and the public good demand. Here the legislature takes advantage of the force of public opinion. Public opinion, indeed, will suffice, except in extraordinary cases, to prevent any abuse of a privilege which the rural population cannot be expected to renounce, now that it has become conscious of its rights, and has secured within the social organisation equality with the industrial working class.

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(6) Text in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* (New Series), Vol. I, 31 Mar. 1921, No. 12, p. 499.



# INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

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## Trade Union Organisations

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**I**N the trade union congresses held during September, although questions of organisation, as always, had their place and were occasionally the subject of animated discussion, the main preoccupation was the industrial depression as it affects the workers. Whether in international or national congresses, in Europe or America, the most acute problem has always been that of unemployment and possible remedies for it, and, arising out of this, questions of trade union funds, of wage reductions, and of emigration.

### THE INTERNATIONAL MOVEMENT

The Congress of the **Printers' International**, comprising 28 delegates from 16 countries, met at Vienna from 5 to 9 September. The secretary's report pointed out that several important unions, notably the British, were not yet members of the International, but it was hoped that the British would shortly affiliate. Most of the time of the congress was occupied with questions of organisation rather than of policy, though resolutions were passed protesting against the treatment of the Hungarian printers' unions, and advocating complete freedom of the press. The congress decided to maintain its adherence to the Amsterdam International rather than affiliate to Moscow. Relations with the Christian trade unions were discussed at some length, and it was argued, that although these unions claimed to protect the interests of the workers, their influence, especially during disputes, was more favourable to the employer.

All national unions of printers were recommended to amalgamate into a single organisation within their own country; the resolution dealing with craft and industrial organisation, however, stated distinctly that this question was purely one of tactics, not of principle, and that unions should adopt whichever form was most natural and convenient.

The **International Federation of Textile Workers** held its first congress since the war at Paris from 19 to 24 September. A French worker applied for admission to the congress as representative of the Russian delegates, who had been unable to attend the congress owing to passport difficulties, but was refused. It was decided, in spite of some opposition, to keep the International Secretariat at its present British headquarters; a generally expressed feeling was that the Secretariat should be strengthened in staff and financial resources, so that it might be more effective and become more than a mere clearing house for information. The sum of 200,000 francs was voted from the international strike fund in aid of the French and Belgian textile workers at present on strike against proposed wage reductions; the fund itself was the subject of some

discussion, the British delegates proposing its entire suppression. Eventually, however, it was decided to continue and increase it<sup>(1)</sup>. After this the congress was mainly occupied with consideration of the unemployment crisis. Among methods of coping with this, in addition to demands for an unemployment benefit almost equal to the normal wage and a reduction of hours of work to eight per day and 44 per week, the congress proposed the employment of weavers on one loom only as well as the resumption of industrial and commercial relations with Russia. The International Secretary is to send questionnaires to each national union on hours, wages, cost of living index numbers, and refusal to work for war purposes. The next congress will be held at Naples in 1924.

A congress of women **Christian trade unionists** was organised by the **International Federation of Christian Trade Unions** at Brussels on 12 and 13 September, with the object of promoting the development of women's trade unions and increasing the share taken by women themselves in drafting international regulations affecting them. The principal points emphasised were the universal introduction of the Saturday half-holiday, the protection of maternity, the improvement of conditions of home work, and, as an ultimate ideal, the abolition of the wage earning of women.

The **International Federation of Non-Manual Workers in Private Undertakings** was established at a congress held at Luxemburg on 28 and 29 September. The Federation will include about 583,000 members in seven countries, and the headquarters are to be in Paris.

The formation of an international federation of Christian leather workers was discussed by representatives of Belgium, Germany, and Holland at a recent meeting. With this in view a congress is to be convened on 14 December.

#### NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The **Trades and Labour Congress of Canada** held its thirty-seventh annual convention at Winnipeg from 22 to 27 August. The report of the Executive Council dealt at some length with the affiliation of the congress with the Amsterdam International Federation of Trade Unions. At the special International Congress at London, the representative of Canada was unable to support most of the resolutions there passed, as they were entirely inapplicable to Canadian conditions. Nevertheless, it was regarded as essential that affiliation should be maintained for two reasons: first, that as a member of the British Empire Canada must keep in the closest touch with Europe, whence much of its future population is drawn; second, that Canada is a member of the International Labour Organisation, and the best way of securing representation and consideration of the interests of Canadian workers in that Organisation and its Governing Body is to remain in touch with the Amsterdam International. Thus the Trades and Labour Congress has not followed the example of the American Federation of Labor, to which it is affiliated, in severing its connection with Amsterdam<sup>(2)</sup>. On the other hand, it expelled from its own body the Canadian

(1) For another decision regarding an international strike fund cf. the *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, p. 50.

(2) *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 3, Sept. 1921, p. 54.

Brotherhood of Railway Employees, because it had refused to amalgamate with any of the American railway organisations<sup>(3)</sup>. The congress devoted much of its attention to the problem of unemployment, which is at present acute in Canada as elsewhere. The report of a special commission stated what, in its opinion, were the causes of the depression, and proposed remedies, among them the following :

(i) a conference on unemployment insurance, as already promised by the Government;

(ii) transitional measures, such as the restriction of immigration, reduction of hours of state employees, repair and extension of public works, such as roads, railways, etc., and the encouragement of working-class housing;

(iii) absolute prohibition of European immigration for at least two years, and permanent exclusion of Oriental immigrants.

The Minister of Labour addressed the congress on the subject of unemployment and of wage reductions, pointing out what the Government had done through its employment exchanges and its financial assistance to local authorities for the relief of unemployment; he advised the workers to accept wage reductions. His speech met with considerable criticism. Other resolutions dealt with the 'open shop' in the printing trade, the formation of industrial councils and the danger of their supplanting trade unions, and the enforcement of the provisions of the Peace Treaty affecting labour.

The French National Federation of Civil Servants (*Fédération nationale des syndicats de fonctionnaires*) held its congress in Paris on 24 and 25 September. Resolutions were passed affirming the right of association of government servants, and protesting strongly against the proposed "militarisation" of civil servants under the new compulsory service Bill. The Government proposal to abolish cost of living bonuses as well as the new pensions scheme were considered and disapproved. In discussing the question of administrative reform, the congress considered the possibility of joint action by manual and non-manual workers, and stress was laid on the importance of the Economic Council of Labour and of maintaining its work, in spite of the difficulties under which the General Confederation of Labour is at present suffering.

The Federation of Lighting and Motor Power Workers (*Fédération de l'éclairage et des forces motrices*) met in congress at Nancy on 23 September. The secretary's report — of a 'majority' tendency — was adopted by a large majority, and during the general discussion of policy it was found possible for the 'majority' and 'minority' sections to agree on a single motion, which was passed practically unanimously. Passages from the resolution were as follows :

The Congress :

Considering that the strength of the organised working class lies in its unity, is convinced that the clash of principles, far from decreasing the fighting spirit of organisations, strengthens their policy by making it more concrete,

Declares that under no circumstances may an opinion be forced on an individual, since it is the duty and the right of every one

(3) *Ibid.* Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 86-7 and 107-8.

to contribute his own point of view, and the action of the trade union movement should be determined by a synthesis of the principles freely expressed within its ranks.

Once the congress, after comparison of different rival opinions, has determined on a policy, such policy must be strictly observed by all trade union organisations...

Given the fraternal co-operation of all shades of opinion in the management of the Federation, the congress cannot permit the establishment of groups or organs outside the structure of the Federation, whether revolutionary trade union committees, sub-federations, or trade union study circles, which intend to oppose the action of the Federation as determined by the congress...

An interesting report on organisation and workers' control advocated the institution of "control committees" in each works, these to be organised in local trade union branches, as well as in unions of the whole number of workers employed by one firm — in great gas and electrical undertakings frequently a very large body of persons. With these might be linked up local groups of consumers who were supplied by the same firms.

The German Metal Workers' Union (*Deutscher Metallarbeiterverband*), said to be the largest trade union in the world, held its fifteenth congress from 12 to 18 September at Jena. Almost the whole period was spent on discussion of the general future policy of the union, the parties represented being the Majority Socialists, the Independent Socialists, and the Communists. At the previous congress at Stuttgart the Independents were in the majority, but at Jena the Majority Socialists outnumbered them. Eventually, however, agreement was reached between these parties on a resolution embodying the general programme of the union. This includes :

- (1) the close organisation of all manual and non-manual workers;
- (2) utilisation of all means for furthering the interests of metal workers;
- (3) guarantee of earnings sufficient to allow for the results of the war and the increased cost of living and to provide a reasonable standard of living;
- (4) the provision of productive work or adequate support for the victims of the capitalist system and the world war;
- (5) a well constructed system of works councils and economic councils, which will set no limit to the extension of the workers' influence on the process of production until public ownership is reached;
- (6) education of the workers, in order to fit them for their tasks under public ownership;
- (7) the abolition of class justice, extension of social legislation, and conversion of private into public rights, which will ensure that the whole community shares in the product of industrial undertakings.

The committee and officers were also elected on the basis of a compromise between the two Socialist sections.

The General Federation of Non-Manual Workers of Germany (*Allgemeiner Freier Angestelltenbund*) held its first congress at Düsseldorf on 2 October. The Federation at present has a membership of about 700,000. The main resolutions passed dealt with the necessity of the organisation of non-manual workers, irrespective of political or religious opinions, and with the objects of the Federation. Among the demands of the Federation were full recognition of the priority of the workers' rights over material interests, the abolition of income derived from any source other than work, systematisation of industry (*Planwirtschaft*), and recognition of

the workers' right to share in the regulation of wage and labour conditions.

The **National Federation of Professional, Technical, Administrative, and Supervisory Workers** of Great Britain held a congress in London on 17 September. This is a newly formed organisation, including associations of clerical and administrative workers with a total membership of about 350,000. At the congress itself, however, more than a million such workers were represented. The chief subject of discussion was the questionnaire which it is proposed to send to members of, and candidates for, Parliament; this deals with the right of association of non-manual workers and the recognition of their unions as negotiating bodies by the employers; the modification of the Industrial Courts Act so as to make public enquiry into disputes compulsory; and the promotion of legislation to bring office accommodation up to modern standards of hygiene.

As an additional sign of the progress of the organisation of non-manual workers in Great Britain, the amalgamation of several unions of colliery officials may be noted. Already six thousand colliery officials and clerks are enrolled in the new **Mining, Clerical, and Administrative Workers' Guild**.

The **Transport and General Workers' Union**, the result of a number of amalgamations, held a special congress from 27 to 29 September at Leamington to frame rules for the union; these were considered in private session. Resolutions were also passed pledging the union to resist any attempts to break 44-hour agreements, and offering the most strenuous opposition to any efforts to destroy or weaken the Trade Boards Act in any way.

The General Council of the **Trades Union Congress** (4), the appointment of which could not be carried through at the Cardiff Congress, has now been elected.

At the fourth Congress of the **Italian Union of Labour** (*Unione italiana del lavoro*) at Rome on 23 September, the most important subjects discussed were those of unemployment and emigration. The congress demanded that steps should be taken to deal with the present crisis, among them the following: the execution of public works, especially in agriculture, through co-operative societies; the abolition of customs tariffs in industries which are unable to pay a reasonable wage; the confiscation of large estates and their cultivation in small holdings; and the speeding up of work in the devastated areas. The resolution on emigration supported the principle of the 'open door' from countries with a congested population to those more sparsely populated where industry is flourishing; reciprocal agreements with foreign countries for the protection of foreign workers; the regulation of the departure of emigrants according to the demand for their services; and the establishment of offices for the assistance of emigrants. A resolution on international relations provoked a long discussion; the motion carried laid down as the principles of "the true People's International" the complete independence of all self-conscious nations; the pooling of raw materials; freedom of navigation, emigration, and commerce; and the adoption of a uniform international currency.

The **Italian Confederation of Workers** (*Confederazione italiana dei lavoratori*), the Catholic trade union organisation, at its congress

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(4) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, p. 68.

at Milan on 28 September also considered the question of unemployment. It called for the issue of a national loan with a view to the execution of public works by the unemployed, the revision of present legislation on unemployment and employment exchanges, and resistance to attempts to decrease wages. A further resolution was passed recommending that industries especially suited to Italy by reason of plentiful raw material or convenient markets should be substituted for others at present existing without special facilities. The congress also called for the revision of customs tariffs to facilitate the export of agricultural produce, the drainage of marsh areas in the southern provinces, and the exploitation of hydro-electric power.

The Executive Council of the **American Federation of Labor** met at Atlantic City from 21 to 31 August to formulate their policy according to the decisions made at the convention of the Federation in June<sup>(5)</sup>. Their discussions were private, but a number of declarations of policy were issued. These dealt principally with unemployment and wage reductions; it was stated that the present acute degree of unemployment was largely due to a campaign to force down wages, that further reductions of wages would still further curtail purchasing power, leading to greater depression and further unemployment. The Council also concerned itself with education, and is preparing to undertake a nation-wide campaign for the purpose of "removing the false conceptions of existing theories of industrial, political, and social economy".

The Convention of the **United Textile Workers of America**, which met in New York from 22 September onwards, declared against any attempt at further reduction of wages. Another resolution demanded the institution of the 8-hour day and 44-hour week throughout the industry.

The **United Mine Workers of America** held their fifth biennial convention at Indianapolis from 20 September to 5 October. Dissensions within the union gave rise to long and heated discussion, chiefly over 'outlaw' strikes in Kansas and other districts. The district officers of the union having refused to accept the rulings of the central executive, the matter was laid before the convention, which on a vote supported the executive. The Kansas strikers are therefore ordered back to work and their chief representatives suspended. An important resolution was passed calling for the nationalisation of all mines in the United States and Canada. With this nationalisation a share for the workers in management and control was demanded. It was proposed to establish an alliance with the railwaymen's unions which have already declared in favour of nationalisation, in order to work towards a common end. A further motion proposed the formation of a political labour party by the trade unions composing the American Federation of Labor, the farmers' associations, and other organisations.



## Employers' Organisations

THE questions most frequently considered by employers' organisations within recent months have quite naturally been the industrial depression, problems of unemployment, and wage reductions. The 8-hour day, collective agreements, and the establishment of works committees have also come in for a share of the discussion.

### INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The International Building Trades Congress opened at Brussels on 18 October 1921. Some fifty delegates were present, representing Belgium, France, Great Britain, Italy, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Spain, and the United States. The congress adopted a number of resolutions, notably on the subjects of the 8-hour day, the general building situation, and the international recruiting of labour.

The congress expressed the hope that the 8-hour day would be suspended in the countries where it was already in force, and that it would not be adopted in those countries which still had it under consideration, until the international situation had been stabilised; it urged employers' associations to impress upon their governments that any application of the law to open-air industries such as building and public works should take the whole year as the time-basis for calculating hours. The congress declared itself in favour of the standardisation and simplification of building, and of increasing the number of skilled workers in the industry by encouraging vocational training. Finally, a resolution was adopted to the effect that national organisations affiliated to the International Federation should collect all information concerning emigration and immigration of labour; this should be transmitted to the permanent office of the Federation so as to be available in the course of any negotiations; meanwhile reciprocal labour conventions should be adopted by those countries where they were still wanting, in order to improve the recruiting of labour.

The congress also declared itself absolutely opposed to compulsory profit-sharing, although admitting that under certain circumstances profit-sharing had its advantages and was a means of establishing cordial relations between men and management.

### NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The Argentine Labour Association (*Asociacion del Trabajo*), in response to a request from the Government, which has under consideration a Bill on compulsory arbitration, gave it as its opinion that the setting up of industrial councils on the lines of the Whitley Councils in England was not likely to meet with great success in Argentine. The Association pointed out that industry in Argentine is unequally distributed over a very wide area, so that it is impossible to organise, as in England, a hierarchy of local, district, and national committees. Workers' organisations are not yet sufficiently developed and have no standing at law, all of which would make it almost impossible to rely upon them for effective collaboration.

The Association, however, considered that an attempt might be made to set up workshop councils or committees adapted to the peculiar conditions of industry in Argentine. Such councils would enable employers and workers to keep continually in touch with one another and so prevent many disputes. The principles underlying such an institution of committees should comprise the following points:

(1) The system should not be imposed from without, but should be the result of common agreement.

(2) Each committee should include an equal number of employers' and workers' representatives respectively, and the method of election of members should be fixed in each individual case in the manner best adapted to local conditions.

(3) The activities of the committees should be confined to the internal workshop administration and they should not concern themselves with matters of a general character. In addition to questions concerning labour conditions in the strict sense of the term, the committees should aim at encouraging workers to investigate means of improving and increasing production.

(4) The representatives of the workers should be persons who have been in the employment of the firm for a long period and who enjoy the confidence of the workers themselves.

(5) The meetings of the works committees should be informal in character.

The Central Industrial Committee of Belgium (*Comité central industriel de Belgique*) on 21 June addressed to the King a letter referring to the communication sent by the King to the Minister of Industry and Labour following on the promulgation of the Eight Hour Day Act. In his letter the King expressed his belief that employers would be able to cope successfully with their difficult task and to introduce into their establishments such equipment and methods of organisation as would increase output. He was confident that the working people for their part would do all that was needed for the general welfare, and that a common endeavour to revive the economic life of the nation would strengthen the social harmony which was so essential after such an unprecedented crisis. The Committee stated in its letter that none of the employers failed to realise the efforts that were necessary, and that they were all conscious of the duties and responsibilities imposed upon them by present conditions. They were anxious to secure, with the loyal help of both employers and employed, that close community of aim and thought which alone, through order and toil, would bring in the better days for which Belgium looked. The King could rely on them to carry out the wish he had expressed.

At its plenary meeting on 28 September the Committee passed a resolution on the enforcement of the Eight Hour Day Act as from 1 October, which was in the following terms:

The Central Industrial Committee of Belgium, finding that on the eve of the date appointed for the coming into force of the Eight Hour Day Act the Royal Decrees mentioned in Sections 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9, and 10 of that Act have not yet been issued;

that the councils which were to be consulted under Clauses 3, 4, and 5 of Section 14 have not yet given their opinion;

that, in these circumstances, the strict application of the Act is impossible, especially with regard to overtime for workers in a position of trust or employed on preparatory or supplementary work such as lighting or extinguishing fires;

confirms the proposals for modification which it has already forwarded to the Government, and, pending the issue of the Royal Decrees, feels bound to advise employers to apply the Act in accordance with these proposals.

The Belgian Federation of Employers in the Brabant Iron Industry (*Union patronale des métiers du fer du Brabant*) at the beginning of September addressed a petition to the King asking that the application of the Eight Hour Day Act, to come into force in October, be postponed until a more favourable time. The Belgian National Federation of the Building Industry and Public Works (*Fédération nationale belge du Bâtiment et des Travaux publics*) has approached the Ministry of Industry and Labour on the same question. The influence of this national federation is indicated by the fact that it includes twenty-two affiliated district associations and is said to cover almost all building contractors, public and private, throughout the country.

On 7 September the general assembly of the Federation had passed a resolution opposing the application of the 8-hour day to the building industry. They maintained that, even if the industry re-doubled its efforts, it would not be possible to gain the time lost since 1914, to restore the devastated areas, to repair damages satisfactorily, and to provide sufficient building to relieve the housing shortage. They insisted that it was impossible to increase production on the basis of shorter working hours by any improvement in plant or equipment. The industry was already provided with up-to-date plant and equipment adequate to deal with the contracts undertaken, and manual labour would always remain the predominating factor in the industry. They pointed out that the average working day in the industry distributed over the year was already barely eight hours, because the longer 10-hour working day possible in fine weather was counterbalanced by the time lost in bad weather.

At the conference of representatives of Finnish industry and commerce held at Helsingfors in the beginning of September, a resolution was adopted, which suggested among other things that it would be desirable to permit certain relaxations of the existing very severe limitations on working hours. A deputation was appointed to call the attention of the Government to this resolution. Replying to the deputation, the Prime Minister declared that the Government would do everything in their power to develop the economic life of the country, but at the same time he thought it would be difficult to meet the wishes of the deputation with respect to hours.

The Finnish Employers' Federation (*Arbetsgivarnas i Finland Centralförbund*) has published in its official organ for August 1921 a report of the effects of the 8-hour day in Finland. It states that a decrease in working efficiency has occurred, amounting to between 10 and 20 per cent. in the metal industry, 5 to 25 per cent. in the paper industry, 15 per cent. in work paid by the hour, and from 5 to 10 per cent. in piece-work, in the saw-mills, and up to 30 per cent. in the wood-working industry. The statement is made that it has been necessary to increase the number of workers in the metal industry by 10 per cent. and in the saw-mill industry by 100 per cent., the latter industry having changed from the one-shift to the two-shift system; the number of workers in the transport industry is stated to have been increased by 25 per cent. Wages are said to have increased 25 to 30 per cent. and the cost of production from 30 to 40 per cent.

The Act is particularly burdensome to the building industry. The employers' association in the building industry desires to fix the hours at nine per day from April to October and at seven per day from November to March, making the average working day eight hours. That change would give longer working time during the favourable season of the year.

In France the **Association of Economic Interests** (*Union des Intérêts économiques*) drew up a programme of principles to be acted upon by its constituent groups. The Association demands amendments to the 8-hour Act and the adoption, after consultation with leaders in commerce and industry, of labour legislation which does not put the country in a disadvantageous position in its competition for international markets. Absolute freedom of contract in private undertakings, due observance of trade union law, involving the dissolution of illegal unions and associations and the equality of all recognised unions in state and municipal law, are also demanded by the Association. The programme further goes on to declare that government monopolies which have proved unprofitable enterprises (posts, telephones, telegraphs, etc.) should be liquidated and handed back to their private owners or re-organised on business lines. Trade unions of government servants should be dissolved and strikes in public services managed or contracted out by the state prohibited. However, regulations preventing government employees from unfair treatment and allowing for promotion on the basis of merit are at the same time deemed advisable. Respecting the salaries of state employees, the programme of the Association calls for the withdrawal of the special annual bonuses of 720 francs and the general revision of salaries and increments in the government services, which it considers would be in keeping with general reductions in wages in private industry and the decrease in the cost of living. The wages of employees and workers in general should also be reduced.

The **Federation of German Employers' Associations** in Berlin (*Vereinigung der deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände*) issued in April a number of guiding principles for the joint action of employers in the negotiation of collective wage agreements. It is laid down that, as a general rule, wages should be fixed separately for each industry in each locality; that the two chief factors to be taken into consideration should be the conditions prevailing in the industry at that time and the cost of living in the locality; while the basic principle to be kept in mind is that wages should be based upon output. It is further stipulated that due care should be taken to ensure the necessary collaboration between all the employers in each locality.

Four main types of collective regulation of wages are distinguished, namely, (a) for a single industry in a certain locality; (b) for all industries in a certain locality; (c) for a single industry over a whole industrial area; and (d) agreements on a national basis.

As already stated, collective wage regulation for a single industry in a certain locality is the general rule, to be negotiated by the local employers' organisation of that industry, or, if no such organisation exists, by the employers' organisation representing all the industries of the locality acting on behalf of that particular industry. Collective wage regulation of all industries in a certain locality is held to be exceptional and only possible in localities in which one particular industry distinctly predominates. On the other hand, where close

collaboration is possible between all employers' organisations in the locality, such a course may be adopted, as an exception, in cases where the solidarity of the local trade unions is so great that the conclusion of collective wage agreements on the usual basis would result in undesirable consequences.

Wage regulation in an industry for the whole of an industrial area should only be adopted when adequate collaboration is possible between the employers' associations affected, or in cases where the units of the particular industry are widely scattered or organisations are weak. Wage regulation that extends over so wide an area as to render collaboration impossible should, as a rule, be refused.

It is further laid down that the employers' trade associations of all industries in each locality or district are the competent organs for ensuring that due consideration be given to the cost of living factor in the wage policy. To this end, they should supervise the official or other cost of living and price statistics in their respective district and, if necessary, compile such statistics themselves. It is pointed out that the importance of these local and district associations of all industries will increase in proportion as the tendency to central regulation of labour conditions increases. It is their particular function to conduct the struggle against centralised control of industrial life (wage boards, national classification of districts) by the authorities and trade unions.

The Employment Exchange Committee of the Federation of German Employers' Associations has defined its attitude towards the new Employment Exchange Bill. In the first place, it is not in favour of the placement of non-manual as well as of manual workers by the employment exchanges. Again, it points out that the Bill provides for the compulsory institution of public employment exchanges in the district of every lower administrative authority, irrespective of the need for exchange in any particular district, and that the additional expense thus entailed would be more than industry could possibly afford. The Committee argues that experience has shown that the general placement of labour by public authorities results in a bureaucratic system which is peculiarly ill-adapted to the choice of suitable workers, and that in the interests of efficiency the limitation of the sphere of action of the employment exchanges should be insisted upon, as any influence which they may exercise on wage and labour conditions and any intervention in labour disputes between employers and workers would be a danger to industrial peace. Finally, the need for the free development of German industry makes it essential that there should be no compulsion whatever in regard to the placement of labour, and particularly no compulsion with regard to notification to, and the use of, the exchanges.

Various employers' associations restricted to a particular industry exist in India. Three Chambers of Commerce in the Bombay Presidency—the Bombay Chamber of Commerce, the Indian Merchants' Chamber and Bureau, Bombay, and the Karachi Chamber of Commerce—are also in a measure associations of employers. According to the *Bombay Labour Gazette*, the two chief employers' associations in the Bombay Presidency are the Bombay Mill Owners' Association and the Ahmedabad Mill Owners' Association. The Bombay Engineering Federation consists of some of the large employers of engineering labour in Bombay. The objects of the Federation are to discuss matters of mutual interest affecting

the members and the general conditions of service affecting employees of members.

In Japan the Council of the *Osaka Industrial Society (Osaka Kogyo Kai)*, at its meeting on 23 July, following a period of considerable labour unrest in the Prefectures of Osaka and Kogyo, appointed a committee to investigate, among other things, the practicability of the establishment of joint works committees. The report of this committee was considered at a general meeting of the Society on 13 August and was adopted. Employers were urged to establish a committee system along general lines laid down by the society. The system recommended equality of representation for workers and employers. Workers' representatives should be elected by secret ballot for the period of one year and be re-eligible. In large factories provision should be made for the setting up of sub-committees. All workers over twenty years of age, irrespective of sex, who have been employed in a factory for more than one year, should be eligible for election and office. Committees should act in an advisory capacity, but members should have the right to make proposals on their own initiative. Such questions as the increased efficiency of the factory, the welfare of the workers, the regulation of hours, and other matters which the employers considered suitable for consideration should be dealt with at the committees, which should meet at least four times a year. The general meeting of the *Osaka Kogyo Kai* called for certain governmental reforms, and on 22 August the Society laid a memorandum before the Government asking for (1) a Labour Department; (2) a law giving legal status to labour unions; (3) social insurance measures; (4) a court of arbitration and conciliation for enquiring into and dealing with industrial disputes; (5) a system of pensions; (6) the undertaking of public works; (7) an increased number of public employment exchanges; (8) loans at low interest for building societies.

In June the Prefecture of Tokyo requested various organisations of employers to make suggestions for the best way of obtaining statistics of the numbers of unemployed and the most effective measures for the relief of unemployment. The *Kpjo Konwakai*, an organisation of more than 500 of the principal factory employers in the Prefecture of Tokyo, sent a reply on 9 August in which they stated that

in Japan the difficulty of calculating the actual number of unemployed is increased by the fact that, generally speaking, no well-organised labour unions exist. To ascertain the exact number of unemployed and in order to cope with the situation, it is advisable to encourage the universal organisation of labour unions...

The general meeting of the organisations affiliated to the **General Federation of Italian Industry** (*Confederazione generale dell'industria italiana*) met in Rome at the beginning of October. The meeting dealt particularly with questions of wage reductions and unemployment insurance. The opinion of the meeting was that the few wage reductions which had so far taken place could not be considered as indicating a change in the general industrial situation; that a reduction in production costs was an essential pre-requisite to industrial recovery and that this would necessarily involve reductions in wages. With regard to measures for combating unemployment, the state should encourage the resumption of industrial activity, while at the same time preventing excessive competition from foreign countries. Public works should be undertaken

as a temporary measure, but, in order to prevent abuse, tendering for contracts should be enforced. Unemployment benefits should be submitted to stringent control and should not be raised. No action should be taken about health insurance until the whole system of social insurance had been reorganised. Greater simplification and co-ordination should be aimed at, but accident insurance, on account of its special character, should be administered independently.

In Roumania the **Central Office of Employers' Associations** (*Biroul Central al Asociaţiunii lor Patronale*) of Transylvania has been established during the summer of this year at Cluj, with the object of studying social and economic problems, possible solutions of the present industrial crisis, and the improvement of relations between capital and labour. This office has already been able to conclude a number of collective agreements, among others one between the employers in the metal industry and their workers, which contains, in addition to the usual clauses, provisions requiring (a) factories to be equipped with shower-baths; (b) one week's holiday with pay to be given workers after a year's service in the same factory; (c) should the output of a worker become reduced after ten years' continuous work with the same firm, work to be provided for him suited to his physical capacity without reduction of his former wage; (d) should a worker become totally disabled as the result of an industrial accident after at least ten years' work in the same firm, financial relief to be provided by the employer in addition to that already prescribed by law.

In the United Kingdom the appointment of a Commission of Enquiry into the working of trade boards and the reports of the early sittings of the Commission have aroused considerable interest and comment on all sides. On 5 October the Committee of the **National Union of Manufacturers of Great Britain** met and decided to collect all the available information as to the operation of the trade boards in every branch of industry throughout the country. With this evidence the Committee proposed to approach the Ministry of Labour and press the Government to suspend or abolish the boards. The Secretary of the National Union of Manufacturers has addressed a letter to the Minister of Labour protesting that the representation of employers on the Commission of Enquiry is inadequate and insufficient effectually to balance the influence exercised by the workers' representatives.

The **Portsmouth and District Drapers' Association** have issued an explanation of their recent action in declining to pay their workers trade board rates. This statement reads :

The recent action of our Association, which resulted in the prosecution of some of our members, served, as we had hoped, to draw the attention of the whole country to the hardships inflicted on very large numbers of women and girls employed in these industries, although by so doing we had to disobey the letter of the law, which was very distasteful to all our members. We feel that our object has been achieved, as the principle we stood for has resulted in the Minister of Labour appointing a strong committee to investigate the working of the trade boards, which he admits need overhauling.

Under the present rates, the private dressmaking industry is threatened with complete extinction, with the accompanying unemployment of thousands of young girls, and we earnestly hope that the decision of the committee appointed by the Government now sitting will enable the drapers and dressmakers of the country to again offer employment to those who are only waiting for fair terms to be arranged.

The **Incorporated Association of Retail Distributors** have expressed the opinion that, whereas trade boards achieved very satisfactory results in certain "sweated industries", the extension of the operation of these boards under the amending Act of 1918 had been productive of many unhappy results. Far from contributing to industrial peace, the boards, in the opinion of the Association, are a fruitful source of discontent and unrest among the wage-earners affected. They lead to disorganisation in business administration, and have laid upon industry heavy, non-productive expenses, which add to production and distribution costs, and so to prices, thus further handicapping trade and substantially enlarging the area of unemployment.

At a conference of the **British Engineers' Associations** to consider the problem of restoring vitality to industry on the basis of a national trade policy and to obtain the views of members of the associations on the subject for transmission to the Prime Minister, certain points of policy were agreed upon after full discussion. Among these were the demands for the loyal co-operation of labour and a great national effort to revitalise our industries and commerce; trade unions should repudiate the declared policy of their extremist sections to render the system of capitalism and private enterprise unworkable. The institution of secret ballot by the trade unions; the making of unemployment relief work productive to the greatest extent practicable; drastic measures to reduce the cost of living, so far as it may be due to profiteering; a more complete and better organisation of industry through its good government from within; observance of national economy and reduction in taxation on wealth-producing industries: were all points included in the demands put forward. The Government should also give due consideration to the possible effects upon industry of a policy of deflation.

The forty-seventh annual convention of the **American Bankers' Association of the United States** met at Los Angeles on 4 October. Mr. John S. Drum, President of the Association, said that, from reports received from more than a thousand banks, the conclusion reached was that the output of finished goods throughout the United States was considerably less than it had been a year ago, and measurably than less it had been six months ago, yet there was still a surplus of manufactured commodities in the hands of producers. A progressive decline in the cost of manufacturing had taken place during the year. In industry as a whole the costs of materials, labour, and construction, had declined in the order named. Increased efficiency of labour had been the natural result of unemployment on a large scale, except in the building trades.

From the reports received it was clear that three factors were specially retarding the re-adjustment of prices and costs. First, there was delay in adjusting the cost of labour. This was keeping up the prices of a very large number of commodities and services in which labour costs were the most important factor, and also served to prevent full employment of labour. This was due both to slow adjustment of the remuneration paid to labour and to the perpetuation of workshop rules tending to impair efficiency. Secondly, there was the continued high cost of transport, which prevented a natural and normal movement of commodities for sale. Thirdly, there was the continuation of an unsound system of taxation, which diverted working capital from its proper channels, preventing accumulation of the working capital necessary for increased output,



for installation of improved methods of manufacture, and for the full employment of labour.

The Committee on Labour Relations of the Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has made a study of the question, "Does the building public desire the Open Shop?" This investigation was conducted by means of a questionnaire addressed to the members of the Chamber of Commerce, the holders of building permits issued during the previous year, and a list of Cleveland firms. The questions asked were as follows: (1) Do you favour the establishment of the open shop in Cleveland's building industry? (2) If the open shop is re-established by representative Cleveland contractors, will you support this policy by inserting an open shop clause in contracts for your future building construction?

In all 4,169 replies were received. Of these 3,749 declared in favour of the re-establishment of the open shop and 224 against it. Of those in favour 3,403 declared their intention of inserting an open shop clause in future contracts, while 187 expressed themselves as unable to support this policy. On a further analysis of these replies, taking into consideration the remarks which in many cases accompanied them, the Committee on Labour Relations has drawn the following conclusions:

The survey is adequately representative of the building public. The permit-holders represent the portion of the building public active in 1920-1921; the Cleveland firms form a group responsible for a large proportion of building at all times; the membership of the Chamber of Commerce embraces 4,000 business and professional men directly and indirectly interested in good building conditions.

The sentiment of the building public is overwhelmingly in favour of the open shop for the building industry of Cleveland.

The building public does not desire to have the open shop policy result in the denial to labour of the right to organise or in the destruction of the labour union.

## The Growth of Trade Unionism since 1913

In the July-August number of the *Review* an article was published on *The Growth of Trade Unionism since 1913* (1) in the thirty chief countries of the world. Since the publication of this article further information has become available for Austria, Japan, Poland, South Africa, and the United Kingdom, and the following paragraphs supersede, correct, or supplement the information previously given.

The total number of trade unionists in the whole of the thirty countries mentioned now stands at 48,600,000, instead of at 48,029,000 as previously reported.

### AUSTRIA

In table III of the original article figures were available up to the end of 1919 only. *Die Gewerkschaft* (2) has recently published

(1) *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 78-109.

(2) No. 34, 1921.

figures giving the total membership of the General Federation of Trade Unions at the end of 1920 as :

Men	685,645
Women	215,175
Total	900,820

This is an increase of 17 per cent. during the year; trade unionists thus include almost one-sixth of the total population. A large proportion of the members belong to the class of non-manual workers. At the end of 1920 these numbered 273,842 persons, or 33 per cent. of the total.

#### JAPAN

The figures previously given for Japan, based on an investigation made by the Department of Home Affairs, show a membership of 246,658 in January 1921. It was stated, however, that these figures no doubt included not only the real labour unions, but also simple mutual aid societies. Revised figures have now been issued by the Police Bureau of the Department of Home Affairs<sup>(3)</sup> showing that there existed only 273 labour unions properly so called, with 110,688 members. These are preliminary figures and do not include unions in the Nagasaki and six other Prefectures. The largest numbers of organised workers are in the Tokio Prefecture, with 34,852 members; Kanagawa with 21,018; and Osaka with 15,355.

#### POLAND

The Polish Government has informed the International Labour Office that, owing to the transfer of certain German territories to Poland under the Treaty, the figures cited do not give a correct idea of the position at the present time.

Since 1920 the Federation of Free Trade Unions of Western Poland has been affiliated with the Central Trade Union Commission of Warsaw, and, according to its report presented to the Warsaw congress of 1920, it counted 21,065 members<sup>(4)</sup>.

The Polish trade unionists of Upper Silesia belong either to the Polish Trade Union Federation (*Zjednoczenie Zawodowe Polskie*), which has a membership of 160,000, or to the Central Federation of Polish Trade Unions (*Centralny Związek Zawodowy Polski*), which has a membership of 30,000. These should therefore be included under the heading "Poland", as neither of these organisations belongs to the German Trade Union Federations.

The Polish Government gives no new information as to the total number of trade unionists in Poland.

#### SOUTH AFRICA

In the same article very meagre information was given as to the growth of trade unionism in South Africa, for, at that date, complete information was not available. Since then official information has been published for the first time by the South African

(3) See *Tokio Asahi*, 20 Aug. 1921.

(4) In the July-Aug. number of the *Review* the item of 560,000 members should have been credited to the Federation of Free Trade Unions of Poland (not of Western Poland).

Government<sup>(5)</sup>, and the following note gives a more complete statement.

Until comparatively recent years trade unionism was very weak in South Africa, but in 1911 the Transvaal Federation of Trades was established, and in consequence of the serious industrial disturbances on the Rand in 1913-1914 the South African Industrial Federation came into existence. In 1915 practical recognition was for the first time conceded to this body by the Chamber of Mines, but it was not until 1917 that the first trade union congress in the country was held by the Federation. Since that date, in the opinion of the government report already cited, the Labour Charter in the Peace Treaty has led to a still further development of trade unionism in South Africa. The Federation has now been reorganised under a system of national industrial departments, and, as stated in the article already published in the *Review*, the first congress under the new constitution took place at Johannesburg in January 1921.

Complete statistics as to the number of trade unionists in South Africa were not available until after the war, when the Statistics Act of 1914 was put into force. Under this Act compulsory returns have been secured, showing the membership on 31 December 1919 and 1920. Data for earlier years, showing the development of trade unionism in the country from its beginning, are being obtained and may be published at a later date.

TRADE UNIONS AND TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP  
IN SOUTH AFRICA ON 31 DECEMBER 1920<sup>(1)</sup>

Class of occupation	Unions	Membership
Mining	7	22,516
Engineering and metal working	8	11,369
Building	6	9,404
Printing, bookbinding, etc.	1	2,878
General manufacturing	12	4,208
State services <sup>(2)</sup> (excluding teaching)	7	44,647
Teaching services	5	4,912
Municipal and tramway services	25	6,785
Trading and clerical	11	13,948
Miscellaneous	8	12,087
Total	90	132,784

(1) In a number of cases craftsmen and others are members of more than one union. The extent of duplication cannot be given.

(2) Most skilled mechanics in the service of the railway administration are members of craft unions and not of railway unions. Such membership is therefore not included in "State services".

UNITED KINGDOM

Table XXV of the original article gave figures of trade union membership for the United Kingdom up to the end of 1919 only, and it was estimated, in the general summary in table I, that such membership at the end of 1920 was approximately the same as

(5) OFFICE OF CENSUS AND STATISTICS: *Social Statistics*, No. 3, Pretoria. May 1921.

at the end of 1919. The British Government has now, however, published official statistics, from which the following is taken <sup>(6)</sup>.

The total membership for the whole movement at the end of 1920 was approximately 8,502,000, as compared with 8,051,000 <sup>(7)</sup> at the end of 1919; an increase of 5.6 per cent. These figures for 1920 are provisional, and the totals given include the membership of overseas branches of certain unions, amounting at the end of 1920 to about 72,000, almost all of whom were men. The subdivision of the total membership into men and women is not exact, as estimates have been made for some unions which are unable to state exactly the number of their men and women members. The total number of men unionists was about 7,139,000; that of women unionists about 1,363,000. The complete total of 8,502,000 includes also a number of persons (principally teachers) who are members of more than one society and are therefore counted twice. When the necessary allowance is made for these and for the overseas members above mentioned, the net number of trade unionists within the United Kingdom would appear to be not more than 8,400,000, possibly somewhat less.

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(6) MINISTRY OF LABOUR: *Labour Gazette*, Oct. 1921.

(7) Figures for 1919 have been revised in accordance with later information received.

# PRODUCTION AND PRICES

## Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

IN the following tables the principal index numbers of wholesale prices in various countries have been brought together.

Table I gives the figures as originally published. In table II the same index numbers have been reduced to a common base, viz. 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, 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 from the fact that the process of reducing the figures to a common base renders them not truly comparable. If the index numbers are weighted averages of actual prices they can readily be transferred to any desired base. If, however, the index numbers are calculated by averaging the relative prices of individual commodities, the index numbers transferred to a new base (in this case 1913) are only approximations. If, in fact, the general index-numbers are merely divided by that for the year chosen as the new base, the results are not the same as those obtained by calculating for each commodity the relative price for the new base, and afterwards taking the weighted average in order to get the new index number. Thus in the case of certain countries, such as Canada, France, and Italy, which employ this method, the index numbers of table II are only approximate.

Tables I and II given below correspond to those published under the same heading in previous numbers of the *International Labour Review*. Some slight modifications have, however, been made.

In particular, the Belgian index numbers recently published in the supplement to the *Bulletin de Documentation économique* have been added to table I. They cover 73 articles divided into 5 groups (foodstuffs, textiles and leather, fuel and metals, building materials, miscellaneous). The index numbers are obtained by taking the unweighted arithmetic mean of the prices of the different commodities, which are themselves taken from the official lists of market prices. The base chosen is, for the moment, December 1920, so that it has not been possible to include these index numbers in table II, in which all percentages have been reduced to the base 1913.

The index number hitherto given for South Africa with 1 January 1914 as base has been replaced by another index number communicated by the Government of the Union of South Africa with 1910 for base. It has therefore been possible to reduce it to 1913 as base in table II.

There has been a slight change in the Netherlands index number, a fifty-third article, tobacco, having been added in all the calculations.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES AS PUBLISHED

Countries	Belgium	Canada	China (Shanghai)	Denmark	Egypt (Cairo)	France	Germany	India (Calcutta)	Italy	Japan	Netherlands	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	United States
Sources	Official	Official	Official	Finans-tidende	Official	Official	Official	Official	Bachi	Bank of Tokyo	Official	Official	Ökonomske Revene	Piedor-owicz	Official	Swensk Handelsstatistik	Neue Zürcher Zeitung	Official	Official
Number of commodities	73	272	147	33	24	45	38 (f)	77	75	44	56	53	140	92	1913	1913-1914	71	230	384
Base period	1920	1890-1899	Sept. 1919	July 1912, July 1914	Jan. 1913, July 1914	1901-1910	1913	Jan. 1920	July 1914	1901-1905	1900	1901-1910	1900-1913	Dec. 1913, June 1914	1913	1913-1914	July 1914	1913	1867-1877
(t)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)	(*)
average 1913	1088	135.5	*	100	100	115.6	100	*	*	126.0	132.2	114	1092	*	100	100	*	100	2692
1914	1149	136.1	*	100	100	117.9	105	9.1	100	119.8	126.3	120	1077	100	106	108.3	116	2658	85.0
1915	1604	138.0	*	138	102	161.6	142	*	112	167.2	127.8	165	1260	159	218	119.6	145	3313	83.0
1916	1504	132.0	*	134	124	217.6	152	*	112	251.6	154.9	253	1380	938	361	136.9	185	4392	108.0
1917	1662	237.9	*	228	169	302.4	176	*	142	385.9	196.4	326	1555	931	1091	156.9	244	5406	176.0
1918	1984	276.9	*	283	207	392.1	216	*	178	575.5	239.0	447	1809	845	1509	170.5	389	6056	192.0
1919	3055	268.2	100.0	234	226	411.8	412	*	200	460.9	316.6	439	1834	322	2137	183.4	330	6832	206.0
1920	2480	353.6	105.5	382	295	538.8	1251	141	204	786.7	341.2	320	2185	377	12385	248.5	347	6832	206.0
July	2671	346.8	108.3	385	283	572.9	1363	141	209	761.3	317.0	338	2262	399	12127	248.5	363	313.9	7626
Aug.	2692	380.2	106.2	394	279	579.5	1446	144	208	787.8	311.0	328	2261	417	14418	248.5	363	330.0	7743
Sept.	2618	326.6	105.5	398	299	607.7	1495	146	208	895.9	305.0	327	2267	425	14210	248.5	363	330.0	7743
Oct.	2450	317.6	104.2	403	300	580.0	1462	152	206	829.8	298.5	323	2291	419	16709	248.8	363	308.5	7175
Nov.	2371	304.2	104.6	374	287	592.0	1506	153	194	844.6	292.7	326	2247	403	20184	248.8	363	308.5	7175
Dec.	2245	280.5	104.8	341	238	502.6	1437	148	180	845.8	272.0	266	2249	377	20386	248.8	363	282.9	6594
Jan.	2238	281.3	103.9	290	214	470.0	1436	136	178	809.5	265.8	243	2233	344	33986	209.1	267	282.9	6594
Feb.	2190	270.1	106.9	280	196	434.8	1372	131	174	772.8	257.9	225	2163	319	40936	209.1	267	250.9	5617
Mar.	2008	240.0	107.9	270	182	416.0	1334	130	183	760.5	259.5	214	2148	312	42481	209.1	267	229.9	5176
Apr.	1947	84.0	103.7	254	181	401.3	1323	130	183	735.7	251.1	207	2145	312	42481	209.1	267	215.1	5097
May	1898	78.0	108.6	254	179	380.8	1308	128	184	689.1	252.4	207	2079	297	40756	184.2	218	205.7	4929
June	1845	78.8	114.4	254	166	375.7	1365	135	178	655.9	253.9	206	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	205.7	4929
July	1813	74.2	109.2	254	166	381.6	1425	159	183	652.7	263.5	201	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	178.6	4798
Aug.	1813	71.8	236.4	202	166	383.0	1917	164	183	652.7	263.5	201	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	178.6	4798
Sept.	1813	71.8	236.4	202	166	383.0	1917	164	183	652.7	263.5	201	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	178.6	4798
Oct.	1813	71.8	236.4	202	166	383.0	1917	164	183	652.7	263.5	201	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	178.6	4798
Nov.	1813	71.8	236.4	202	166	383.0	1917	164	183	652.7	263.5	201	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	178.6	4798
Dec.	1813	71.8	236.4	202	166	383.0	1917	164	183	652.7	263.5	201	2065	284	42323	184.2	218	178.6	4798

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 month; (e) figures from 1920 a revised index is used; (f) from 1913 to 1920 18 commodities only; (g) the figures for 1915 to 1920 relate to December in each year; (h) revised index; (i) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities. The sign \* signifies "no figures published" the sign — "figures not available".

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES  
(Base : 1913 = 100)

Countries	Australia (Mel- bourne)	Canada	Den- mark	Egypt (Cairo)	France	Germany	India (Cal- cutta)	Italy	Japan	Nether- lands	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzer- land	United Kingdom				United States									
Sources	Official	Official	Finans- tidsende	Official	Official	Official	Official	Bachi	Bank of Tokio	Official	Official	Ökonomisk Revue	Fiedor- owicz	Official	Swensk Handels- tidning	Neue Zürcher Zeitung	Official	Economist	Statist	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Federal Re- serve Board	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)	(h)	
Average 1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1914	106	100	100	100	102	105	100	95	96	105	104	100	106	106	107	116	100	100	99	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1915	147	109	138	102	140	142	112	133	97	145	123	159	218	97	145	100	100	123	127	127	101	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1916	138	134	164	124	188	152	125	200	117	222	134	233	361	122	185	100	100	161	160	124	124	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1917	153	175	228	169	262	176	142	306	149	286	151	341	1091	140	244	100	100	204	206	176	176	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1918	178	205	293	207	339	216	178	409	196	392	175	345	1509	152	339	100	100	225	226	226	226	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1919	189	216	294	226	356	412	200	366	240	297	178	322	2137	165	330	100	100	235	242	212	212	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1920	228	246	382	299	509	1251	204	624	258	281	212	377	12895	222	347	100	100	283	295	243	243	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1920 July	245	256	385	288	496	1363	1528	604	240	296	219	—	12127	231	363	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Aug.	247	244	394	279	501	1446	1560	625	225	288	219	417	12127	231	363	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Sept.	241	241	398	299	526	1495	1582	656	231	287	219	425	14418	222	365	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Oct.	225	234	403	300	502	1462	1647	659	226	283	212	419	14210	222	346	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Nov.	218	225	374	287	461	1506	1658	670	221	260	212	403	16709	222	331	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Dec.	206	214	341	238	434	1437	1608	655	206	233	218	377	20134	222	299	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1921 Jan.	205	208	290	214	407	1436	1473	642	201	213	216	344	20396	187	267	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Feb.	201	199	280	196	376	1372	1419	613	195	197	219	319	33286	187	267	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Mar.	185	194	270	182	360	1334	1410	584	191	188	208	312	40236	165	237	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Apr.	179	190	257	181	347	1323	1428	584	190	176	205	297	42431	165	237	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" May	174	183	254	179	325	1306	1387	597	191	182	201	294	40756	165	237	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" June	170	179	253	166	325	1365	1463	509	192	182	200	294	42325	165	237	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" July	167	176	254	166	330	1425	1473	520	197	176	200	300	47903	151	211	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Aug.	—	174	224	—	331	1317	1777	542	199	180	—	297	60736	151	211	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Sept.	—	—	202	—	341	1267	1932	580	207	180	—	287	71856	151	211	100	100	293	300	262	262	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Oct.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

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) from 1913 to 1920 commodities only; (g) the figures for 1915 to 1920 relate to December in each year; (h) revised index; (i) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities. The sign \* signifies "no figures published"; the sign — "figures not available".

## General Survey

Considerable caution is necessary in making international comparisons between wholesale index numbers in view of the very varied nature of the data on which they are based. A certain number of interesting deductions can, however, be made from an examination of the figures.

In previous numbers of the *Review* attention was called to a certain rise, or at any rate a distinct slackening in the rate of fall, in most of the index numbers of wholesale prices during recent months. In order to bring out this movement more clearly the table given in the last number of the *Review*, containing the variations in points of the general index numbers, is repeated below.

TABLE III. MOVEMENT OF GENERAL INDEX NUMBERS  
OF WHOLESALE PRICES  
(Base: 1913=100)

Countries	1921						
	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Australia	-16	-6	-5	-4	-3	-	-
Canada	-5	-4	-7	-4	-3	-2	-
Denmark	-10	-13	-3	-1	+1	-30	-22
France	-16	-13	-18	-4	+5	+1	+10
Germany: Official	-38	-11	-17	+57	+60	+492	+150
<i>Frankfurter Zeitung</i>	-9	+18	-41	+76	+260	+54	+215
India	+11	0	+1	-6	+5	-	-
Italy	-10	-20	+17	-88	+11	+22	+38
Japan	-4	-1	+1	+1	+5	+2	+8
Netherlands	-9	-12	+6	0	-6	+4	0
Norway	-7	-15	+3	0	+6	-3	-10
Sweden	-13	-8	-11	0	-7	-13	-14
Switzerland	-11	-22	-2	-6	-2	+4	+4
United Kingdom:							
Official	-15	-6	-4	-3	-4	-4	-3
<i>Economist</i>	-3	-6	-1	-4	-1	+1	+4
<i>Statist</i>	-7	-9	-9	-8	+3	-4	-6
United States:							
Bureau of Labor							
Statistics	-5	-8	-3	-3	0	+4	0
Federal Reserve							
Board	-4	-7	-1	-3	+2	+2	-
<i>Dun's Review</i>	-6	-6	-1	-5	+3	-	-

Generally speaking, the movement of prices has been very much the same as that noted in the last number of the *Review*. The rise is still going on in four out of the five countries then mentioned: France, Germany, Japan, and Switzerland. One other country, Italy, must be added, the figures for which show a rise which has been going on since July. In the United States, the index numbers for which were rising in previous months, the only figure available for September indicates that prices are stationary. The index numbers for Australia, Canada, Sweden, and Denmark are still falling, especially that for the last named country. In the Netherlands the movements of the index number are still uncertain; there is, however, an interruption of the fall which had been going on continuously for nearly a year. In the United Kingdom agreement between the three index



numbers is no closer than in the previous month. In Norway, the index number has again fallen after rising in May and July. No new figures are available for India.

If the detailed movement of the various groups of commodities in each country is considered, it appears that there is a very general rise in the index numbers of food stuffs, and, in some countries, of textiles. Industrial products are, in general, still falling.

### SOURCES

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DENMARK	Communication from the <i>Finanstidende</i> . <i>Dagens Nyheder</i> , 5 Oct. 1921.
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## Fluctuations in Retail Prices and in the Cost of Living

IN this article, as in those which have already appeared in the *International Labour Review*, a résumé is given of the most important information which it has been possible to collect on this subject. Table I on p. 63 gives index numbers of the retail prices of *food* in various countries (in alphabetical order). Table II on p. 64 gives *cost of living* index numbers, i.e. numbers which, in addition to food, generally include clothing, heating, lighting, rent, and miscellaneous items. Capital letters (A, B, C, etc.) at the head of each column indicate which of these groups are included in the enquiry in each country. The tables are similar to those appearing in previous numbers of the *Review*, but have been completed and brought up to date. As before, in order to facilitate reading and comparison, the index numbers in both tables have been reduced where possible to a common base, viz. July 1914=100.

All the index numbers in the two tables are taken from official sources, with the exception of those for Switzerland, which are published by the Federation of Co-operative Societies, and those for Berlin, published by Dr. Kuczynski. A complete list of sources for all countries is given at the end of the article. Following the arrangement adopted in previous articles, the absolute maximum of each series has been marked in heavy type. If, therefore, the maximum month is not included in the series, no heavy type figures will appear.

Cost of living index numbers are generally based on averages which give the different quantities of each article consumed in a given period by what is called a normal working-class family. This normal family consists as a rule of four or five persons, the father, mother, and two or three children, whose supposed age varies in different countries. The quantities allowed for in the typical budget are fixed according to observations made on a certain number of working-class families, or else according to theoretical calculations based, as regards foodstuffs in particular, on the number of calories which are necessary to support life. The prices recorded at various periods are then in most countries weighted according to these different quantities, on the assumption that the typical amounts consumed by the normal family have not changed since the beginning of the war. The total expenditure thus obtained is then converted into an index number.

It is clear that these figures do not measure exactly the cost of living. In the first place, they do not include the whole expenditure of a family, and secondly, the family budgets on which they are based have been considerably modified in the course of the war, owing both to government restrictions and to changes in the cost of living itself. Certain countries now publish index numbers of the cost of living on a post-war basis, of which an account will be given in a subsequent article. It may be said, however, that index numbers calculated in accordance with post-war conditions of living show that the figures based on normal pre-war budgets generally give figures higher than that of the actual cost of living.

In the notes on different countries which follow, we have,

## PRODUCTION AND PRICES

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	Australia	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Czechoslovakia	Denmark	Finland	France	Germany (official)	India	Italy	Netherlands	New Zealand	Norway	Poland	South Africa	Sweden	Switzerland	United Kingdom	United States
	(a)	(a)	(c)	(e)	(g)	(g)	(h)	(h)	(c)	(b)	(m)	(j)	(c)	(k)	(l)	(a)	(d)	(n)	(d)	(e)
No. of towns or localities	30	Vien- na 1,028 bud- gets	60	30	100	20	Paris	320	47	Bom- bay	Rome	Milan	25	30	War- saw	9	40	23	630	51
No. of items	46	12	22	29	26 (f)	—	37	13 (h)	13	—	36	38	27	59	13 (t)	18	50	37	20	43
Original base period	1911	July 1914	July 1914	July 1914	July 1914	July 1914	July 1914	1910	1913-1914	July 1914	1st half 1914	1st half 1914	1909-1913	July 1914	Jan. 1914	1910	July 1914	June 1914	July 1914	1913
(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
1914 July	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" Aug.	131	181	105	105	128	128	120	123	104	104	95	114	112	123	107	107	152	119	132	85
" Sept.	130	386	114	114	146	146	129	142	103	103	111	117	119	153	116	116	180	141	161	109
" Oct.	136	622	157	157	166	166	183	184	103	103	137	146	127	203	128	128	180	179	204	143
" Nov.	131	1788	175	175	187	187	206	203	103	103	203	175	139	271	134	134	258	222	210	164
" Dec.	147	3037	186	186	212	212	261	289	103	103	206	196	144	290	139	139	318	250	209	186
1920 July	194	5570	454	227	253	253	373	373	1156	1156	318	210	167	319	7715	197	287	239	262	215
" Aug.	194	5777	492	221	253	253	373	373	1049	1049	322	212	171	333	9170	196	239	239	267	203
" Sept.	197	6206	500	215	253	253	407	388	1032	1032	324	217	173	336	9044	195	248	270	270	199
" Oct.	192	6184	517	213	253	253	420	388	1129	1129	340	219	177	340	10487	197	295	246	291	194
" Nov.	186	7131	505	206	253	253	425	425	1184	1184	361	214	176	342	12548	196	236	236	282	189
" Dec.	184	8918	508	200	253	253	425	450	1272	1272	375	202	179	342	16444	198	230	230	278	175
1921 Jan.	184	9788	493	190	1843	276	410	410	1265	1265	367	193	178	334	21400	172	286	224	263	169
" Feb.	184	10080	484	178	1434	276	382	382	1193	1193	376	193	175	308	26448	165	286	221	249	155
" Mar.	181	11073	436	172	1423	276	382	429	1183	1183	386	193	169	309	26192	160	247	211	238	154
" Apr.	168	11241	418	165	1450	276	328	429	1171	1171	398	187	169	300	26370	156	247	211	232	149
" May	165	10848	405	150	1456	276	317	363	1152	1152	398	184	168	292	28332	152	247	211	232	142
" June	161	11001	417	148	1445	276	317	363	1175	1175	409	180	166	290	28332	144	232	211	230	141
" July	159	—	408	154	—	286	317	363	1274	1274	402	184	164	295	—	139	232	207	226	145
" Aug.	—	—	425	159	—	—	317	363	1399	1399	417	184	163	297	—	—	204	204	226	152
" Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	320	350	1418	1418	430	161	—	—	—	—	—	—	210	150
" Oct.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
" Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

- (a) Monthly figures relate to average of month.  
 (b) Monthly figures relate to end of month.  
 (c) Monthly figures relate to the 15th of the month.  
 (d) Monthly figures relate to the 1st of the following month.  
 (e) Until December 1920 figures relate to 15th of month; from January 1921 to the 1st of the following month.  
 (f) Include wood, coal, paraffin, and soap.  
 (g) Average of selected weeks in the half-year.  
 (h) 11 foodstuffs, together with oil and methylated spirit.
- (1) Quarterly index. From 1914 to 1919, index for the third quarter of each year.  
 (2) From 1914 to 1919 figures relate to average for year.  
 (3) From 1914 to 1919 figures relate to June.  
 (4) Index numbers based on January 1914=100.  
 (5) For 1916 index relates to December, for 1917 to September.  
 (6) Index of the Federation of Co-operative Societies; from 1914 to 1919 figures relate to the whole country.  
 (7) Until December 1920, 22 items.  
 (8) No figures published.  
 (9) Figures not available.

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF THE COST OF LIVING IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES  
(Base: July 1914 = 100)

Countries	Australia (e)	Belgium (c) (f)	Canada (g)	Denmark	Finland	France (h)	Germany	India	Italy	New Zealand (k)	Norway (l)	Sweden (m) (d)	Switzerland (d) (l)	United Kingdom (d)	United States
No of towns or localities	30	56	60	100	20	Paris (h)	47 (i)	Berlin (j)	Rome	25	30	40	23 (n)	630	32
Groups of items (see notes)	A. E.	A. B. C. D. G.	A. C. D. E. G.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. C. D. E.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. C. D.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F. G. H.
Original base period	1911	Apr. 1914	July 1914	July 1914	July 1914	1st half 1914	1913- 1914	1913- 1914	1st half 1914	1909- 1913	July 1914	July 1914	June 1912	July 1914	1913
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
1914* July	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1915 "	119	97	100	116	100	100	100	100	99	107	117	119	119	125	102
" Aug.	115	102	100	136	100	100	100	100	99	107	117	119	119	125	102
" Sept.	116	102	100	136	100	100	100	100	146	119	146	139	140	148	109
1917 "	116	102	100	136	100	100	100	100	146	119	146	139	140	148	109
1918 "	118	146	100	182	100	100	100	100	197	128	253	219	229	203	128
1919 "	132	155	100	211	100	100	100	100	205	133	275	257	261	208	156
1920 July	165	453	190	262	911	842	1125	189	313	149	335	281	253	255	175
" Aug.	165	463	188	262	991	785	1089	191	316	150	335	281	258	261	175
" Sept.	165	471	186	262	1030	777	1038	192	325	152	335	281	252	264	175
" Oct.	165	477	187	262	1063	827	1104	193	348	154	335	281	258	276	175
" Nov.	162	476	185	262	1085	872	1097	186	369	155	335	271	249	269	198
" Dec.	162	468	181	262	1103	916	1146	181	378	157	335	271	243	265	198
1921 Jan.	162	450	175	264	1065	924	1122	169	374	159	335	271	237	251	198
" Feb.	160	434	168	264	1013	901	1090	162	379	159	335	271	237	251	198
" Mar.	160	411	165	264	1027	884	1035	160	384	160	335	271	234	241	198
" Apr.	160	399	161	264	1008	894	976	160	411	159	335	271	231	233	198
" May	151	389	153	264	1012	880	930	167	396	159	335	271	212	228	198
" June	151	384	152	264	1050	896	1080	173	390	158	335	271	210	219	179
" July	151	379	155	237	1139	893	1125	177	387	157	335	271	214	219	179
" Aug.	151	384	158	237	1139	1043	1177	180	391	157	335	271	209	222	179
" Sept.	151	386	158	237	1139	1062	1177	180	400	157	335	271	206	220	176
" Oct.	151	386	158	237	1139	1062	1177	180	400	157	335	271	206	220	176
" Nov.	151	386	158	237	1139	1062	1177	180	400	157	335	271	206	220	176
" Dec.	151	386	158	237	1139	1062	1177	180	400	157	335	271	206	220	176

Groups of items included in the budget:

A. Food B. Clothing C. Fuel D. Light E. Rent F. Miscellaneous

G. Household utensils H. Furnishings.

(a) Monthly figures relate to average of month.

(b) Monthly figures relate to end of month.

(c) Monthly figures relate to the 15th of the following month.

(d) Monthly figures relate to the 1st of the following month.

(e) Figures relate to quarterly average.

(f) The index is a simple arithmetic average.

(g) Until December 1920 figures relate to the 15th of the month; after January 1921 to the 1st of the following month.

(h) For 1914 and 1919, figures relate to first half of year.

(i) Official index; until January 1921 only 39 towns.

(j) Kuczyński's index-numbers: cost of minimum of subsistence.

(k) Figures relate to the half-year preceding the month in question.

(l) From 1914 to 1919, figures relate to June in each year.

(m) For 1916, the December figure; for 1917, the September figure.

(n) Index of the Federation of Co-operative Societies; from 1914 to 1919 estimate for the whole country.

\* No figures published.

— Figures not available.

wherever possible, given the cost of living index numbers for groups of commodities for the latest six months available. A certain number of countries limit their investigations on the cost of living to foodstuffs. As foodstuffs, however, form the largest item of expenditure in the family budget, index numbers of movements of retail food prices give some indication of movements in the cost of living.

#### GENERAL SURVEY

Great caution is necessary in comparing the index numbers for different countries. The methods on which they are calculated, the number and importance of the markets under observation, the number and nature of articles taken into account, and the base period, all vary from one country to another. The results, therefore, are not strictly comparable. Comparison between the index numbers of the separate groups of commodities is, however, already becoming more possible between different countries.

With regard to fluctuations in food prices, which naturally form the most important item in working class budgets (40 to 60 per cent. of the whole), it was noted in the last number of the *Review* (1) that prices seemed to have risen slightly during the summer months. This tendency, however, is now disappearing in certain countries.

The following table shows, for food index numbers alone, the number of points by which the index number has fallen or risen during each of the six months April to September as compared with the previous month. Unfortunately the irregularity and delay in the publication of these figures prevent a general view being given of the movement of prices up to the end of September, but prices appear to be on the up grade again in Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, India, Italy, and Norway. The decline, however, has been resumed after one or two months' interruption in the United Kingdom, the United States, and Switzerland. In New Zealand it

TABLE III  
(Base : July 1914=100)

Country	Maximum	Increase or decrease on the proceeding month expressed in "points"					
		End of Apr.	End of May	End of June	End of July	End of Aug.	End of Sept.
Australia	197	-13	-3	-4	-0	-	-
Belgium	517	-18	-13	+12	-9	+17	-
Canada	228	-7	-15	-2	+6	+5	-
France (Paris)	426	-30	-11	-5	-6	+11	+12
Germany ( <i>Statistisches Reichsamt</i> )	1272	-17	-19	+23	+99	+125	+19
India (Bombay)	-	-1	+9	+7	+5	+3	-
Italy (Rome)	432	+46	-11	-12	-7	+15	+13
Italy (Milan)	598	+16	0	-75	-17	+12	+27
New Zealand	179	0	-1	-2	-2	-1	-2
Norway	342	+1	-8	-2	+5	+2	-
Switzerland (1)	248	-7	-3	+5	-6	-3	-
United Kingdom (1)	291	-6	-14	+2	+6	-1	-15
United States	215	-5	-7	-1	+4	+7	-2

(1) The index numbers in each case are calculated, not for the month quoted, but for the first of the following month.

has continued without interruption. It appears, therefore, that there has been rather a seasonal movement in prices than a new tendency to increase.

In the remaining groups of commodities the same movement as before is going on: a nearly universal fall in clothing, fuel and lighting; a tendency to rise definitely but slowly in rent. A special exception must always be made of Germany, and more especially of Austria and Poland, in which the continual fall in the rate of exchange is reflected in soaring prices.

#### AUSTRALIA

The latest figures from Australia relate to the months of June and July last. The index number issued by the Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics for food and groceries shows that prices remained stationary in July 1921 and are now about 61 per cent. higher than in July 1914, while the figure for cost of living (which, however, includes only rent in addition to foodstuffs, etc.) is about 50 per cent. higher than the pre-war level. Rents have remained almost stationary, with a slight tendency to increase, as compared with the previous quarter.

#### AUSTRIA

The Central Statistical Commission has published further figures, in continuation of the investigation begun in January 1921, of the cost of foodstuffs in Vienna. The figures cover some 20 items of food, together with coal and wood (for cooking only). The following table shows the estimated cost for a family of four for four weeks.

TABLE IV  
(Base: January 1921=100)

Groups	Expenditure in kronen				
	Jan.	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Food	3,972	6,190	5,866	6,879	9,236
Seasoning, luxuries, etc. (10 % extra)	397	619	587	688	924
Coal and wood for cooking	426	543	576	677	677
Total	4,795	7,352	7,029	8,244	10,837
Index number	100	153	147	172	226

It will be seen that a rapid rise took place in August and September — 17 per cent. in August compared with the previous month, and no less than 31 per cent. in September.

#### BELGIUM

Two index numbers are published by the Belgian Government showing the movement in retail prices. The first is an unweighted average of 56 items of food, clothing, fuel and lighting, and sundries, and is shown in table II above. It will be seen that the fall, which

continued from November 1920, was arrested in July 1921, and the figures for August and September both show slight increases.

The second is a weighted index number of 22 items of food only, and is published for 3 groups of households, classified according to daily income in 1910, the first group comprising families whose income was less than 5 francs a day, a second group whose income was between 5 and 8 francs a day, and a third group whose income was 7 francs and over per day.

The following table shows the results for each of these groups.

TABLE V  
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.
1st group	417	407	419	410	427
2nd group	417	404	414	405	422
3rd group	421	405	416	409	427
Average	418	405	417	408	425

The sharp decline which, as will be seen from table I, began in November 1920 seems to have been arrested in June. The slight increase in this month, however, was followed by a reaction in July and a further rise in August.

#### CANADA

The cost of living index number published by the Labour Department seems to have reached a minimum on 1 July, as the figures for 1 August and 1 September both show moderate increases, as shown in the following table.

TABLE VI  
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	July 1920 (max.)	1 Apr. 1921	1 May 1921	1 June 1921	1 July 1921	1 Aug. 1921	1 Sept. 1921
Food	227	171	165	150	148	154	159
Heating and lighting	193	208	202	199	196	193	—
Rent	132	138	139	140	141	142	—
All items	190	165	161	153	152	155	158

The cost of living on 1 September had risen 6 points or 4 per cent. since July.

#### FINLAND

The latest figure published by the Finnish Government shows that the cost of living fell from January to April last and has

shown a rise between that date and July. The index number now stands at 1139 as compared with 100 in July 1914. The figures for the different groups are set out in the following table.

TABLE VII  
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	Apr.	May	June	July
Food	1107	1117	1146	1278
Clothing	1022	1017	1032	1038
Rent	419	419	535	552
Heating	1291	1268	1283	1278
Tobacco	1322	1311	1316	1314
Newspapers	818	817	817	817
All items	1008	1012	1050	1139

It will be seen that the increase is due almost entirely to the rise in food and in rent.

#### FRANCE

No further figures are available as to the cost of living in France, in continuation of those given in the last number of the *Review*. Figures, however, are available of the movements in prices of 13 articles (11 foodstuffs, paraffin, and spirit) in Paris and in France as a whole, which give a good indication of what the movement in the total cost of living will be when the figures are available. For Paris, as shown in table I, the rise from July to August was followed by a further rise from August to September, and the level of prices now stands at 229 per cent. above that of 1914, or about the same level as in April 1921.

The figures for the whole of France are only published quarterly. For the third quarter of 1921 the quarterly aggregate for 13 items (the same as used above for Paris) was 3516 as compared with 3642 for the second quarter, or, taking July 1914=100 as basis, a decrease from 363 to 350.

#### GERMANY

The official figures published by the German Government as to the cost of living, based on returns from 47 towns, are set out in tables I and II. Both show a considerable rise from July to September, the former from 1274 in July to 1399 in August and 1418 in September (July 1914=100) and the latter from 963 in July to 1045 in August and 1062 in September. The second figure, however, only covers food, lighting, heating, and rent and does not include clothing. Some estimate of the increased cost of clothing can be obtained from the following table, which shows the results of some enquiries into the increased cost of living by certain municipalities in Germany. The increase in the cost of clothing is shown separately from the increase in all items together.



TABLE VIII

Town		Jan.	Apr.	June	Aug.
Kiel (July 1914=100)	(a)	1604	1604	1604	1604
	(b)	1017	972	1027	1103
Hanover (July 1914=100)	(a)	1146	1076	1007	1097
	(b)	943	911	946	1027
Nuremberg (Jan. 1914=100)	(a)	1685	1620	1585	1629
	(b)	874	861	979	1121
Ludwigshafen	(a)	1739	1642	1638	1645
(June 1914=100)	(b)	1201	1131	1165	1253

(a) Clothing only.

(b) Food, heating, lighting, rent, and clothing.

## HUNGARY

The only general index numbers available for Hungary are those issued by the Magyar Confederation of Trade Unions based on the minimum weekly expenditure of a family of five. The following table shows the figures for 31 July.

TABLE IX

Groups	Cost in kroner			Percentage increase July 1914- July 1921
	July 1914	30 June 1921	31 July 1921	
Food	16.75	721.75	757.25	4420.9
Heating and lighting	2.76	109.04	140.60	4994.2
Household articles (soap etc.)	1.80	99.50	108.00	5900.0
Clothing	7.00	457.30	372.78	5225.4
Rent	10.40	13.40	20.60	98.1
Miscellaneous	3.97	77.41	285.41	7099.2
All items	42.68	1478.40	1684.64	3847.1

The general index number shows that the cost of living was 39.5 times as great in July 1921 as in July 1914. This, however, is a considerable decline since January 1921, when the figures reached a maximum, the index number standing at 4744 as compared with 100 in July 1914.

## INDIA

The Labour Office of the Bombay Presidency estimates that in August 1921 the average level of retail prices of all the commodities taken into account in the statistics of the cost of living index for the working classes of Bombay was 3 points, or 2 per cent., higher than in July. Fuel and lighting, clothing, and rent have all remained stationary during the period, and the rise is entirely due to the rise in foodstuffs.

The following table shows the movement in the different groups, of commodities during the last six months.

TABLE X  
(Base : July 1914 = 100)

Groups	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.
Food	154	154	162	169	174	177
Clothing	239	253	260	263	263	263
Light and heat	176	178	178	177	176	176
Rent	165	165	165	165	165	165
All items	160	160	167	173	177	180

## ITALY

Two series of index numbers exist for Italy; one is published by the different towns on a uniform basis in accordance with the conclusions of the Statistical Congress of Milan in July 1920. These take as base period the month of July 1920 and are shown for seven of the chief towns in the following table.

TABLE XI  
(Base : July 1920 = 100)

Town	Apr.	May.	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Rome	130	125	122	119	—	—
Turin	122	118	112	105	108	—
Milan	131	132	118	115	115	—
Florence	130	129	119	114	116	119
Genoa	120	118	113	118	119	—
Venice	118	117	108	108	111	—
Cremona	133	136	128	108	113	118

From these data it appears that a general tendency to increase is beginning, every town showing a slight increase since July.

The second series is based on pre-war budgets and pre-war prices, and these are shown for Rome and Milan in table I.

The following table compares the two index numbers for the city of Milan.

TABLE XII

Groups	Old series			New series		
	cost in July 1914	cost in Aug. 1921	index number	cost in July 1920	cost in Aug. 1922	index number
	lire	lire		lire	lire	
Food	25.58	132.62	518.45	105.02	125.43	119.43
Clothing	4.49	22.76	506.96	29.25	22.76	77.81
Heating and lighting	1.86	16.73	899.46	11.37	16.73	147.10
Rent	4.70	6.55	139.36	5.09	6.55	128.68
Miscellaneous	4.12	27.70	672.23	22.35	27.70	123.93
All items	41.20	206.36	500.87	173.08	199.17	115.07

A special article dealing with these two series of index numbers by the Director of the Statistical Office of Florence will be found in the November number of the *Review* (\*). We refer the reader to this article for fuller details.

### MEXICO

Recent numbers of the monthly publication of the Mexican Department of Labour contain data on the cost of living in the Federal district in February, March, April, and May 1921, as compared with 1910. According to earlier issues of the same publication the index number of the cost of living (average price for 1910=100) rose from 169.14 in January 1918 to 197.79 in December 1919; 223.66 in March 1920; and reached the peak, 230.62, in August 1920. Since that time a gradual decline is noted. In January of this year the index number was 215.38 and in February it was 195.77, the greatest decrease shown in any one month. Since then the decrease has been much less, the figure for March being 195.23, for April 193.72, for May 192.37, and for June 191.70.

### NETHERLANDS

The two index numbers of retail prices published by the Netherlands Government in the *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek* refer, one to Amsterdam, including 27 foodstuffs, the other to the average of the six principal co-operative societies of the country with 27 foodstuffs plus five household articles (paraffin, soda, starch, soap, and soft soap).

The following table gives the two index numbers as percentages of those for July 1914.

TABLE XIII  
(Base : July 1914=100)

Date	Amsterdam	Co-operative societies
1921 Jan.	193	203
Feb.	193	184
Mar.	193	178
Apr.	187	174
May	183	172
June	180	168
July	180	168
Aug.	—	168

The index number of the co-operative societies shows a greater fall during 1921 than the index number for Amsterdam, due to the greater reduction in the prices of household articles. Both index numbers show that the position during the latest months for which figures are available has been practically stationary.

(2) Ugo GIUSTI: *Methods of Recording Retail Prices and Measuring the Cost of Living in Italy*, in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 2, pp. 45-62.

## NEW ZEALAND

The latest figures for September 1921, received by cable, show that the cost of living is still falling in New Zealand. The following table shows the movement of prices of foodstuffs.

TABLE XIV  
(Base : 1909-13=100)

Items	July 1914	Dec. 1920	June 1921	July 1921	Aug. 1921	Sept. 1921
Groceries	1033	2080	1997	1977	1957	1955
Dairy produce	1057	1942	1943	1873	1845	1813
Meat	1127	1690	1374	1386	1391	1364
All food	1070	1915	1772	1752	1739	1720

Food prices are now a little over 60 per cent. higher than in July 1914, as compared with 79 per cent. in December 1920. As will be seen from the above figures, the fall is largely due to the drop in meat prices.

The latest figures as to the cost of living relate to the June quarter of 1921, when it was estimated that the increased cost, as compared with the third quarter of 1914, for food, rent, lighting, and heating was 56.4 per cent., as compared with nearly 60 per cent. in the first quarter.

## NORWAY

The quarterly cost of living index number shows a slight fall for the September quarter, as indicated by the following table.

TABLE XV  
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	June	Sept.
Food	290	290
Fuel	386	376
Lighting	242	—
Clothing	292	280
Rent	161	166
Miscellaneous	344	315
All items	302	296

The food index number, after a slight upward movement during the quarter, remained at the same level at the end as at the beginning. Fuel shows a fall, while rents continue to increase slowly.

## SOUTH AFRICA

The movement of food prices has shown an almost uninterrupted decline since July 1920. In this month the figure stood at 97 per

cent., in July 1921 it was no more than 39 per cent. above pre-war level.

#### SWEDEN

Complete figures as to the cost of living in Sweden since those for 1 July given in the last number of the *Review* are not yet available. Preliminary figures, however, state that on 1 October there was a fall of five points, from 236 to 231, as compared with 1 July 1921, the reduction being due to a considerable fall in the cost of lighting and heating.

#### SWITZERLAND

The index numbers published by the Federation of Swiss Co-operative Societies covering the 25 large towns of the country show that the decline, which began in September 1920 and was arrested in July 1921, is now resumed. Food prices have fallen about 4 per cent. from July to September, and the index number for 1 September is 204 for food, or 206 if fuel and lighting are included, compared with 100 on 1 June 1914.

#### UNITED KINGDOM

The cost of living in the United Kingdom, according to the official figures published by the Ministry of Labour, seems to be now definitely declining, after a slight interruption in July and August. The following table shows the movement during the last six months.

TABLE XVI  
(Base: July 1914 = 100)

Groups	Beginning of					
	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
Food	232	218	220	226	225	210
Clothing <sup>(1)</sup>	310	300	290	280	270	265
Heat and light <sup>(1)</sup>	250	255	260	250	243	238
Rent <sup>(1)</sup>	144	145	145	152	153	153
Miscellaneous <sup>(1)</sup>	210	210	210	210	210	210
All items <sup>(1)</sup>	228	218	219	222	220	210

(1) Approximate figures.

With the exception of rents, which were and are still to a certain extent legally restricted, the fall is fairly general in all items.

The index number has recently been severely criticised by a Labour Joint Committee, which after an elaborate and detailed investigation stated that the Government considerably underestimated the real rise in the cost of living up to September 1920. An official reply, however, has now been issued in the September number of the *Labour Gazette*, which points out that certain prices in July 1914 have been mis-stated and that certain expenditures have been

omitted in July 1914 which were included in September 1920. Allowing for these and other discrepancies, the Government shows that, using the Committee's own investigation, the rise was approximately the same as that indicated by the Ministry of Labour.

#### UNITED STATES

The fall in retail prices, which continued without interruption in the United States from July 1920 to July 1921, received a slight check in August, as pointed out in the last number of the *Review*; the figure for September, however, shows a slight decline of 2 points, and food prices now stand at 50 per cent. above the level of July 1914.

Index numbers of the cost of living based on 32 towns are now published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at more frequent intervals than formerly (May and September instead of June and December). The index number just issued for September again shows a decline, but of smaller extent than formerly. This is due chiefly to the fact that the food index is higher than that of May (the former period). On the other hand, the decline continues quickly in the case of clothing and furniture and remains practically unchanged for heating and lighting.

TABLE XVII

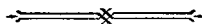
(Base : 1913=100)

Group	1920		1921	
	June	Dec.	May	Sept.
Food	219	178	145	153
Clothing	288	259	223	192
Heating and lighting	172	195	182	181
Housing	135	151	159	160
Furniture	293	285	248	225
Miscellaneous	201	208	209	208
All items	217	200	180	177

#### SOURCES

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AUSTRIA	<i>Mitteilungen der Statistischen Zentralkommission</i> , 1921.
BELGIUM	<i>Revue du Travail</i> , Aug. 1921.
CANADA	<i>Labour Gazette</i> of Canada, Sept. 1921.
FINLAND	<i>Social Tidskrift</i> , No. 8, 1921.
FRANCE	Communication from the <i>Statistique générale de France</i> .
GERMANY	<i>Wirtschaft und Statistik</i> , Sept. 1921. Communication from the <i>Statistisches Reichsamt</i> .
INDIA	Communication from the Bombay Labour Office.
ITALY	<i>Città di Milano (Bollettino municipale mensile di cronaca amministrativa e statistica)</i> , Aug. 1921.

	<i>Bollettino mensile dell' Ufficio municipale del Lavoro di Roma, 1920-1921.</i>
	Communication from the Statistical Office of Florence.
MEXICO	<i>Gaceta Mensual del Departamento del Trabajo de la Secretaria de Industria, Comercio y Trabajo, Mexico, March, April, May, 1921.</i>
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NORWAY	<i>Meddelelser fra det statistiske centralbyra 1920-1921.</i>
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	<i>Arbeider Politiken</i> 23 Sept. 1921.
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SOUTH AFRICA	<i>Labour Gazette</i> of the British Ministry of Labour, 1920-1921.
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SWITZERLAND	<i>Schweizer Konsumverein, Sept. 1921.</i>
UNITED KINGDOM	<i>Labour Gazette, Oct. 1921.</i>
	Telegraphic communication from the Ministry of Labour.
UNITED STATES	Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, <i>Monthly Labor Review, Sept. 1921.</i>
	Telegraphic communication from the Bureau of Labor Statistics.







# EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

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## New Statistics on the Industrial Distribution of Workers in the United Kingdom

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IT is often the case that the most valuable statistics are those obtained incidentally through the operation of some Act of Parliament or administrative measure, the purpose of which is quite other than that of furnishing statistics. For example, statistics as to the distribution of income among the population are best obtained as a by-product of the administration of income tax laws, statistics as to imports and exports from the administration of customs duties, statistics of consumption from the excise duties. In the United Kingdom it has been necessary to wait for some administrative measure before statistics as to the number of wage earners and salary earners could be obtained. Previous attempts to obtain these statistics at the decennial censuses of population have been unsatisfactory, and no statistics of any value on the subject have hitherto been available from this source. It was not till the passing of the British Unemployment Insurance Act in 1920 that reliable statistics of numbers employed in each industry and occupation emerged as a result of the administration of this Act.

Under this measure, every person covered by the Act is required to obtain an unemployment book, which is stamped each week by the employer. Each book issued shows the occupation and industry of the worker, and it is therefore only a matter of tabulation to obtain the number of books issued in each occupation or in each industry.

Statistics as to the numbers in the different occupations are not yet available, but the numbers in the different industries in the United Kingdom have now been published in the *British Labour Gazette* for August 1921 (<sup>1</sup>). The statistics cover practically every worker in the manufacturing industries, in construction, and in mining and quarrying, the majority of the workers in the transport trades, and a large number of commercial employees. Altogether about twelve million workers are included.

The largest groups of workers, excluding miscellaneous trades and services, are the mining industry with 10.4 per cent. of the total, the engineering industries with the same percentage, building and works of construction with 8.7 per cent., the metal trades with 6.8 per cent., the transport trades (certain employees not included) with 6.6 per cent., dress and clothing with 5.5 per cent., and the food and drink trades with 4 per cent. These seven industries cover over 50 per cent. of the workers insured.

The details for each industrial group are shown in the following table.

DISTRIBUTION OF INSURED WORKERS BY  
INDUSTRY AND SEX IN THE UNITED KINGDOM IN MAY 1921 <sup>(1)</sup>

	Estimated number of workers		
	males	females	total
Building and Works of Construction	1,020,430	9,030	1,029,460
Shipbuilding	340,160	6,280	346,440
Engineering and Ironfounding	1,163,530	101,460	1,264,990
Construction and Repair of Vehicles	294,960	26,440	321,400
Sawmilling and Machined Wood-work	210,610	44,290	254,900
Ammunition, Explosives, Chemicals, etc.	214,500	96,050	310,550
Metal Trades	628,310	203,450	831,760
Rubber and Leather Trades	103,820	65,300	169,120
Bricks, Tiles, etc.	73,100	12,100	85,200
Pottery, Earthenware, etc.	30,040	31,440	61,480
Glass Trades (excluding Optical, Scientific, etc.)	32,580	7,770	40,350
Hotel, College, Club, etc. Service	99,150	198,100	297,250
Laundry Service	16,810	85,730	102,540
Commercial, Clerical, Insurance, and Banking	175,660	131,480	307,140
Transport Services	769,500	35,090	804,590
Mining Industry	1,235,780	11,220	1,247,000
Printing and Paper Trades	205,760	139,630	345,390
Textile Trades	485,770	782,130	1,267,900
Dress and Clothing	230,530	436,400	666,930
Food, Drink, and Tobacco	289,960	195,840	485,800
Miscellaneous Trades and Services	1,208,360	742,240	1,950,600
Total	8,829,320	3,361,470	12,190,790

(1) Based on the number of unemployment books issued under the Unemployment Insurance Act 1920.

In principle, the Act covers "all persons over sixteen employed under a contract of service or apprenticeship". This definition is the same as that adopted for the National Health Insurance Act. The employments included are thus for the most part identical with those falling within the Health Insurance Scheme. There are, however, two important exceptions, agriculture and domestic service; the reasons for including these two occupations in the health insurance scheme fail to apply when it is a question of unemployment insurance. In agriculture special conditions exist, such as the fact that wages are partly paid in kind and that the rate of unemployment is low; in domestic service there is a general excess of demand over supply and difficulty in enforcing the Act, owing, for instance, to the fact that inspectors may not enter private houses. Nevertheless, domestic servants who are employed for purposes of profit, i.e. in hotels, restaurants, etc., are included like other employees, for their employment depends partly on the state of trade, often seasonal in character. The two exceptions of agriculture and domestic service probably cover two and a half to three million persons. There are other less important exceptions, which

apply equally to health and unemployment insurance, such as persons serving in the army or navy, permanent government servants, certain classes with statutory pension rights, such as teachers, police, railway officials, and persons employed otherwise than by way of manual labour and earning more than £250 a year.

It will be seen that over one-fourth of the total number covered are female workers. In five industries the number of females exceed the number of males—Pottery and Earthenware; Hotel and Club Service; Laundry Service; Textile Trades; Dress and Clothing. The figures for Transport Service and for Commercial, Clerical, Insurance, and Banking are much below the real figures, owing to the operation of the last two of the miscellaneous exceptions mentioned above, namely, persons with statutory pension rights and non-manual workers earning over £250 a year.

Finally, it should be noted that the figures are based on an industrial classification only. A metal worker in a railway shop is classified as a transport worker, a plater in a boiler shop is classified under shipbuilding, a plater in an engineering shop under engineering, and a clerk in a textile factory is, if insured, classified under textiles.

No information is yet available as to the number of employers and of persons working on their own account, but it is hoped that the results of the recent census of population taken in June 1921 will supply the necessary statistics to enable a complete conspectus of the industrial population in 1921 to be made.

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## Statistics of the Unemployed

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The table giving statistics of unemployment among members of trade unions in different countries or among workers insured against unemployment, which was given in the *Review* for November (1), has been continued in the present issue, and brought up to date.

The table shows for each of ten countries the number of workers covered by the returns and the percentage of that number unemployed at the end of the month. In addition, for certain countries an index number of unemployment is given, showing the percentage which the number of days of unemployment in a week or a month bears to the number of days which could have been worked during the same period, i.e. to the number of workers included in the returns multiplied by the number of working days in the period under consideration. For Germany and the Netherlands these indices are calculated and published by the authorities. For Belgium, Norway, and Sweden they have been calculated on the basis of the official returns. It should be remarked that the Netherlands index only relates to workers actually able to work; that is to say, from the total number of workers insured against unemployment or of members

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(1) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 2, Nov. 1921, p. 105.

# STATISTICS OF NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED

	Australia		Belgium		Canada		Denmark		Germany			Massachusetts		Netherlands				Norway			Sweden			United Kingdom						
	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	all unions reporting	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	all unions reporting	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	all unions reporting	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	trade unions	percentage unemployed	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed		
Av. for 1913	246	6.5	77	2.7	*	*	*	117	7.5	1,973	2.9	2.1	175	6.3	65	5.1	5.0	*	*	29	1.6	*	55	4.4	8.5	927	2.1	2,041	3.6	
1914	269	8.3	77	3.9	*	*	*	128	9.9	1,635	7.2	6.1	172	10.4	76	16.2	13.8	*	*	30	2.4	2.5	61	6.7	9.8	970	3.3	2,326	4.2	
1915	276	9.3	*	*	*	*	56	8.0	134	7.7	1,019	3.2	2.6	170	7.7	106	14.6	12.0	94	11.0	30	2.1	2.2	62	7.8	9.0	922	1.1	2,078	1.2
1916	290	5.8	*	*	*	*	105	1.9	145	4.9	818	2.2	1.7	176	3.0	132	5.8	5.1	118	5.4	35	0.8	0.9	68	4.2	6.8	943	0.4	2,029	1.6
1917	287	7.1	*	*	*	*	128	1.9	160	9.2	939	1.0	0.7	189	4.2	148	9.6	6.5	152	7.0	35	0.9	0.9	87	3.9	6.1	966	0.6	3,622	0.6
1918	300	5.8	*	*	*	*	164	1.4	218	17.4	1,245	1.2	0.8	222	2.9	190	10.0	7.5	191	6.5	36	1.4	1.5	105	4.4	7.2	1,108	0.8	3,622	1.2
1919	310	6.6	*	*	*	*	177	3.6	296	10.7	3,686	3.7	2.3	259	5.3	300	8.9	7.7	238	6.1	36	1.6	1.7	121	5.5	7.0	1,338	2.4	3,721	*
1920	342	6.5	*	*	*	*	192	4.6	306	5.8	5,260	3.8	2.3	270	16.1	400	7.2	5.8	245	5.5	46	2.3	2.7	129	5.4	6.5	1,563	2.4	5,321	3.8
End of July	*	*	*	*	*	*	186	2.3	310	2.1	5,074	6.0	*	*	*	401	4.9	4.2	241	5.4	46	1.1	1.3	125	2.8	3.7	1,498	1.4	4,197	2.7
Aug.	*	*	*	*	*	*	187	2.4	304	2.4	5,555	5.9	*	*	*	408	5.0	4.2	235	5.1	46	1.5	1.8	134	3.0	4.5	1,669	1.6	4,197	2.9
Sept.	345	6.2	118	5.8	2.0	189	3.3	308	2.7	5,442	4.5	3.4	255	16.4	407	4.1	3.3	232	4.0	46	1.8	2.0	151	2.9	3.8	1,636	2.2	4,197	3.8	
Oct.	*	*	263	6.4	2.6	215	6.1	315	3.6	5,325	4.2	*	*	*	404	4.2	3.2	231	4.1	45	2.2	2.6	142	4.3	5.6	1,401	5.3	4,197	4.1	
Nov.	*	*	498	7.2	4.9	216	10.2	317	6.1	5,629	3.9	*	*	*	402	7.2	5.2	229	2.3	46	3.5	3.3	147	7.0	6.7	1,612	3.7	11,200	3.7	
Dec.	351	7.8	546	17.4	7.2	208	13.1	311	15.1	5,664	4.1	2.5	297	29.2	399	13.4	10.2	225	11.5	45	6.8	5.7	146	15.8	11.2	1,535	6.1	11,900	5.8	
1921																														
Jan.	*	*	609	19.3	10.9	198	13.1	307	19.7	5,751	4.5	*	*	*	391	16.5	13.8	223	12.8	50	11.3	12.0	155	20.2	17.5	1,587	6.9	12,000	8.2	
Feb.	*	*	621	22.7	11.5	198	16.1	304	23.2	5,650	4.7	*	*	*	396	16.4	13.5	220	12.3	52	14.5	14.4	147	20.8	20.2	1,534	8.5	12,000	9.6	
Mar.	344	11.4	668	31.5	10.9	207	16.5	294	23.6	5,779	3.7	2.7	237	22.1	394	13.9	11.5	219	11.4	51	16.2	15.8	145	24.6	20.2	1,528	10.0	12,000	11.3	
Apr.	*	*	617	31.2	13.7	204	16.3	294	21.7	5,510	3.9	*	*	*	392	11.9	9.6	219	9.5	53	16.7	17.0	145	24.2	24.3	1,339	17.6	12,000	15.0	
May	*	*	637	32.3	15.8	201	15.5	299	18.6	5,784	3.7	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	79	17.9	13.4	144	25.3	25.0	1,343	22.2	12,000	17.3	
June	—	—	669	22.9	12.6	182	13.2	299	16.8	5,841	3.0	2.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	89	24.5	19.9	145	27.9	26.8	1,279	23.7	12,200	14.8	
July	*	*	688	21.4	11.7	183	9.1	289	16.7	5,753	2.6	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	218	8.4	—	151	27.8	29.1	1,385	16.7	12,200	14.8	
Aug.	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	17.7	5,680	2.2	*	*	*	—	—	—	—	—	217	8.5	—	—	153	26.8	29.1	1,420	16.3	12,200	13.2

The sign \* signifies that figures are not available. The sign — signifies that figures have not yet been received.

of trade unions reporting on unemployment a deduction is made of persons unable to work on account of military service, strikes, lock-outs, sickness or other disability, accidents, or imprisonment. In the other countries this deduction is not made and it follows that their index of unemployment is less exact than the Netherlands index, and tends—other things being equal—to be lower than the latter.

It cannot be too strongly emphasised that these figures do not correctly represent the total amount of unemployment in the different countries. Authoritative statistical data for estimating with any degree of precision the number of unemployed in any country do not, in general, exist. Even in the United Kingdom, where the statistics derived from compulsory unemployment insurance returns cover about 12,000,000 workers, there is not a complete return of the number of persons totally unemployed at any given time. As regards under-employment or short time—the system under which workers work for a reduced number of days per week or hours per day—the data are even less reliable. In fact, for many countries no statistics exist.

As shown in the January number of the *Review* (\*), any international comparison of unemployment statistics is prevented by differences in the scope of the returns, in the definition of unemployment, and in the reliability of the figures. The table, however, gives some indication of the fluctuations of unemployment in each country and allows of an international comparison of the extent of these fluctuations.

The countries included in the table are those which publish statistics of persons unemployed in relation to the number of persons in employment. In other countries the official statistics, usually derived from labour exchange returns, only give the numbers unemployed. In order to give some indication of the position in certain of the more important countries omitted from the table, recent statistics derived from labour exchange returns or unemployment relief funds are appended below, together with unemployment relief returns for Germany.

#### FRANCE

According to the *Journal Officiel* the total number of unemployed persons remaining on the live register at employment exchanges was as follows :

End of June	21,070
" " July	19,995
" " August	20,253
September 24	20,436

The following returns of out-of-work benefit are also published by the *Journal Officiel*.

Date	Number of employment funds		Number of persons in receipt of benefit
	Municipal	Departmental	
8 July	11	120	50,575
5 Aug.	11	125	37,226
2 Sept.	9	128	27,364
30 Sept.	11	118	20,830

It is pointed out that benefit is not paid to workers on short time, and that even as regards total unemployment the figures cannot be considered complete owing to the fact that many districts are without unemployment funds. Such as they are, the returns indicate that the unemployment crisis which began in May 1920 reached its climax in February-March 1921, since when its effects have become steadily less marked.

#### GERMANY

The number of persons entitled to unemployment relief is published regularly in the *Arbeitsmarkt-Anzeiger*. The following figures show the position at the beginning of each month since May 1921, and the latest available returns.

Date		Number entitled to relief
1 May	1921	394,262
1 June	"	357,352
1 July	"	314,475
1 Aug.	"	268,342
1 Sept.	"	233,006
1 Oct.	"	189,407

#### ITALY

The Ministry of Labour publishes in the *Bollettino del Lavoro* statistics of the number of persons unemployed and on short time in the country, and of the number of persons in receipt of relief. The figures for August and September, given below, have been specially communicated.

		Number totally unemployed	Number on short time
1 May	1921	250,145	69,270
1 July	"	388,744	238,940
1 Aug.	"	435,194	226,515
1 Sept.	"	463,108	218,327

#### SWITZERLAND

Statistics compiled from returns supplied by employment exchanges have been published by the Federal Labour Bureau in the *Schweizerische Arbeitsmarkt* since February 1920. According to the most recent returns the number of applicants on the live register at the end of the month and the number of persons partially employed were as follows.

		Number totally unemployed	Number on short time
End of June	1921	54,039	76,116
" "	July	55,605	79,888
" "	Aug.	63,182	74,509
" "	Sept.	66,646	69,421

## NOTES TO TABLE

**Australia :** *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics.*

The figures show the number of persons who were out of work for three days or more during a specified week in each quarter. They include unemployment due to sickness and other disabilities, for which separate statistics are not published. Unemployment due to strikes and lock-outs is excluded, as in other countries. The returns include unions which do not pay unemployment benefit. Unions of workers in permanent employment, such as railwaymen, or of casual workers, such as dockers, are excluded.

**Belgium :** *Revue du Travail.*

The figures are obtained from the returns of the unemployment funds, which are the official controlling bodies of unemployment insurance offices. They refer to the last working day of the month, and in certain cases include workers on short time. The very high percentage of unemployment is possibly due to the inclusion of workers unemployed during the week as distinct from those unemployed on a fixed day of the week. If so, this would explain the great difference between the index of unemployment and the percentage of unemployed.

**Canada :** *The Labour Gazette of Canada.*

The figures refer to the last working day of the month. They include unions which do not pay unemployment benefit.

**Denmark :** *Statistiske Efterretninger.*

The figures are derived from trade union reports, combined with returns of the Central Employment Bureau. They are compiled every Friday, those for the last Friday of the month being given in the table. Only unions paying unemployment benefit are included.

**Germany :** *Reichsarbeitsblatt.*

The percentages of unemployed refer to the last working day of the last week of each month. Only unions paying unemployment benefit are included. The figures do not cover workers on short time, of whom there are a relatively large number in Germany as a result of the legislation in force.

**Massachusetts :** *Massachusetts Industrial Review.*

The figures refer to the last day of each quarter, and cover unemployment due to "lack of work or material", and to "unfavourable weather". They include unions which do not pay unemployment benefit. Statistics are also published showing the numbers unemployed owing to sickness, trade disputes, etc.

**Netherlands :** *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek.*

The figures are weekly averages over a period of four or five weeks. Unions which pay no unemployment benefit are included. The figure for numbers covered is exclusive of workers totally unemployed during the week owing to strikes, lock-outs, sickness or other disability, military service, etc.

*De Vakbeweging.*

The returns are obtained by the *Nederlandsch Verbond van Vakverenigingen* from its affiliated unions. The figures refer to the first day of the month, and are shown in the table against the preceding month. The Federation also publishes statistics of short time.

**Norway:** *Meddelelser fra det Statistiske Centralbyra.*

The figures refer to the last day of the month, and include only unions which pay unemployment benefit.

**Sweden:** *Sociala Meddelanden.*

The figures refer to the last day of the month, and include unions which do not pay unemployment benefit. The index number of unemployment is based on the returns of those unions only which report the number of working days lost. The percentage of workers unemployed is considerably heavier in these unions than in the total of all unions reporting.

**United Kingdom:** *The Labour Gazette* of Great Britain.

The trade union figures refer to the last working day of the month and only relate to unions which pay unemployment benefit. Trade unions of workers in regular employment, such as railwaymen, are not included. The figures for October 1920 and April, May, and June 1921 are exclusive of coal miners, owing to the stoppage in the industry at these dates.

The figures for insured workers give the number of persons wholly unemployed whose unemployment books were lodged at employment exchanges on the last Friday of the month.

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# MIGRATION

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## The International Emigration Commission

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THE fact that two million people emigrate every year emphasises the significance of the programme discussed by the International Emigration Commission of the International Labour Organisation, which met in Geneva from 2 to 11 August of this year. This was the first occasion on which an official international commission had dealt with the question of an international policy, but the conclusions of the Commission on the broad principles were reached with almost complete unanimity.

Under its general instructions to give due regard to the sovereign rights of every state, the Commission sketched a general programme <sup>(1)</sup>, which covered such points as the supervision of emigration agents, dissemination of information to emigrants and the suppression of misleading information; the organisation of collective recruiting of workers in one country for employment in another, so as to provide the worker with some guarantees for the conditions of his employment abroad; the deduction from wages of advances made before embarkation; guarantees of minimum conditions of health, safety, food, and comfort on ships and trains; insurance of emigrants against death or disablement en route; measures for finding them employment on arrival at their destination; equality of treatment between national and foreign workers; education of emigrants and their children; the desirability of protecting emigrants from the disastrous consequences of the sudden application of new laws affecting migration; special protection for women and children; equality of economic treatment, without distinction of origin, for all immigrants legally admitted into a country. Finally, the Commission requested the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to nominate a commission of a more or less permanent character in order to continue the study of the problem together with the experts from the Office itself.

Various groups interested in the problem of emigration had been invited to assist in the work of the Commission, and the eighteen seats had been so distributed by the Governing Body that representatives of governments, employers, and workers should each form one-third of the Commission, the following countries being represented :

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(1) The text of the resolutions passed by the Commission is given in an appendix to this article.

*Government Representatives*

Brazil (Mr. de Oliveira)	France (Prof. Oualid)
Canada (Col. Obed Smith)	India (Sir Ernest Low)
China (Mr. Li Tehuin)	Japan (Mr. Nagai)

*Employers' Representatives*

Argentina (no appointment)	South Africa (Mr. Gemmill)
Czecho-Slovakia (Dr. Vaclav Verunac)	Spain (Count de Montornes)
Greece (Mr. Clisthenes Philaretos)	Switzerland (Dr. J. Cagianut)

*Workers' Representatives*

Australia (no appointment)	Poland (Mr. Bernatowicz: absent)
Germany (Mr. A. Knoll)	Sweden (Mr. Karl Viktor)
Italy (Mr. Lino Burlini)	United States (no appointment)

Thus nine European and nine overseas countries were represented. Seven of them were countries of emigration, seven of immigration, and four were countries where the interests of both groups were approximately equal. The representation of countries of transoceanic and continental emigration was also roughly equal. Only three countries failed to respond to the invitation to send delegates — the Argentine, Australia, and the United States.

In the case of the United States, President Wilson appointed a representative, who subsequently resigned, and no new appointment was made by the incoming Administration. The failure of the United States to send a delegate was greatly regretted, as it deprived the Commission of much valuable information and experience in the field of immigration. Nevertheless, the keen interest of the people of the United States in immigration problems was shown by the fact that several representatives of American associations attended the meeting. These representatives asked and obtained permission to be present at the private sessions of the Commission, which was very anxious that the American public should be acquainted with its work.

The Argentine Government also declared its intention of sending an employers' representative as requested, and called upon the employers' associations of the country to appoint one. These associations, however, were unable to come to an agreement on the appointment of a delegate, and the Government did not feel itself able to make a selection if the employers themselves were unable to do so.

Australia had been asked to appoint a workers' representative, but the differences between the immigration policy of the Government and that of the workers' associations made it very difficult to select a delegate who was at the same time

acceptable to the Government and representative of the workers' organisations. Consequently, no Australian delegate was chosen.

The remaining fifteen countries all sent representatives who took an active part in the discussions and assisted in drawing up a programme of action.

The Chairman of the Commission was Viscount Ullswater (Rt. Hon. J. W. Lowther), former Speaker of the House of Commons; the Vice-Chairman was Mr. Giuseppe de Michelis, the Commissioner-General of Emigration of Italy.

#### EXTENT OF PRESENT-DAY MIGRATION

The first conclusion, to which the Emigration Commission came at the very outset of its work, was the necessity of recasting and improving statistics of migration movements. It has always been difficult to obtain precise information on the extent of migratory movements, and the difficulties are now even greater than they were a few years ago. The terms "emigrant" and "immigrant" are often unsatisfactorily defined in the statistics of the various governments; the system on which statistical tables are drawn up is defective; and the information is not collected in all countries, or according to a uniform method. In some countries no distinction is drawn between travellers and emigrants. In others, continental emigrants, returned emigrants, or those proceeding towards the colonies or certain other countries are left out of account. All methods of classification are used indiscriminately. Thus the total of the national figures which would have to be added to give the total number of emigrants for the whole world can make no claim to statistical accuracy.

Before the war, when the publication of statistics was more general than at the present time, and when there were fewer economic, social, and political obstacles in the way of migration, the number of those involved, strictly speaking, in migratory movements during any year was generally estimated at something over five million. The figures are only approximate, but nevertheless convey a fairly clear idea of the number of emigrants who proceeded to and from their homes annually. Trans-oceanic emigrants numbered approximately 1,750,000; continental emigrants 1,700,000; repatriated continental emigrants 1,250,000; and repatriated trans-oceanic emigrants 750,000; making a total of 5,250,000. It is probable that every year a considerable number of former emigrants and repatriated emigrants again leave their homes, and become or less regular migrants. The number of those who leave their native country for the first time may, nevertheless, be estimated as at least two million annually, or sixty million in a generation.

Since the war the number of emigrants, at any rate in the strict sense of the word, has decreased, as compared with pre-war figures. There are, however, especially in Eastern and Central Europe, millions of political, military, social, and national refugees, who have come from foreign countries, often at a great distance. In many respects the position of these refugees is worse than that of immigrants, because, unlike the latter, they feel themselves to be transients and do not settle in the country.

At the present time emigration is again tending to increase; it has not yet reached the highest pre-war level, although it is rapidly approaching it. Political and social considerations, the state of the exchanges, the lack of tonnage, restrictive legislation, and the economic crisis in general place obstacles in the way of the emigration of millions who wish to leave their native country. The danger of mass emigration, which was a cause of grave apprehension to the American public and the underlying reason for the new immigration laws in that country, has become temporarily less owing to these causes.

The majority of emigrants in the period immediately preceding the war came from Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Poland, and to a less extent from Spain and the Balkan Peninsula. This was known as the "new emigration", as distinguished from the "old emigration" from Germany, Scandinavia, Belgium, the Netherlands, and Switzerland, which had greatly decreased in the last few years. There was still a considerable amount of emigration from Great Britain, generally to the British Dominions. The Irish, on the other hand, still preferred the United States. Hindus, Chinese, and Japanese have practically ceased to come either to the United States and or the British Dominions on account of the restrictive laws and regulations issued by these countries. The great majority of trans-oceanic European emigrants went to the United States, the rest to Brazil, Argentine, Canada, and, to some extent in the last few years, to Australia. Continental emigration, that is from eastern and southern Europe, generally turned in the direction of France, Germany, Switzerland, and Great Britain.

Before 1914 a large proportion of the emigrants were agricultural workers and small proprietors who left their country in search of more satisfactory economic conditions. On arrival in the country of immigration they gravitated towards the towns, and most of them immediately became unskilled industrial workers. There were thus great masses of manual labourers in the towns who could not readily be assimilated. The majority of the emigrants were men in the most active period of life and without family ties. They came to stay for a few years only and had no intention of settling permanently in the country. They lived among their own fellow-countrymen and did not adopt the customs of the

country. Many were content with a relatively low standard of living in order to save as much money as possible, and very often sent their savings home in advance.

#### POLICIES OF THE GOVERNMENTS

The war and its consequences caused opinion to change fundamentally on the subject of emigration, as on so many subjects. This change of opinion had been developing for some time, but the sudden interruption of relations gave it an extra impetus. The question has come to be considered from the point of view of the nation and is no longer left to the initiative of the individual.

The system in force during the war to a large extent limited the freedom of individuals to come and go as they pleased. They became accustomed to ask the permission of the government on all kinds of matters, while the governments were anxious to impose the policy which they considered best fitted to serve national interests. The emigrant is now considered as part and parcel of the human capital of the nation, and governments desire to use this capital in the best interests of the nation, and for purposes which have no very direct connection with the individual interests of the emigrant himself.

In the defeated states, for example, the internal economic position has become desperate owing to the war, and heavy financial burdens have to be borne. Many of the best elements of the population, therefore, have a natural tendency to start life again in countries where economic conditions are better and where there is more scope for individual ability. The Governments make every effort to prevent the emigration of these workers. The policy of Germany, Austria, and Hungary is extremely interesting. In these countries emigration might have attained immense proportions had it not been impeded by the Government, and by political and economic obstacles of all kinds. These countries, which have a large population and no colonies or thinly populated districts, make every effort to foster national feeling among their population, and to prevent the emigration of the energetic and industrious.

Countries which owe their independence to the war, especially Czecho-Slovakia and Poland, are no less anxious to foster patriotic feeling among their emigrants. It was among the patriots in foreign countries, in the Slav associations in America, that the idea of national independence was mainly developed during the war. The governments of these countries admit the justification for emigration in the days before national independence was secured. They now desire their nationals to return and help to build up the liberated state. Many of them have answered the summons and returned home, bringing with them their acquired wealth and culture. They now form a valuable element in the active

population. Obstacles have been placed in the way of further emigration. Most of the emigrants from these states at the present time are Jews and persons of foreign birth. Effective protection is, however, provided for those persons who emigrate in spite of this, and closer relations are maintained with them than was the case before the war.

Italy is a conspicuous example of a country which has long been active in protecting and organising emigration. The economic policy of the country is based on the exportation of labour rather than of goods, and a critical situation is at once produced if emigration is prevented or impeded. Italy regards the emigrant as an essential factor in its economic life, a valuable form of capital which should be put to the best use. A well-conceived policy for the constant protection of Italian immigrants into foreign countries has, therefore, been followed. The Government concludes treaties and Conventions with other governments, and has set up a network of organisations for the protection, instruction, and welfare of its emigrants. In return, however, it asks that the Italian emigrant should consider himself as a representative of his country and should follow the instructions given him both in his own and in the general interest. Italy, in short, is regarded as a model in matters of emigration policy by the peoples of all the countries of emigration and as the great reservoir of labour power from which the countries of immigration derive their supplies.

While in the case of Italy the defence and organisation of emigration is the main problem, France, on the other hand, has gradually become a country of immigration. Immigration is necessary in order to obtain an adequate supply of labour for her industry. This is particularly urgent at the present time, as the number of young workers, which was already small owing to the low birth-rate of the country, has been still further reduced by the war. The principal aim of French immigration policy is therefore to obtain a supply of skilled workers who are satisfied with the conditions under which they live and who do not enter into unfair competition with the native population. Such a policy is essential for the development of the resources of the nation. In pursuance of this policy the Offices for Foreign and Agricultural Labour<sup>(2)</sup> have been set up and labour and immigration treaties concluded with Italy, Poland, and Czecho-Slovakia, while similar treaties with other countries are in preparation. By this means France is able to select the most suitable foreign workers, while, on the other hand, the immigrants are assured of satisfactory labour conditions. The intention of France is to replace the unorganised policy of the past, which aroused so much ill feeling and so many disputes, by a new

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(2) *Offices de la main-d'œuvre étrangère et agricole.*

well thought out and coherent policy which substitutes organisation and consideration of the national interests for chance and the caprice of individual initiative. The aims of the migration policy of France and Italy are mutually complementary; both are intelligently carried out and they coincide and complete one another in an admirable way.

There are certain countries, such as Belgium and the Netherlands, in which there is little trans-oceanic emigration of the native population, but which have important ports of embarkation, where hundreds of thousands of emigrants from countries which have no ports of their own assemble for a few days in every year to await the departure of their vessels. The aim of these countries is to obtain passengers for their vessels. It is being recognised that honesty is the best commercial policy and that generous treatment often produces the best results, even from the point of view of profit, especially in matters where human personality is concerned.

In the United States there has been a marked change in the policy adopted towards migration. The traditional policy has been to keep the door open and to offer "a haven of refuge" to the oppressed of all lands. This policy of relatively unrestricted immigration was found to be advantageous. In recent years, however, the immigration from north-western Europe of agricultural workers, who could easily adapt themselves to the political and economic conditions of America, began to be replaced in increasingly large numbers by the immigration of Italians, Spaniards, Greeks, and Slavs from Austria-Hungary. Still more recently, other immigrants began to arrive, who were even more difficult to assimilate. These later immigrants did not generally bring their families with them or engage in agriculture, which would have facilitated assimilation. Most of them collected in the towns and industrial districts, where they formed compact bodies of foreigners with customs of their own. It was perhaps more difficult to absorb these immigrants into the life of the country, because considerable numbers of them belonged to one or other of the various national associations.

The investigations of the Immigration Commission of 1907-1910 laid emphasis upon the gravity of the immigration problem and the need of further measures to encourage the assimilation of the foreign-born population. Events during and after the war strengthened this opinion. For while the assimilation of existing groups would probably have been made easier during the war by the fact that further immigration ceased, on the other hand, groups less American in feeling were also prevented from leaving America. Both factors together stimulated the movement for "Americanisation". This movement has taken various forms—the organisation of immigrant workers, extension of the educational policy and legislation of both Federal and State Governments in

order to provide better educational opportunities for the children of immigrants and for adults. There have also been small group movements against foreigners, while greater recourse has been had to the expulsion and deportation provisions of existing immigration laws. However, there has been an increased demand for an immigration policy which would substitute well-considered and comprehensive state action for the unorganised activities of private groups. The immediate result of the movement was the passing of the Act limiting immigration to a percentage of the various foreign-born groups already in the country. Interest in the matter continues even after the passing of this legislation, and various Bills are now before Congress.

In Brazil the problems of immigration and population have been carefully studied, and great efforts have been made to attract immigrants of the right kind. It is realised that the chief need of the immense territories of this country is a large and industrious population. For several decades the Government has carried on a systematic policy of carefully calculated encouragement, with a view to obtaining the greatest possible influx of agricultural workers of the first quality. This policy of stimulated immigration has assured them of a supply of overseas immigrants greater than could have been attracted by the natural advantages of the country. The proportion of the total number of emigrants throughout the world who proceed to Brazil is large, but the Government hopes that in the present disorganised state of Europe still more favourable opportunities for development will arise, and it will not hesitate to take the necessary steps with this in view.

Unlike Brazil, which welcomes immigrants of every race and nation, and especially Europeans who have been induced by the war to seek new homes, Canada seeks principally to encourage Anglo-Saxon immigration, although trained agricultural workers of other races are also sought. The Canadian laws allow great latitude when immigration is required, but become more rigid when the situation is reversed. The laws are efficiently enforced with both tact and moderation; their severer features are mitigated by their reasonable administration. In short, the development of Canada is furthered by an immigration policy which takes both reason and sentiment into account.

Australia, with its immense uninhabited territories, situated at the point of contact between the white and yellow races, has an immigration policy which concerns itself primarily with safeguarding the ethnic character of its future population. The Government is anxious to settle the unoccupied land with farmers, and to obtain white labour. The organised workers on their side, however, are opposed to the influx of "foreigners", which might result in lowering the traditionally high standard of living in their country. On the other



hand, Japan, China, India, and the Dutch Indies, with their excess of population, find it difficult to endure the condition of inferiority in which they are kept by reason of special immigration laws. These countries are engaged in working out the broad outlines of an emigration policy, but have not yet finally settled its principles. During the session of the Commission the Chinese Commissioner, Mr. Li Tchuin, proposed that the agenda of the International Labour Conference should include the following item: "The improvement of the present conditions of living of Chinese emigrants, who suffer from economic disadvantages in certain countries". This was a question of wide scope and one which had not previously been raised. The Commission agreed to substitute the following proposal, at any rate for the next Sessions: "Equality of treatment from the economic point of view, without distinction of country of origin, of all immigrants legally admitted into the country of immigration".

The problems with which South Africa is faced are of a different nature, though they have some points of resemblance to those of other countries with large unoccupied areas of land. The unskilled labour of South Africa is neither white nor yellow, but black, and the only immigrants who are attracted for ordinary work are Chinese and Hindus. The existence side by side of three races at different levels of civilisation accounts for the peculiar difficulties of the problem in South Africa.

In addition to those problems which arise from differences of race and nationality, acute as they are in themselves, there are also class problems and questions of wages and recruiting conditions. These questions arouse opposition, not only between employers and workers of the same country, but between the workers of America and those of Europe and between the employers of the two continents. The views of the American employers on liberty of migration often coincide with those of the European worker, and both are opposed by the American worker and the European employer, who desire to limit migration.

Among these divergent policies and interests, the occasionally unreliable alliance of some parties, the increasing hostility of others, and the contradictions between different legislations, the emigrant of the present day has to act with caution. He encounters obstacles both on his departure and on his arrival, and receives no international support except from philanthropists, who are too often unable to translate their intentions into action.

It was not the duty of the Commission to make a choice between these diverse and conflicting immigration policies, each of which has been adopted for definite reasons. Under its terms of reference, the Commission was obliged to give "due regard to the sovereign rights of each state", and

this instruction it was careful to observe. The task before the Commission was enormous, but it attempted to cover the ground in a series of conclusions, which were reached by general agreement. An international programme of considerable extent was finally formulated in the twenty-nine resolutions attached to the report of the Commission.

#### NECESSITY FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDY OF THE PROBLEM

The emigrant has sometimes been called "an international person", and it is this peculiarity which distinguishes him from all other citizens. Other citizens live on their native soil, where they know the laws which they have to observe and to which they can appeal, and the authorities to whom they can have recourse in order to see that they are observed. The emigrant, on the contrary, is not subject to an international law. From the moment when he leaves his native land and, indeed, from the moment when he declares his intention of leaving it, until he is accepted and naturalised in another country, he can obtain no adequate protection, for that provided by consuls is often illusory. In order to reach his destination he must pass through indifferent or hostile countries with whose language, law, and customs he is almost always unacquainted. He generally has to negotiate the conditions of his journey and obtain his ticket from a foreigner or a clandestine agent. He frequently embarks at a foreign port and on a foreign vessel. He is in constant contact with foreign laws, foreign agents, and foreign officials. During the journey he is considered as a profitable cargo or as an asset which can be exploited rather than as a person with legal rights which he is able to defend. In many cases, either voluntarily or at the instigation of fraudulent agents, he leaves his country as a deserter or under a false pretext. In this way he hopes to obtain greater independence and liberty, but in practice he loses such slight protection as his country could have afforded him in a foreign land.

The present tendency of countries of emigration is, naturally, to extend national protection to emigrants who have left their native soil and to continue to defend them in foreign territories. Some countries have passed laws and regulations on this subject, and these have considerably improved the lot of the emigrant. Even when the country of origin wishes to protect its emigrants, however, it often finds great difficulty in doing so. It is by no means easy to reach the emigrant, who is often uneducated, unacquainted with his rights and duties, distrustful of attempts to exploit him on the pretext of sympathy or patriotism, and who is, moreover, often segregated in special trains or observation and isolation stations for purposes of quarantine and examination. If efficient protection cannot be organised by the country of origin, neither the country of transit, which

receives the emigrant for a few days only and scarcely comes into real contact with him, nor the country of immigration, with which the new arrival has as yet no connection, is able to do so. Thus the emigrant is met by helplessness on the one hand, indifference or even hostility on the other.

Certain attempts have already been made to protect the emigrant by the one effective method of instituting international measures appropriate to all countries and guaranteed by Conventions between two or more governments. In the last few years bilateral labour treaties have been concluded between certain European countries dealing more especially with continental emigration. These include the Conventions between France and Italy, between Poland and Czechoslovakia, between Italy and France and Luxemburg, and between Poland and France and Austria. Only a small fraction of the ground is, however, covered by these treaties.

A still larger number of treaties have been concluded in order to institute equality of treatment for immigrants and national workers, especially as regards social insurance. Very few, however, apply to overseas countries, though it is these countries which receive the largest proportion of permanent immigrants and therefore require such measures most urgently. The special protection thus instituted is, moreover, of a somewhat complicated character and does not apply to the emigrant en route, but only to the emigrant who has settled temporarily or permanently in a foreign country.

In view of the inadequacy and indifference of national legislation and of the limited scope of the bilateral treaties, the question arose whether it would not be necessary, as well as more simple and more practical, to institute a universal system of protection providing minimum guarantees to all emigrants. Such an undertaking undeniably presented serious difficulties. The importance of the result to be obtained and the gravity of the abuses which it was desired to remedy, however, required that an effort should be made.

#### EARLIEST ATTEMPTS AT INTERNATIONAL ACTION

Attempts to establish international regulations for the protection of emigrants en route have resulted in almost complete failure. The question was raised in the Labour Commission which discussed the labour clauses of the Peace Treaty. After long discussion equality of treatment as between nationals and foreign workers was included among the general principles, the application of which was entrusted by the Treaty of Versailles to the International Labour Organisation. The question of unemployment appeared on the agenda of the first International Labour Conference, held at Washington; in connection with this, it was proposed by the Organising Committee, entrusted by the Treaty with the preparatory work for the Conference, after consultation with

the governments, that the Governing Body of the International Labour Office should be requested to appoint a commission to investigate the desirability of taking measures to regulate the migration of workers. The proposal of the Organising Committee was discussed and finally adopted at the Washington Conference in the following form :

The Conference resolves that the Governing Body of the International Labour Office shall appoint an International Commission which, while giving due regard to the sovereign rights of each state, shall consider and report what measures can be adopted to regulate the migration of workers out of their own states and to protect the interests of wage earners residing in states other than their own, such Commission to present its report at the meeting of the International Labour Conference in 1920.

The representation of European countries on the Commission shall be limited to one-half the total membership of the Commission.

In accordance with this resolution the Governing Body, at its session of March 1920, appointed a Commission of eighteen members, the composition of which has been described above.

#### PREPARATION FOR THE WORK OF THE COMMISSION

In order to provide the Commission with the necessary information, the International Labour Office drew up a detailed questionnaire consisting of the three following sections :

(1) Statistical information and the situation in the various countries.

(2) Legislation and treaties dealing with migration.

(3) The programme of work for the Commission.

This questionnaire was sent to the governments of all the States Members of the International Labour Organisation. Thirty-two replied with full information on conditions in the different countries, and interesting suggestions for the programme of work. These replies, as well as the other documents provided by the governments, enabled the International Labour Office to publish two reports, the first dealing with the methods employed by the various governments in drawing up statistics, and the second with legislation and treaties concerning emigration and immigration. The latter publication gives an account of the legislation of about fifty countries. It supplies a long-felt want as regards information on the subject of emigration, and provides a solid basis for the decisions to be taken by the Labour Conference. Further reports, dealing, among other subjects, with the scope and extent of migratory movements, are at present in preparation. The Labour Conference will thus be thoroughly acquainted with the problem when it comes to deal with emigration questions.

The Commission was not, however, only concerned with the collection of information. Its principal duty was to formulate proposals and to lay down a programme of inter-

binds the governments, either of those states which were national action. With the approval of the Chairman and Vice-Chairman of the Commission, the International Labour Office drew up ten special reports to assist the work of the Commission. Eight of these dealt with the programme of action and two with the executive measures to be entrusted to the International Labour Office.

The first series consisted of the following reports :

- (1) Supervision of emigration agents and supply of information to emigrants.
- (2) Collective recruiting in foreign countries.
- (3) Deduction from the wages of emigrants of sums advanced before departure.
- (4) Examination of emigrants before embarkation.
- (5) Health of emigrants on board ship and on the railways.
- (6) Insurance of emigrants during the voyage.
- (7) Finding of employment for emigrants.
- (8) Equality of treatment of emigrant workers and national workers.

The reports concerning the work to be entrusted to the International Labour Office dealt with information and statistics as well as the international co-ordination of legislation. The Spanish employers' representative, M. de Montornès, sent two reports dealing with the insurance of emigrants and the health of emigrants on board ship. These reports were also distributed to the members of the Commission.

#### DECISIONS OF THE COMMISSION AND THEIR SCOPE

The Commission formulated its conclusions in twenty-nine resolutions, most of which were adopted unanimously. These resolutions were transmitted, as the report of the Commission, to the Chairman of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, in order that he might submit them to the International Labour Conference of 1921 in accordance with the decision of the Washington Conference.

Before these resolutions are examined in detail, it is necessary to form a clear idea of their legal force.

The Commission set up by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office was a purely consultative body which was instructed to submit a report to the International Labour Conference. By the terms of the resolution of the Washington Conference the Commission had to give due regard to the sovereign rights of each state, and this condition was carefully observed in the report. The report in question represents the opinion of a Commission which was no doubt of great importance and highly competent, but it in no way

represented on the Commission or of those which were not so represented. No decision which is binding, either generally or in certain countries, has yet been taken. The International Labour Conference has merely been provided with subjects for discussion with a view to subsequent action by the International Labour Organisation. Neither the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, to which the report was communicated, nor the International Labour Conference of 1921, to which in turn it was submitted, have been called upon to take any further decision on the subjects which are included in the programme. The question of emigration did not specifically appear on the agenda of the 1921 Conference. A summary of the report of the Commission was simply read. It will be for the Governing Body to select those points in the wide programme formulated by the Commission which appear to have reached a stage at which they can be formally placed on the agenda of future Conferences. The resolutions will then be sent, together with the reports drawn up by the International Labour Office, the minutes of the meetings of the Commission, and any necessary explanations, to the governments of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation, and to those persons whose opinion on the question it is desirable to hear. The governments will state their opinions, and it will not be until these have been received, analysed, and communicated to the other governments, that the representatives of the governments will be called upon to vote, according to the instructions which they have received, on any Draft Conventions or Recommendations. Such voting will be taken according to the provisions of the Peace Treaty, namely by a two-thirds majority, the presence of half the delegates attending a Conference being necessary if a vote is to be valid.

If a decision complying with these conditions is made, each government will consider whether and to what extent it adopts the proposals which have been passed, whether it will ratify the Draft Conventions and whether it will give effect to the Recommendations, either by national legislation or by some other method. Only when the international Conventions have been ratified by at least two of the Members will they take effect, and even then they will only apply to the countries which have ratified them, or the Recommendations to those countries which have adopted them.

It will thus be seen that the sovereign rights of the states are fully safeguarded by the procedure adopted. This applies in particular to federal governments, for which the Peace Treaty lays down special conditions. The decisions of the Commission will not be finally adopted and will not be valid in the various countries until they have been carefully examined and adopted by each of the countries concerned as well as by a two-thirds majority of the delegates to the Conference.

Although the time when the resolutions of the Commission will be applied in the various countries is still far distant, and though many essential stages have still to be passed through, great importance must be attached to the fact that the official delegates of fourteen important countries of emigration and immigration, including representatives of employers, workers, and governments, came to an agreement, which was in almost all cases unanimous, on a definite programme of action as regards emigration.

The programme laid down by the Commission is of wide scope and proposes remedies for nearly all the abuses from which emigrants suffer. The scope of the programme is indeed so wide that it is doubtful whether it can be dealt with in its entirety by a single International Labour Conference. Some of the proposed solutions are so important and so novel in character that it may be doubted whether the unanimity of the members of the Commission will be maintained by the government representatives to the Conference and the national parliaments. Realisation of even a part of the programme would, however, constitute a considerable improvement in the conditions of emigration.

#### THE COMMISSION'S DOUBLE TASK

Two questions were laid before the Emigration Commission by the Washington Conference, a step subsequently confirmed by the Governing Body. They were (1) regulation of the migration of workers leaving their native country; (2) protection of the interests of workers domiciled in a country other than their country of origin (the question of equality of treatment).

The attempt to obtain real equality of treatment for national and foreign workers raises a number of different questions of national and international law, which could only be settled by jurists, and would require prolonged study. There is uncertainty and division of opinion among experts as regards the best method of obtaining equality, and many traces of this are to be found in the replies of the governments to the questionnaires. Some governments consider that it is sufficient to lay down the principle of equality by law, while others are in favour of treaties fixing in detail the occasions on which reciprocal treatment can be given, and the methods by which it is to be ensured in each case. Others again propose that the principle of reciprocity, which they consider somewhat out of date, should be abandoned in favour of complete equality between all workers, whether national or foreign, proclaimed by the national legislation of each country. The most modern would prefer international Conventions which would establish equitable conditions every where. Nor has the old idea entirely vanished which

believes the first duty of all governments to be the protection of their nationals, nor yet that which conceives of reciprocity as a kind of barter where advantages must be minutely weighed and carefully balanced. Even the principles of reciprocity or equality do not clear away all difficulties. There are differences in material conditions, laws and institutions have different scopes, and their financial bearing is not the same. All this is very difficult. The Commission did not enter into details, but simply expressed the hope that the largest possible measure of equality of treatment would obtain between nationals and foreigners. As a preliminary it requested the Labour Office, with the help of experts, to prepare reports on an international co-ordination of laws and uniform insurance legislation, with a view to future conferences.

### REGULATION OF EMIGRATION

The question of international regulation of emigration was closely studied by the Commission, which attempted to find remedies for the various abuses to which emigrants are subject, and embodied its suggestions in the twenty-nine resolutions submitted to the 1921 Labour Conference. The resolutions were given the form of general proposals, as the Commission did not consider it necessary, in the present early stages of action, to draft actual texts, but left it to be decided later whether the proposals finally to be submitted to the Conference should take the form of Recommendations or Draft Conventions. For convenience of reference, the evils to be remedied and the remedies proposed by the Commission to overcome such evils are presented in the following summary, which follows the natural order in which the abuses arise :

I. *Abuse.* — The intending emigrant is deceived and exploited by emigration agents.

*Remedy.* — The Commission proposed the institution of state supervision of the activities of emigration, transport, and recruiting agents, sub-agents, etc. (Resolution X).

II. *Abuse.* — Other agents induce him to emigrate under unfavourable conditions.

*Remedy.* — Fraudulent inducements to emigrate should be dealt with by repressive measures on the part of the governments (Resolution XII).

III. *Abuse.* — He has no effective redress against insolvent agents who have defrauded him.

*Remedy.* — In order to ensure that the emigrant is compensated for any injury he may receive, transport companies should be made jointly responsible for the acts and engagements of their agents and all persons acting in their name or on their account (Resolution XIII).

IV. *Abuse.* — In the absence of complete and reliable information he is obliged to have recourse to clandestine agents.

*Remedy.* — All available information should be supplied to emigrants by the governments themselves (Resolution XI). In order to facilitate the supply of information all governments should immediately forward all available information concerning emigration and immigration to the International Labour Office (Resolution I).



V. *Abuse.* — If he applies to collective recruiting agents, he has no guarantee of the conditions under which he will work in the foreign country. Many promises are made to him, but few of them are kept.

*Remedy.* — Collective recruiting of labour for foreign countries should only be carried out under the supervision of the authorities by authorised agents or employment agencies, after consultation with employers' and workers' organisations. Suitable wage and labour conditions should be provided, and the contracts should, if possible, be written, and should take account of the state of the labour market in the countries concerned. Collective recruiting should be prohibited in the case of strikes and lock-outs (Resolutions XIV and XV).

VI. *Abuse.* — During the journey he suffers from diversity and lack of co-ordination in the legislation of various countries with which he cannot be acquainted. Sometimes sudden changes in legislation interfere with plans which have already been partially carried out.

*Remedy.* — The International Labour Office is instructed to study the question of co-ordinating emigration and immigration legislation (Resolution III). It is desirable that, in executing legislation which profoundly modifies that already in force, care should be taken that immigrants do not suffer through precipitate application (Resolution XXVII).

VII. *Abuse.* — Deplorable sanitary conditions prevail on the railways and on board ship.

*Remedy.* — The Commission considered that it would be premature to ask the governments to set up universal legislation concerning sanitary conditions of emigrants on board ship and on the railways at the present time. In order to prepare for future legislative action, however, it requested the Governing Body to appoint a commission of technical experts to assist the International Labour Office in preparing a report for submission to the International Labour Conference dealing with the minimum conditions of hygiene, safety, and comfort to be provided for emigrants on board ship and on the railways (Resolution XXII).

VIII. *Abuse.* — Neither the emigrant nor his family have any redress if he is injured in an accident during the journey.

*Remedy.* — The Commission proposed that emigrants should be insured against death or disablement en route, from the beginning of the journey until arrival at their destination (Resolution XXIII).

IX. *Abuse.* — When the emigrant arrives at his destination after a long and difficult journey, when he has realised his property and broken up his home, he is liable to be refused admission by the country to which he has emigrated.

*Remedy.* — In order to prevent the immigrant being refused admission on arrival, the Commission recommended that governments should arrange for the thorough inspection of emigrants at ports of embarkation and the principal places of transit (Resolution XX). It suggested that special Conventions should be made between the states concerned to settle the conditions under which inspection can take place before embarkation, so that emigrants may be sure of admission to the country of immigration (Resolution XXI).

X. *Abuse.* — There is no institution for the protection of the emigrant against the numerous difficulties which confront him when he first lands.

*Remedy.* — The Commission proposed that suitable arrangements for the reception and protection of newly arrived immigrants should be organised (Resolution XXVI). With a view to providing adequate protection, it further proposed the investigation of the possibility of providing a common organisation, by agreements between the countries concerned, for the assistance and protection of emigrants of all nationalities at the port of disembarkation or frontier station (Resolution XXIX c).

XI. *Abuse.* — His lack of knowledge of the country makes it difficult for him to find suitable employment.

*Remedy.* — In order to assist immigrants to find employment, the Commission proposed that each government should make its national system of employment agencies available for them; that the employment exchange

and emigration organisations should keep in close touch with one another; that the exchange of information concerning the state of foreign labour markets between the employment agencies of adjoining countries should be facilitated; and that special employment agencies for emigrants should be set up in places where large numbers of emigrants congregate (Resolutions IV, V, VI, and VII).

**XII. Abuse.** — Contracts made before emigration, involving deductions from wages or other forms of subjection which are contrary to the customs of the country of immigration, frequently restrict his freedom of movement and the disposal of his labour and his property.

*Remedy.* — The Commission proposed that all contracts involving deductions from wages for advances made to emigrants before their departure should be declared null and void if they were contrary to the legislation, regulations, or customs of the country of immigration (Resolution XIV).

**XIII. Abuse.** — The immigrant is frequently not entitled to the full benefit of laws for the protection of workers. In particular, the application of legislation on insurance benefit and education is often insufficient or defective. Equality of treatment with native workers is not granted.

*Remedy.* — The Commission expressed the desire that the largest possible measure of equality of treatment between national and foreign workers should be provided by international Conventions or by legislation, especially as regards labour legislation, social insurance, state relief, and the right of association for trade union purposes (Resolution VIII). Children of foreigners should be allowed access to institutions for general and technical education (Resolution XXV).

**XIV. Abuse.** — The foreign worker is sometimes subjected to arbitrary taxation.

*Remedy.* — The Commission proposed that the possibility of the payment by the employer of special taxes falling exclusively upon foreign workers should be investigated (Resolution XXIXa).

**XV. Abuse.** — If he contracts an industrial disease in the country of immigration, his labour power, which is his sole source of wealth, may be destroyed without any kind of compensation.

*Remedy.* — The Commission proposed the investigation of the question of compensation for emigrants who have contracted an incurable disease after a certain period of work in the territory of the country of immigration, if they had been subjected on arrival to an inspection which showed that they were then in a good state of health (Resolution XXIXb).

**XVI. Abuse.** — These abuses press most hardly on women and children.

*Remedy.* — At the request of the special Conference on Traffic in Women and Children, the Commission decided that the protection of emigrants should be applied in particular to women and children, and recognised that the measures which it proposed were calculated to remedy some of the abuses of the traffic in question (Resolutions XVII and XVIII). It also decided to draw the special attention of the governments to the question, and proposed that the protection of women and children proceeding from one country to another should be placed on the agenda of the 1922 Conference (Resolution XIX).

**XVII. Abuse.** — Certain races are subjected to specially unfavourable treatment.

*Remedy.* — After discussing a proposal brought forward by the Chinese delegate, the Commission proposed that the International Labour Conference should place upon its agenda the question of the equality of treatment, from an economic standpoint, and without distinction of country of origin, of all emigrants legally admitted into the country of immigration (Resolution XXVIII).

It will thus be seen that the programme for the international regulation of emigration laid down by the Commission is one of wide scope, including all emigration questions for which

international investigation appeared desirable. It seems doubtful whether so large a programme can be completely carried out by the 1922 Conference. For this reason the Commission in a final Resolution (Resolution XXIV) stated that, in view of the importance of the question, the complexity of the solutions, and the need of thorough and continuous investigation, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office should be asked to set up a small permanent commission, which should be able to call on experts in order to assist the Office in connection with questions of emigration, and to follow their development day by day.

The question of emigration is thus permanently included in the work of the International Labour Office, which has already, in accordance with a resolution of the Washington Conference, set up a special Emigration Section. The institution of an organisation for continuous technical work will make it possible to create a common centre for all persons interested in the important question of emigration.

#### SUGGESTED EXTENSIONS OF THE PROGRAMME

The Commission proposed that its resolutions should be carried into effect by the usual procedure, as laid down in the Treaty of Versailles, i. e. by a certain number of Draft Conventions and Recommendations to be submitted to the governments for ratification and approval. The application of these Conventions would be supervised by the existing organisations according to the procedure laid down in the Treaty, and no new international organisations would be set up for the purpose. The Commission only proposed that certain work connected with the supply of information should be directly entrusted to the International Labour Office (Resolutions I and II).

The questionnaire asked the governments to give their opinion on certain questions of international co-ordination by the International Labour Office, and several of them returned a favourable answer. Under present circumstances, however, and in view of the extensive programme already laid down, the International Labour Office considered that discussion of these questions would be premature, and would not be in accordance with immediate needs and possibilities.

The Emigration Commission, however, while maintaining this point of view, nevertheless decided that investigation of some of these questions should be undertaken. At the proposal of several members, it requested the International Labour Office to study the question of international co-ordination of legislation concerning migration (Resolution III), and in particular to draw up a report on the best means of setting up a uniform system of social insurance legislation

for all states, or for certain groups of states (Resolution IX). It is unnecessary to emphasise the importance of these decisions. Some members desired to go even further. Mention has already been made of the motion of the Chinese delegate, which raised the racial question.

Another very important resolution was that proposed by the Brazilian delegate, Mr. Regis de Oliveira, in the name of his Government—

Inasmuch as human migration constitutes a permanent phenomenon which it is urgent should be regulated in the higher interests of humanity, the Government of Brazil proposes the permanent constitution of the International Emigration Commission, with a view to directing the migratory current, in a reasonable manner, from countries where work is scarce to countries where labour is required.

This permanent character, given to the Emigration Commission, is justified by the fact that it would act as an impartial body, authorised as an organ of conciliation in conflicts which may arise between governments relating to emigration.

Two important tasks were thus suggested for the Commission, which it was proposed to transform into a permanent body, the direction of migratory movements and the settlement of disputes between governments. In view of the diversity of national policies, the Brazilian Government stated the necessity of co-operation between all states for the general good. This was a bold step, and in many ways an attractive one, but it was premature, and would not be readily accepted by the governments at the present time. Mr. Albert Thomas, the Director of the International Labour Office, pointed out the practical difficulties and the danger of undertaking tasks of ill-defined scope which might be regarded as an infringement of the sovereign rights of states. Several government delegates expressed similar views. Taking everything into consideration, the Commission was reluctant to accept a mission of so novel and delicate a character at this time; it recognised, however, that the ground was by no means covered even by the very complete programme which had been adopted, and that many of the questions discussed would require further examination by a permanent commission, assisted by experts (Resolution XXIV).

#### PUBLIC INTEREST IN THE MEETINGS OF THE COMMISSION

Public opinion was greatly interested in the work of the Commission. In addition to the fifteen governments which appointed delegates in reply to the invitation sent to them, several other governments asked to be represented on the Commission. Nearly all the governments sent replies to the questionnaire. The number of replies received was thirty-two, probably a higher figure than that reached in any other similar enquiry. In this way the governments of nearly all the states concerned took part in the work of the Commission.

The workers' representatives followed the discussions with great interest. Mr. Knoll, who represented the German trade unions, manifested by the motions which he brought forward or supported the interest which the organised working classes take in the question. The workers' associations also decided to hold a special international trade union congress dealing with emigration. The question has already been discussed in several workers' congresses.

Representatives of certain British steamship companies asked for permission to make statements to the Commission. Interesting statements were made by representatives of the White Star Line, the Cunard Line, and the Canadian Pacific Railway, three of the transport companies which provide the most satisfactory conditions for their passengers. The representatives of these companies considered that, while the conflicting policies of the various nations aimed at keeping back, supervising, or refusing immigrants according to their own particular interests and took more account of national than of humanitarian considerations, the transport companies, which merely desired to give satisfaction to their passengers, were the best representatives of the general interests of emigrants. Free competition between transport companies often produced better treatment for emigrants than that which complicated and often ineffective and incoherent legislation attempted to provide. In supporting a policy of free play of emigration and immigration, the companies considered that they were defending the interests of emigrants, in giving them the greatest possible freedom to come and go. Although they were a little apprehensive of the lack of experience of official commissions, the navigation companies offered to supply the Commission with full information and declared themselves in favour of many of the measures proposed in the reports and resolutions. In particular, they supported the proposals for the insurance of emigrants. They considered this an excellent measure, and stated that they were willing to contribute, on the understanding that the insurance benefit should free them from any further responsibility in the case of accidents to emigrants. As regards the question of sanitary conditions on board ship and on railways, they recognised that it was desirable to obtain uniformity in the legislation of the various countries, which at the present time was often contradictory and impracticable. They stated that they were prepared to make a careful study of the best means of providing the highest degree of comfort and security and the best sanitary conditions for emigrants. They proposed that a commission of experts should be set up to investigate the practical action to be taken, and this proposal was adopted by the Commission. They also considered that the inspection of emigrants at the part of embarkation before departure was an excellent measure and would appreciably decrease the risk and expense borne by the shipping companies, though

they pointed out that such expense was borne in the last resort by the emigrants themselves. They asked, however, that the inspection should provide all the necessary guarantees and should be final, so that the emigrant was not liable to be refused admission on arrival.

The shipping companies did not deny that clandestine agents were responsible for many abuses, but they declared that these were often the necessary consequence of monopolies and of extreme nationalist measures. They considered that the real remedy would be to grant licences to the shipping companies only. They further stated that they were ready to give their assistance in statistical work of all kinds. At the present time, as a matter of fact, these companies collected most of the statistics. They were also ready to accept uniform international legislation which, if carefully drafted, would be preferable to the large number of contradictory laws at present existing.

Thus the shipping companies gave the support of their experience to almost the entire programme of the Commission. The importance of this support, given at the outset of the work, must be emphasised, and it is to be hoped that it will continue in future.

In spite of its decision to hold its meetings in private, the Commission allowed the representatives of certain international associations whose object is to improve the conditions of emigrants to be present at all the sittings. Several delegates, both men and women, came from America to hear the discussions, and the presence of representatives of the great Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, and inter-racial associations of the United States and of Europe showed that a powerful body of charitable organisations was interested in the philanthropic aspect of the questions which the International Labour Organisation was attempting to solve by means of international legislation and agreements. Several of these associations, especially the Young Women's Christian Association and the Young Men's Christian Association, had undertaken special enquiries in connection with the meeting of the Commission. The full and interesting information obtained by these enquiries was communicated to the Commission.

The participation of so many races and religions in the work of the Commission constitutes the basis of a general agreement between all persons of good will, which it may be hoped will result in some public manifestation before the 1922 Conference. This would show that the best elements of public opinion are united in opposition to the abuses from which emigrants so often suffer.

## APPENDIX

## Resolutions

passed by the International Emigration Commission (1)  
Geneva, 2 to 11 August 1921.

*Statistics*

I. Each Member shall communicate to the International Labour Office, at intervals as short as possible and not exceeding three months, all available information, legislative, statistical, or otherwise, concerning emigration, immigration, the repatriation and transit of emigrants, including reports on measures taken or contemplated in respect of these questions.

Whenever practicable, the information referred to above shall be made available for such communication not later than three months after the end of the period to which it relates.

II. That the Director of the International Labour Office be requested to consult the statistical departments of Members with a view to proposing the form of a suitable schedule to be submitted to the 1922 Conference.

*International Co-ordination of Measures for the Protection of Emigrants*

III. The Commission requests the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to take all measures necessary to ensure that the Technical Emigration Section, assisted, if necessary, by a few experts, shall investigate the question of international co-ordination of legislation affecting emigration.

*Employment of Emigrants*

IV. Each Member should undertake to place at the disposal of emigrants and immigrants the services of its public employment exchange systems in addition to the special services which may exist for the purpose of assisting them in seeking employment.

V. For this purpose it would be desirable that permanent relations should be established between public employment exchanges and the public services of emigration or of immigration or of both, where they exist.

VI. Each Member should undertake to furnish to the public employment exchanges of other countries which may apply for it all available information necessary for the proper carrying out of the provisions of Resolution IV, particularly as regards contiguous frontier areas. This exchange of information will be effected either directly between the competent exchanges or by other means established by the appropriate authority.

VII. It is desirable that, in localities where emigrants and immigrants are concentrated in large numbers, an organisation should be set up to find them employment and to provide them with any information which may concern them, having regard to the conditions mentioned in the two previous resolutions.

*Equality of Treatment of Foreign and National Workers*

VIII. It is desirable that, in default of legislative measures already existing in the various countries, the Members of the International Labour Organisation should take steps to bring about as far as possible, by means of international conventions, equality of treatment between immigrant workers and their dependents and their own nationals, particularly in respect both of labour and social insurance legislation, and of relief, and of the right of association for trade union purposes.

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(1) The text given here is reprinted from the Report of the Commission. The Report states that "the texts of these resolutions are given in the exact form in which they were passed at the meetings. The Commission has thought it preferable to forward to the Governing Body these texts, exactly as they were voted, without revising them, although this course would be necessary in order to give them a definite form".

ix. The International Labour Office is requested to prepare a report for submission to a future Conference with a view to bringing about as far as possible uniformity of legislation in respect of social insurance, either between all countries or between certain groups of countries.

*State Supervision of Emigration Agents*

x. It is desirable that each Member should undertake to organise state supervision over the owners of undertakings and agents dealing with the transport of emigrants by land or by sea, over emigration agents and sub-agents, over all emigration offices or offices which sell tickets to emigrants, over agents engaged in recruiting or in finding employment in foreign countries, and in general over all persons interested in the promotion of emigration and who are carrying on their business on its territory.

xi. Each Member should undertake to place at the disposal of all persons, free of charge if possible, all available information regarding the conditions of emigration.

xii. Each Member should make it a punishable offence to disseminate false statements with a view to inducing emigration.

xiii. The Emigration Commission calls the attention of Members to the fact it is desirable that those countries which have not already done so should insert in their legislation the principle of the joint and several responsibility of employers and other persons engaged in the transport of emigrants by land or sea for obligations entered into in their names, and for faults committed by their representatives, agents, and sub-agents, whether avowed or secret, as well as by any other person working for their profit and in their interest.

*Collective Recruiting of Workers in Foreign Countries*

xiv. That, if and when bilateral Conventions for the recruitment of bodies of workers are made between Members in pursuance of the Recommendation of the Washington Conference, or where collective recruiting takes place in another country, the following principles should be borne in mind:

(1) Inspection and supervision by the competent authorities of the two states concerned, each on its own territory.

(2) Recruiting operations should be carried on exclusively through the medium of offices or agents authorised by the competent authorities of the states.

(3) Consultation of employers' and workers' organisations concerned in the case of recruiting carried out as a result of Conventions between governments.

(4) To see that the recruiting does not disturb the labour markets of the two countries; particularly, that the wages should not be less than those paid in the country of immigration, and that workers, recruited should not arrive on the occasion of strikes or lock-outs.

(5) Contracts signed in the country of emigration shall be fully enforceable in the country of immigration, except in the case of such clauses as are contrary to public order.

xv. If it appears that workers or employees (men or women) are recruited for another country in order to replace workers or employees of that country who are involved in a strike or lock-out, the undertaking, which has carried out this recruiting, or for the profit of which the recruiting has been carried out, should repay to the workers and employees thus recruited all their expenses, including the expenses of the journey in both directions.



*Deductions from Wages on Account of Advances paid to Emigrants*

xvi. That in cases of contracts involving deductions from wages or salary by reason of advances made to an emigrant before leaving his country, each Member shall make provision, where necessary, securing to the courts of its country or other competent authorities the power to declare such contracts null and void in so far as they are contrary to the existing legislation of the country of immigration for the protection of wages.

*Measures concerning the Suppression of the Traffic in Women and Children*

xvii. Except in so far as it is otherwise provided, all measures proposed by the International Emigration Commission for the protection of emigrants shall apply equally to men and to women and children, to male and female workers and employees.

xviii. This Commission instructs the Director of the International Labour Office to communicate the resolutions of the Commission to the League of Nations, in order that the League may select such of them as are applicable to the suppression of the traffic in women and children.

xix. It is desirable that protection for women and children leaving one country for another as emigrants should be the subject of full consideration by the Members of the International Labour Conference and that this subject be added to the agenda of the Conference of 1922.

*Inspection of Emigrants before Embarkation*

xx. Every Member should make provision for an effective examination of emigrants in every port where emigrants embark and, if desirable, at the chief points of the frontier through which emigrants pass.

With the object of reducing the chances of rejection by the country of immigration and to prevent the development of contagious diseases en route, the said examination should bear chiefly on the following points:

(1) Whether the emigrants have complied with all conditions required before their departure.

(2) Whether they satisfy the provisions in force in regard to entry into the country of immigration.

xxi. It would seem to be desirable that special Conventions made between the States concerned should stipulate the conditions under which examinations of emigrants shall take place; the manner in which countries of emigration and immigration shall provide for such examinations in their respective ports or at their frontiers; the conditions under which admission to the countries shall be secured; the form to be given to certificates and other necessary documents; and any other provisions concerning emigration, immigration, and repatriation.

*Hygiene of Emigrants*

xxii. The Governing Body of the International Labour Office is invited to appoint a committee of experts to assist the International Labour Office in the preparation and presentation of a report to the International Labour Conference of 1922 concerning the general rules which can be adopted by general agreement between the interested countries, laying down the minimum requirements which, subject to the varying conditions of climate and the distance of the journey, must be fulfilled by emigrants' ships and railways in order to secure to every emigrant during his journey full guarantees of good treatment in respect of hygiene, security, food, and comfort in accordance with the requirements of civilisation and human dignity.

*Insurance of Emigrants*

xxiii. Every emigrant shall be guaranteed for the benefit of his dependents against the risk of death or disablement from the time he commences his journey until he arrives at the destination stated on his ticket, and accordingly the Commission draws the attention of governments

to the desirability of instituting, if they have not already done so, a system guaranteeing emigrants against risk of death or disablement when travelling.

#### *Permanent Commission*

XXIV. Whereas the question of emigration is of immediate interest to many nations and to the future peace of the world; whereas also the problems raised by this question are complex and require careful and constant study, the Commission requests the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to consider the creation of a commission composed of a small number of members, and aided if necessary by experts, to assist the Office in its work, and to follow from day to day with full moral authority the development of this question.

#### *General and Technical Education*

XXV. In countries receiving immigrants, general and technical schools shall be open as far as possible to immigrants and their families.

#### *Protection of Emigrants*

XXVI. Each country which receives emigrants should provide for suitable reception and protection of emigrants in its ports or at its frontiers.

#### *Application of Laws restricting Emigration and Immigration*

XXVII. Whenever a state makes a considerable modification in its legislation with regard to emigration or immigration, it is desirable that in applying any provisions made in this respect it should take such precautions as may be possible to avoid any vexatious consequences to emigrants which might result from too sudden an application of such measures.

XXVIII. The International Emigration Commission, having been informed of the request of the delegate of the Chinese Government, and recognising the connection existing between the question raised by him and that of emigration dealt with by the Commission, adopts the following resolution :

The International Emigration Commission proposes that the International Labour Conference should include as an item of the agenda : " Equality of treatment from the economic point of view, without distinction of country of origin, for all immigrants legally admitted into the country of immigration ".

#### *Questions referred to the Permanent Commission*

XXIX. The Commission decides to refer the following resolutions to the Permanent Commission for examination :

a) *Taxes on Foreign Workers.* — Whenever a country receiving immigrants imposes special taxes applicable only to foreign workers, the amount of such taxes should be paid by the employer.

b) *Responsibility in Case of Sickness contracted in a Foreign Country.* — In countries receiving immigrants which medically examine emigrants on their arrival and in which no law exists concerning occupational diseases, there should be established the principle that compensation should be paid to immigrants who, having worked for a certain period in such countries, contract occupational diseases or incurable diseases, such as tuberculosis or ankylostomiasis, as well as diseases originating in places where the immigrants work.

c) *Protection of Emigrants.* — For the purpose of providing for suitable reception and protection of emigrants in their ports or at their frontiers, the States concerned should make mutual arrangements to establish the necessary services in common and to avail themselves eventually of the co-operation of relief institutions belonging to the countries of the emigrants.

# LABOUR CONDITIONS

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## Joint Industrial Councils in Great Britain

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IN view of the provisions which have recently been made in various countries to enable workers to have a larger share in the administration of the industries in which they work, or at least in the regulation of their working conditions, it is of interest to survey the progress that has been made during the last two or three years in Great Britain in the application of the principle of co-operation between employers and employed, as suggested by the Whitley Committee appointed by the Ministry of Reconstruction. The report of this Committee is of great interest and importance because, although it did not make any startling innovation, it regularised tendencies which were already in existence in British industry; and the application of these recommendations in the establishment of joint industrial councils has been on the whole very successful.

### THE WHITLEY COMMITTEE

The Whitley Committee was appointed in October 1916 by the Prime Minister and its terms of reference were as follows :

To make and consider suggestions for securing a permanent improvement in the relations between employers and workmen.

To recommend means for securing that industrial conditions affecting relations between employers and workmen shall be systematically reviewed by those concerned with a view to improving conditions in the future.

The Chairman of the Committee was the Right Honourable J. H. Whitley M. P., then Chairman of Committees, and now Speaker, of the House of Commons, and its members were well-known representatives of employers and workpeople and also of economic and general interests. The committee issued five reports <sup>(1)</sup>, all of which are of interest from the

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(1) *Interim Report on Joint Standing Industrial Councils* ; 8 March 1917 (Cd. 8606).

*Second Report on Joint Standing Industrial Councils* ; 18 October 1917 (Cd. 9002).

*Supplementary Report on Works Committees* ; 18 October 1917 (Cd. 9001).

*Report on Conciliation and Arbitration* ; 31 January 1918 (Cd. 9099).

*Final Report* ; 31 July 1918 (Cd. 9153).

standpoint of the improvement of industrial relations and the encouragement of industrial efficiency. The most important of these, however, in connection with the formation of joint industrial councils, is the first. In this report, the Committee recommends that, in order to secure a permanent improvement in the relations between employers and employed, joint standing industrial councils should be established in the various industries. The most important recommendations of the Committee were as follows:

We recommend that His Majesty's Government should propose without delay to the various associations of employers and employed the formation of joint standing industrial councils in the several industries, where they do not already exist, composed of representatives of employers and employed, regard being paid to the various sections of the industry and the various classes of labour engaged.

The appointment of a chairman or chairmen should, we think, be left to the council, who may decide that these should be:

- (1) a chairman for each side of the council;
- (2) a chairman and vice-chairman selected from the members of the council (one from each side of the council);
- (3) a chairman chosen by the council from independent persons outside the industry; or
- (4) a chairman nominated by such person or authority as the council may determine or, failing agreement, by the Government.

The council should meet at regular and frequent intervals.

The objects to which the consideration of the councils should be directed should be appropriate matters affecting the several industries and particularly the establishment of a closer co-operation between employers and employed. Questions connected with demobilisation will call for early attention.

In the well-organised industries, one of the first questions to be considered should be the establishment of local and works organisations to supplement and make more effective the work of the central bodies. It is not enough to secure co-operation at the centre between the national organisations; it is equally necessary to enlist the activity and support of employers and employed in the districts and in individual establishments. The National Industrial Council should not be regarded as complete in itself; what is needed is a triple organisation in the workshops, the districts, and nationally. Moreover, it is essential that the organisation at each of these three stages should proceed on a common principle, and that the greatest measure of common action between them should be secured.

With this end in view, we are of opinion that the following proposals should be laid before the National Industrial Councils:

(a) That district councils, representative of the trade unions and of the employers' association in the industry, should be created, or developed out of the existing machinery for negotiations in the various trades.

(b) That works committees, representative of the management and of the workers employed, should be instituted in particular works to act in close co-operation with the district and national machinery.

As it is of the highest importance that the scheme making provision for these committees should be such as to secure the support of the trade unions and employers' associations concerned, its design should be a matter for agreement between these organisations.

Among the questions with which it is suggested that the national councils should deal or allocate to district councils or works committees, the following may be selected for special mention:

(i) The better utilisation of the practical knowledge and experience of the workpeople.

(ii) Means for securing to the workpeople a greater share in, and responsibility for, the determination and observance of the conditions under which their work is carried on.

(iii) The settlement of the general principles governing the conditions of employment, including the methods of fixing, paying, and readjusting wages, having regard to the need for securing to the workpeople a share in the increased prosperity of the industry.

(iv) The establishment of regular methods of negotiation for issues arising between employers and workpeople, with a view both to the prevention of differences, and to their better adjustment when they appear.

(v) Means of ensuring to the workpeople the greatest possible security of earnings and employment, without undue restriction upon change of occupation or employer.

(vi) Methods of fixing and adjusting earnings, piece-work prices, etc., and of dealing with the many difficulties which arise with regard to the method and amount of payment, apart from the fixing of general standard rates, which are already covered by paragraph (iii).

(vii) Technical education and training.

(viii) Industrial research and the full utilisation of its results.

(ix) The provision of facilities for the full consideration and utilisation of inventions and improvements designed by workpeople, and for the adequate safeguarding of the rights of the designers of such improvements.

(x) Improvements of processes, machinery, and organisation, and appropriate questions relating to management and the examination of industrial experiments, with special reference to co-operation in carrying new ideas into effect and full consideration of the workpeople's point of view in relation to them.

(xi) Proposed legislation affecting the industry.

It may be desirable to state here our considered opinion that an essential condition of securing a permanent improvement in the relations between employers and employed is that there should be adequate organisation on the part of both employers and workpeople. The proposals outlined for joint co-operation throughout the several industries depend for their ultimate success upon there being such organisation on both sides; and such organisation is necessary also to provide means whereby the arrangements and agreements made for the industry may be effectively carried out.

The schemes recommended in this report are intended not merely for the treatment of industrial problems when they have become acute, but also, and more especially, to prevent their becoming acute. We believe that regular meetings to discuss industrial questions, apart from and prior to any differences with regard to them that may have begun to cause friction, will materially reduce the number of occasions on which, in the view of either employers or employed, it is necessary to contemplate recourse to a stoppage of work.

Special attention may be drawn to certain points in these recommendations. In the first place, emphasis was laid upon the fact that these councils should be standing councils, that is to say, they would be permanent and would deal generally with industrial relations. They would not merely, like provisional existing conciliation boards, function in order to secure the solution of a difficulty that had already arisen. It would be one of their chief functions to prevent disputes arising. Their machinery would thus be constituted to enable them to deal with the normal relations between employers and employed and by smoothing away possible misunderstandings lead to closer co-operation between them.

Further, special attention was drawn by the Committee to the necessity of making provision that the councils should

be of such a nature as to secure the support of the trade unions and employers' associations concerned. The Committee was at special pains to avoid any possibility of competition or overlapping between trade unions or employers' associations and the joint industrial councils. It followed from this that the Committee recommended that, as far as possible, industrial organisation should be developed, both on the side of the employers and on the side of the workers. In order that the councils might work smoothly, it was of importance that no disputes should arise on the question of the representation of the workers and the employers on them, and clearly the better organised the industries were, both on the employers' and on the workers' sides, the less likelihood would there be of such disputes.

In the second report the Committee made their scheme in certain respects more explicit. They pointed out that for convenience the industries of the country might be divided into the following three groups:

*Group A.* Consisting of industries in which organisation on the part of employers and employed is sufficiently developed to render their respective associations representative of the great majority of those engaged in the industry. These are the industries which we had in mind in our first Interim Report.

*Group B.* Comprising those industries in which, either as regards employers or employed, or both, the degree of organisation, though considerable, is less marked than in Group A.

*Group C.* Consisting of industries in which organisation is so imperfect, either as regards employers or employed, or both, that no associations can be said adequately to represent those engaged in the industry.

The Committee emphasised the fact that the first report applied only to the first class of industries. Only in industries in which organisation had reached a certain level did the Committee consider it possible for national or district joint industrial councils to be established. The detailed proposals of the Committee on this matter were as follows:

a) In the more highly organised industries (Group A), we propose a triple organisation of national, district, and workshop bodies as outlined in our first report.

b) In industries where there are representative associations of employers and employed, which, however, do not possess the authority of those in Group A industries, we propose that the triple organisations should be modified by attaching to each national industrial council one, or at most two, representatives of the Ministry of Labour to act in an advisory capacity.

c) In industries in both Groups A and B, we propose that unorganised areas or branches of an industry should be provided, on the application of the industrial council and with the approval of the Ministry of Labour, with trade boards for such areas or branches, the trade boards being linked with the industrial council.

d) In industries having no adequate organisation of employers or employed, we recommend that trade boards should be continued or established, and that these should, with the approval of the Ministry of Labour, be enabled to formulate a scheme for an industrial council,

which might include in an advisory capacity the "appointed members" (2) of the trade boards.

In the third report the Committee dealt specially with the question of works committees. In both the former reports, reference had been made to the establishment of these committees as a regular part of the scheme of organisation suggested to secure improved relations between employers and employed. In the third report, the Committee expressed the opinion that the complete success of works committees necessarily depended largely upon the degree of the organisation of the trade and upon the extent to which committees could be linked, by the other organisations that they had in mind, with the remainder of the general scheme. The Committee proposed that works committees should have regular meetings at fixed times, and that they should always keep in the forefront an idea of constructive co-operation in the improvement of the industries to which they belonged. Works committees, they considered, would fail in their main purpose if they existed only to smooth over grievances. The Committee expressed the view that the success of the works committees would be very seriously interfered with if the idea existed that such committees were likely to be used in opposition to trade unionism, and they pointed out that in an industry where the workers were unorganised there was a danger that works committees might be so used, or might be thought to be so used, in opposition to trade unionism. The Committee also emphasised the fact that they regarded successful works committees as the broad base of the industrial structure which they recommended and as a means of enlisting the interest of the workers in the success of their own industry.

#### FORMATION OF JOINT INDUSTRIAL COUNCILS

As the joint industrial councils recommended in these reports were not official bodies and as no legal measures were provided to ensure their establishment, their formation was left to the initiative of the organisations in the industries themselves. At the same time, the newly formed Ministry of Labour was charged with the duty of encouraging these councils as far as possible. The Ministry of Labour therefore addressed a circular letter in July 1917 to the principal employers' associations and trade unions, asking their advice on the proposals made in the Whitley Report. Replies were received from a large number of employers' organisations and trade unions favouring the adoption of these proposals, and the War Cabinet decided to adopt the Report and to give effect to the recommendations.

On 20 October 1917 the Ministry of Labour addressed a further letter to employers' associations and trade unions, in

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(2) See Note (3) on p. 117, paragraph (ii).

which an endeavour was made to remove certain misapprehensions about the Committee's recommendations.

In the first place, in answer to the argument that the proposal to set up industrial councils showed an intention to introduce an element of state interference in industry, the Ministry pointed out that this was not the case. The formation and constitution of the councils must be principally the work of the industries themselves; they should be independent bodies electing their own officers and free to determine their functions and procedure with reference to the peculiar needs of each trade. They would be autonomous and so, in effect, make possible a larger degree of self-government in industry than existed previously.

In the second place, the Ministry drew special attention to the fear that had been expressed that the general constitution which was suggested by the Committee would be applied without modification to all industries. The Ministry declared this to be entirely contrary to the intentions of the Government. Each industry would be free to adapt the proposals made in the report as might seem most suitable to its ends. No rigid scheme could be applied to all cases. Further, the machinery already in existence in certain industries might be altered and adapted to allow of its being used with a view to the formation of industrial councils.

In the third place, the Ministry repeated what had already been made clear in the reports of the Committee, namely, that there was no suggestion that the council should in any way override the functions of already existing associations of employers and workers. On the contrary, representation on the industrial councils was intended to be on the basis of existing employers' and workers' organisations.

The Ministry of Labour further stated that the Government wished it to be understood that the councils would be recognised as official standing consultative committees to the Government on all future questions relating to the industries which they represented, and that they would be the normal channel through which the opinions and the experience of an industry would be sought on all questions with which that industry was concerned; the industrial councils were to play a definite part in the economic life of the country.

The second report of the Whitley Committee was not adopted as a whole by the Government. A joint memorandum on it was issued by the Ministers of Reconstruction and Labour, in which they drew a clear distinction between the functions of joint industrial councils and trade boards. In the end, it was decided that in the case of well-organised industries (Group A), industrial councils should be encouraged. In the case of industries falling into Group B, in which the degree of organisation was considerably less marked than in Group A, it was decided to encourage the establishment of what were known as interim industrial reconstruction committees. In



the case of industries in Group C, those industries in which organisation whether of employers or employed or both was so imperfect that no association could be said adequately to represent those engaged in them, it was decided to extend the provisions of the Trade Boards Act and to develop trade boards <sup>(3)</sup>.

### FUNCTIONS OF THE COUNCILS

As was expressly foreseen in the report of the Whitley Committee and in all that was done by the Ministry of Labour to encourage the application of the Report and the formation of industrial councils, the functions of the councils actually established and even their constitutions differ very considerably. It was essential for the success of the joint industrial council scheme that great elasticity should exist, and that no hard and fast rule should be laid down to bind the councils. The interests of the various industries differ greatly, and the functions which they decided that their councils would have to perform and the constitution which they decided to give them naturally varied with the conditions of the industry. In spite of this, however, if the constitutions and actual work of the councils which have actually been established are

(3) It may be useful to indicate one or two of the chief respects in which joint industrial councils differ from trade boards.

(i) In the first place, a joint industrial council is voluntary in character and can be brought into existence only with the agreement of the organisations of employers and workers in a particular industry. The decisions of a joint industrial council have no legal force. Rates of wages, hours of labour, and other matters decided by an industrial council have the force simply of collective agreements, and they are only in this sense binding upon the organisations represented. A trade board is a statutory body established by the Minister of Labour and constituted in accordance with regulations made by him in pursuance of the Trade Boards Acts 1909 and 1918. When a minimum rate of wages fixed by a trade board has been confirmed by the Minister of Labour, this rate is enforceable by criminal proceeding, and inspectors are appointed to secure its observance. These minimum rates become part of the law of the land, and they are enforced in the same manner as the provisions of the Factory Acts.

(ii) A joint industrial council is composed exclusively of persons appointed by the employers' associations and trade unions concerned. No outside person is allowed to be present, except on the invitation of the joint industrial council itself. Representatives of employers and workers on trade boards are, owing to the comparative lack of organisation in the trades to which the Acts apply, usually nominated by the Minister of Labour. The employers' associations and trade unions in the several trades are invited to submit the names of candidates for the Minister's consideration and full weight is attached to the recommendation, but, where trade organisations do not fully represent all sections of the trade, it is necessary for the Minister to use his discretion in making nominations. Further, every trade board includes, in addition to the representative members, a small number of what are known as "appointed members", one of whom is appointed by the Minister of Labour to act as chairman and one as deputy-chairman of the board. The "appointed members" are unconnected with the trade and they are nominated by the Minister as impartial persons.

compared, it will be found that there are certain general functions which are common to a large number of them <sup>(4)</sup>.

### *Joint Industrial Councils*

The main functions of joint industrial councils are :

- (1) To secure the largest possible measure of joint action between employers and workpeople for the development of the industry as a part of national life and for the improvement of the conditions of all engaged in that industry.
- (2) Regular consideration of wages, hours, and working conditions in the industry as a whole.
- (3) The consideration of measures for regularising production and employment.
- (4) The consideration of the existing machinery for the settlement of differences between different parties and sections in the industry, and the establishment of machinery for this purpose, where it does not already exist, with the object of securing the speedy settlement of difficulties.
- (5) The consideration of measures for securing the inclusion of all employers and workpeople in their respective associations.
- (6) The collection of statistics and information on matters appertaining to the industry.
- (7) The encouragement of the study of processes and design and of research, with a view to perfecting the products of the industry.
- (8) The provision of facilities for the full consideration and utilisation of inventions and any improvement in machinery or method, and for the adequate safeguarding of the rights of the designers of such improvements, and to secure that such improvements in method or invention shall give to each party an equitable share of the benefits financially or otherwise arising therefrom.
- (9) Enquiries into special problems of the industry, including the comparative study of the organisation and methods of the industry in this and other countries, and, where desirable, the publication of reports. The arrangement of lectures and the holding of conferences on subjects of general interest to the industry.
- (10) The improvement of the health conditions obtaining in the industry, and the provision of special treatment, where necessary, for workers in the industry.
- (11) The supervision of entry into, and training for, the industry, and co-operation with the educational authorities in arranging education in all its branches for the industry.
- (12) The issue to the press of authoritative statements upon matters affecting the industry of general interest to the community.

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(iii) A joint industrial council is able, within very wide limits, to determine its own functions, machinery, and methods of working. In almost all cases these functions cover a wide range and are concerned with many matters other than wages. The primary function of a trade board is the determination of minimum rates of wages.

(iv) A joint industrial council does not necessarily cover the whole industry. In every industry there is usually a fringe, the employers and workers of which are unorganised. Agreements on rates of wages or hours of labour or other matters reached by the council do not necessarily apply to this fringe. The trade board covers the whole of the trade for which it is established and Orders made under the Trade Boards Acts apply statutorily to all firms engaged in a trade.

(v) Joint industrial councils are self-supporting and receive no monetary assistance from the Government. The expenses of a trade board, in so far as they are authorised by the Minister of Labour and by the Treasury, are defrayed by the Government.

(4) BRITISH MINISTRY OF LABOUR: *Industrial Reports*, No. 4, pp. 3-7.

(13) Representation of the needs and opinions of the industry to the Government, government Departments, and other authorities.

(14) The consideration of any other matters that may be referred to it by the Government or any government Department.

(15) The consideration of the proposals for district councils and works committees put forward in the Whitley Report, having regard in each case to any such organisations as may already be in existence.

(16) Co-operation with the joint industrial councils for other industries to deal with problems of common interest.

### *District Councils*

The main functions of district councils are:

(1) To consider any matters that may be referred to them by the National Joint Industrial Council, and to take executive action within their district in connection with decisions arrived at and matters deputed to them by it.

(2) To make recommendations to the National Joint Industrial Council.

(3) To consider any matters of interest to their district, including matters referred to them by works committees, and to take executive action with regard to matters that affect only their particular district, subject to the right of the National Council to veto any such action if it be found to involve the interests of other districts.

(4) Co-operation with the district councils for other industries to deal with problems of common interest.

(5) Where no adequate machinery exists for the settlement of differences between different parties and sections of the industry, to consider any such differences as cannot be settled within an individual factory or workshop, and to refer to the National Council any such matters upon which the district council fails to come to a decision.

### *Works Committees*

The functions of Works Committees are stated below, but almost every industry has particular rules or customs which arise from particular conditions; the list of functions given does not include the special questions which arise in some industries, but only those common to a large number of works committees.

(1) The issue and revision of works rules.

(2) The distribution of working hours; breaks; time recording; etc.

(3) The method of payment of wages (time, form of pay ticket, etc.); explanation of methods of payment; the adjustment of piece-prices, subject to district or national agreements; records of piece-prices; deductions; etc.

(4) The settlement of grievances.

(5) Holiday arrangements.

(6) Questions of physical welfare (provision of meals, drinking water, lavatories and washing accommodation, cloakrooms, ventilation, heating, lighting, and sanitation; accidents, safety appliances, first-aid, ambulance, etc.).

(7) Questions of discipline and conduct as between management and workpeople (malingering; bullying; time keeping; publicity in regard to rules; supervision of notice boards; etc.).

(8) Terms of engagement of workpeople.

(9) The training of apprentices and young persons.

(10) Technical library; lectures on the technical and social aspects of the industry.

(11) Suggestions of improvements in method and organisation of work; the testing of suggestions.

- (12) Investigation of circumstances tending to reduce efficiency or in any way to interfere with the satisfactory working of the factory.
- (13) Collections (for clubs, charities, etc.).
- (14) Entertainments and sports.

### THE WORKING OF THE COUNCILS

The number of joint industrial councils established in accordance with the recommendations of the Whitley Committee is now 70. Of these 59 are in active existence and the remaining 11 for various reasons in suspension. In addition, 32 interim industrial reconstruction committees have been constituted. They are generally regarded as embryo councils; indeed, 11 of them have been reconstituted as councils. There are, moreover, 93 other joint bodies formed on Whitley lines. At a rough estimate, the total number of workers covered by the joint bodies indicated is not less than three and a half million <sup>(5)</sup>.

In a number of large industries joint industrial councils have not been set up. This is the case, for example, in the iron and steel industry, in mining, and in the cotton textile industry. In all these industries the employers and workers were peculiarly well organised prior to the establishment of any councils. In each of them there was a long tradition of collective bargaining. These industries, therefore, did not think it necessary or desirable to organise the relationship that already existed between employers and workers on the system established for the joint industrial councils.

### *Wages and Hours of Labour*

The councils have been mainly concerned with negotiations on wages, hours, and conditions of labour generally, including the question of the granting of holidays with pay. The period during which the councils have been in operation has been a very difficult one from the standpoint of wage negotiation. During the war wage questions were susceptible of adjustment and determination with considerable ease, because questions of principle were not, in general, involved. Both the employers and the workers were content to accept the wage standards of 1914 as a basis on which modifications could be made in order to meet the conditions which arose during the war. The principles on which wages should be based were, at that time, in general agreed, or, at any rate, disagreement on them was reserved. Workers and employers contented themselves with applying agreed principles.

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(5) Lists of the joint industrial councils, interim industrial reconstruction committees, and other joint bodies were given in the International Labour Office *Daily Intelligence*, Vol. 11, No. 54, 17 June 1921, p. 665.

Increases in wages took place in order to meet the increased cost of living, but the increase or bonus which was given was based on the standards already existing and these standards were not explicitly questioned. After the war, however,—and this is the period during which the joint industrial councils have in the main been at work—questions of principle began to be raised. The workers were no longer content to proceed merely empirically on the standards of 1914. They raised questions of principle. They demanded that consideration should be given to such problems as the real meaning of a “wage”, whether it should be merely sufficient to supply the ordinary needs of existence, or whether it should be determined by the value of the work done and, if so, how the value of the work done was to be estimated.

A further problem became prominent immediately after the war, the problem of the consolidation and standardisation of wages. The large number of increases and bonuses which had been given during the war resulted in the establishment of very complicated wage rates, and in most industries endeavours were made to secure that all increases and bonuses should be consolidated into some new standard basic rate.

It cannot be said that the joint industrial councils have advanced very far towards the solution of the theoretical problem of the basis of wages. For the most part they have been content to proceed along the traditional paths of collective bargaining. In this sphere they have undoubtedly been extremely successful. On practically every joint industrial council negotiations have taken place with regard to wages, and in most cases agreements have been reached. Some idea of the amount of work which was done on this matter on joint industrial councils may be gained from the fact that in the five months between December 1919 and 31 April 1920 no fewer than 46 national agreements with regard to wages were reached by national joint industrial councils.

In the early days of their existence, the criticism was frequently brought against the councils that during a period when wages were rising they would work satisfactorily, but that when wages began to fall they would not succeed in harmonising the interests of employers and workers. This criticism has not been borne out by events. Perhaps the greatest achievement of the councils has been their work in smoothing out the difficulties which have arisen during the period of industrial depression. In recent months most of the councils have had to consider the problem of wage reduction, and the harmonious negotiations which have taken place on these councils have led to the signing of many agreements providing for reductions in wages. It is safe to say that, if these councils with their provision for regular, amicable discussion had not been in existence, industrial dislocation owing to strikes and lock-outs would have been extremely serious.

*Education and Apprenticeship*

The question of education and apprenticeship has been considered by several councils. Perhaps the most interesting schemes are those which have been proposed by the council in the building trades.

As early as October 1918 the Building Trades Council appointed an Education and Apprenticeship Committee of twenty members, to consider the question of education as it affected the industry and as it was affected by the Education Act of 1918. The report issued by this committee in 1919, and adopted unanimously by the council, is of considerable interest generally, as well as to the industry itself. The report advocates a thorough grounding in the elementary schools in reading, writing, and arithmetic, as the basis of further training, from the age of twelve onwards, at a centralised school for more advanced instruction. At the age of fourteen a boy should be transferred to a technical, commercial, or secondary school, according to whether he is intended for a trade, commercial, or a more or less scholastic career. Facilities for passing on to the universities should be provided.

The committee lays special stress on physical training at all stages of school life, and on the need for improvement in the methods of teaching art. It would have the leaving age raised to sixteen years with optional leaving at fifteen, state aid in the form of scholarships and bursaries being given; and it recommends that curricula be drawn up in consultation with representatives of joint bodies drawn from employers' and operatives' organisations.

As regards the transfer from school life to industry, and, more particularly, to the building industry, the committee is in favour of the establishment of juvenile advisory committees at every juvenile employment exchange throughout the country; and it recommends, further, that associations of employers and workpeople in the building industry should be directly represented on these committees, and that each juvenile advisory committee should have a building trades apprenticeship sub-committee, with direct representation of employers and operatives from each craft in the industry. The functions of this sub-committee would be advisory, in the sense that it would assist youths leaving school in the choice of a craft, and that it would be in touch with the local education authority; executive, in the sense that it would select suitable youths to become indentured apprentices to suitable employers; and administrative, in the sense that it would serve as a medium between employers and apprentices. It would also act as a welfare committee, and its chairman is proposed as a fourth party to indentures. Great efforts have been made by the Education Committee to secure the general application of this scheme.

A large number of educational and apprenticeship schemes are at present under consideration by various joint industrial councils.

### *Safety and Welfare Work*

Committees of the Boot and Shoe, Silk, Wire Drawing, Printing, and Quarrying Councils have worked or are working in conjunction with the Home Office on safety and welfare schemes. The Boot and Shoe Council has adopted the recommendations of its sub-committee on lighting, medical examinations, cleanliness, ventilation, washing accommodation, first-aid equipment, and infection from consumptive workers. Comprehensive safety arrangements, to be observed in the construction, alteration, repair, or demolition of buildings in England, have been drawn up by the Building Council's Safety and Welfare Committee, which has also investigated Scottish building operations with the same purpose. A schedule of working conditions drafted by the district council for Lancashire and Cheshire has been accepted by the Electricity Supply Council. The Research Committee of the Pottery Council has adopted certain recommendations made by the Manufacturers' Association in regard to meals, drinking water, protective clothing, first-aid, seats in workrooms, washing facilities, and clothing accommodation. The Process Engraving Council set up on 1 July 1920 a committee to deal with health questions.

### *Workmens' Compensation*

On 20 November 1919 the Home Office forwarded to all joint industrial councils a communication to the effect that a Workmen's Compensation Committee had been appointed "to enquire into the working of the present system of payment of compensation to workmen for injuries sustained in the course of employment, and to consider and report whether it would be desirable to establish a system of accident assurance under the control or supervision of the state; and to report further what alterations of the law will be required to remedy defects which experience has disclosed or to give effect to their recommendations".

This committee had decided to deal first with the two following questions, on which councils were invited to submit written statements embodying their views :

- (a) The desirability or otherwise of establishing a system of accident insurance under the control or supervision of the state, and
- (b) the amount and form of the compensation or benefit which should be provided under the present system as established by the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1906 or under any new or modified system which they may decide to recommend.

In response to the Home Office communication, reports have been presented by the Building, Match Manufacturing,

Rubber, and Spelter Councils. The question has also been considered by the Gas, Pottery, and Quarrying Councils, which decided that each side should place its views separately before the Home Office Committee, and by the Flour Milling, Printing, Tin Mining, Scottish Baking, and Wire Manufacturing Councils.

### *Unemployment*

On 14 January 1920 a letter was addressed by the Ministry of Labour to all joint industrial councils, transmitting copies of the Unemployment Insurance Bill and of the summary of its proposals which had been drawn up, and stating, further, that, should the councils wish to discuss the Bill in detail, an officer of the Ministry would be instructed to attend for the purpose of explaining the proposals of the Bill. Several councils availed themselves of this offer.

Trade schemes under the Unemployment Insurance Act have been prepared by several councils.

In this connection it may be noted that the Minister of Labour circulated a letter to all joint industrial councils and interim reconstruction committees on the subject of 'short time' as a means of spreading the available amount of employment. Up to the end of February 1921, 27 industrial councils and reconstruction committees (apart from government industrial councils) had considered the Minister's letter. In the case of seven of these (namely, the councils or committees for Flour Milling, Cocoa and Confectionery, Envelopes and Manufacturing Stationery, Hosiery, Glove Making, Furniture Removing, and Needles and Fishhooks), it was reported that short time working was already in operation where necessary, and was the customary method of dealing with short employment, and that, therefore, no further action is necessary. In the case of twelve of the councils or committees (Local Authorities' Non-Trading Services (Scottish Joint Council), Lead, Gas, Insurance Committees, Matches, Glass, Printing, Electrical Cable Making, Surgical Instruments, and three others), it was decided, for various reasons, to take no action in respect of the short time proposals. The remaining eight councils or committees adopted resolutions in favour of the principle of the suggestion, or postponed decision, pending further investigation and consideration. These were the councils or committees in the following industries: Optical Instruments, Lock, Latch and Key, Cooperage, Clay, China Clay, Wrought Hollow Ware, Packing of Textiles for Export, and Heating and Domestic Engineering.

### *Works Committees*

Works committees in connection with joint industrial councils have recently greatly increased and now number



about 1,000. Works committees or their equivalent have been set up in the undermentioned industries among others :

Asbestos, Bobbin and Shuttle Making, Cement, China Clay, Elastic, Web, Flour Milling, Gold, Silver, Horological and Allied Trades, Government Industrial Establishments (Admiralty, Office of Works), Matches, Music Trades, Needles and Fishhooks, Optical Instruments, Patent Fuel, Plate and Sheet, Pottery, Printing, Quarrying, Rubber, Silk, Spelter, Tin Mining, Wallpaper, Wire Manufacturing.

Many works committees have shown themselves capable of valuable constructive work, in addition to such activities as the removal of grievances, the improvement and supervision of working conditions, and the management of canteens, lavatories, etc. Typical were an investigation into foundry costs and the presentation of a memorandum on works production, described by the works manager as the best memorandum he had ever seen. Another enquiry was conducted into the system of issuing tools in a certain works, the results of which were some recommendations which the management adopted. Again, where a works chanced to be on the border line between two urban areas, and the authorities of both towns had refused, in spite of repeated applications, to furnish an adequate supply of fresh water, the matter was referred to the works committee and satisfactorily settled. A works committee negotiated with the railway and tramway authorities and obtained improved travelling facilities to and from the works. In other firms works committees arranged for an output chart to be put up at each machine, showing the rise and fall of the weekly output for the information of the workers at the machine, or appointed a fatigue research committee to investigate fatigue problems in the industry, or administered a system of fines for bad time-keeping, using the funds collected for charitable purposes. One firm informs its committee of the proposed appointment of a foreman, and asks for comments, or other nominations, which are discussed and one of which may be adopted, though the firm retains the right of appointment. Finally, a firm where there was a works committee, on acquiring a works in another town where there was also a committee, arranged for each committee to visit and report on the other works; both committees made useful suggestions, which were adopted by the firm.

In this account many important features of the work of the councils have been passed over in silence, and no reference has been made to the difficulties which have arisen from time to time. One difficulty, however, on which there has been recent discussion, should be mentioned. As joint industrial councils are not statutory bodies, there is no legal means of enforcing their decisions. Demands have, however, been made for statutory powers, and they are

increasing. The movement was not strong at the outset. This was natural in view of the tradition of collective bargaining in British industry. The parties concerned in agreements about wages and working conditions do not look to the state for any support in enforcing them. The organisations both of workers and employers consider that they are strong enough to enforce any agreements that their representatives make and there is a strong feeling, both on the part of the employers and the workers, that, in so far as they look to the state for the security of their agreements, their organisations are weakened.

In recent months, however, the movement for the granting of statutory powers has grown considerably, and at a conference of joint industrial councils and interim industrial reconstruction committees, held in London on 18 March, the following resolution was adopted.

That this conference of industrial councils and reconstruction committees is strongly of the opinion that legislation should at once be commenced by the Government to give the necessary power to the Ministry of Labour to make binding upon the whole of any industry any wages awards or agreements or arrangements as to working hours and conditions made by joint industrial councils and interim industrial reconstruction committees, if so requested by the council or committee concerned.

At a further meeting of the Association of Joint Industrial Councils and Interim Industrial Reconstruction Committees held on 20 September, the question was raised of making agreements negotiated by joint industrial councils legally binding on the trade concerned. It was reported that twenty-five councils were in favour of amended legislation to this end and two against, and it was decided to communicate further with those councils who had not declared their policy, and to send a deputation to the Minister of Labour, pressing him to take steps to meet their request.



## Hours and Earnings in Coal Mining in the United States

**I**N 1919 and 1920 the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor carried out a comprehensive investigation of hours, wage rates, and earnings in both the anthracite and the bituminous coal mining industry in that country (1). The scale on which the enquiry was conducted was commensurate with the importance of the coal industry in the United States. The number of persons employed and the quantity and value of the product in 1918 are shown below.

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF COAL MINING IN THE UNITED STATES  
FOR 1918

	Number of employees	Average num- ber of days mines were in operation	Number of net tons produced	Value at mines
Anthracite coal	147,121	293	98,826,084	\$ 336,480,347
Bituminous coal	615,305	249	579,385,820	1,491,809,940

The enquiry extended to eighteen different States, all the important coal-producing States of the country. Of these States Pennsylvania produced in 1918 nearly one-third of the total output of bituminous coal, and the smallest amount produced by any of the other seventeen States was four million tons, whereas the fourteen coal-producing States not covered by the Report produced altogether only fifteen million tons. The anthracite mines are all situated in Pennsylvania, a fact which simplified the enquiry in the anthracite industry and enabled figures to be obtained for two years, 1919 and 1920, whereas figures for bituminous mines relate only to 1919.

The Report falls into two main divisions. The first part summarises and explains in tables and in text the basic facts discovered as to wages, hours, days worked, and earnings. The larger part consists of detailed or "general" tables, which give, by occupation, for every State the average hours worked, the average earnings, and the correlations of hours to earnings in both anthracite and bituminous mining. For more serious study the comprehensive "general" tables are, of course, indispensable. It should be pointed out that these tables not only show the total or average figure for every State and occupation separately, but also classify the results in groups of appropriate size so as to show the distribution of hours and of earnings, a form of analysis obviously supplying much information which averages conceal.

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(1) UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS: *Hours and Earnings in Anthracite and Bituminous Coal Mining; Anthracite — 1919 and 1920; Bituminous — 1919*. Wasington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 112 pp.

## SOURCE AND NATURE OF THE MATERIAL

The methods used in the investigation are worthy of notice. Figures were obtained by the representatives of the Bureau from the records of typical mines—22 anthracite and 228 bituminous. Of the latter 27 were in operation less than half of full time during the period for which information was obtained, and the figures relating to them are therefore not included in the tables, because their production was so far below normal that the figures were not considered to be typical. All employees for whom figures are presented are males. The material was taken from a sample half-month pay-roll period, and was obtained from the pay-rolls of the companies by representatives of the Bureau. For employees who are paid on a tonnage basis it was necessary to make arrangements with the companies to keep a record of the hours on duty. This was done by noting the time when the employee entered and left the mine. Employees work at various parts of the mine, and at unequal distances from the entrance. It is estimated that it takes employees from fifteen minutes up to an hour in some instances to get from the entrance of the mine to their places of work. Consequently, all the figures relating to the hours of these employees represent the time in the mine.

It was realised that the most satisfactory method would have been to secure the data from all companies for the same pay-roll period. This was done for anthracite mines, which are all in one State, but was not practicable in the case of bituminous mines distributed over eighteen States. The pay-roll periods for anthracite mines are for the half-months ending 31 January 1919 and 31 March 1920. The half-months' pay-rolls for bituminous mines varied as to date, but were within the period beginning 1 January and 31 May 1919.

## HOURS

Information is given regarding both full time<sup>(2)</sup> hours and actual time worked. In the anthracite mines reported on, the average full time hours were, for inside (underground) workers, in the majority of occupations, 48 per week, and, with the exception of pumpmen, only varied from 48 to 51; the average for all inside (underground) workers is 48.4. For outside workers the full time hours varied from 48.0 to 55.7, the average being 49.4 in 1919 and 49.6 in 1920. The full time hours were 48 per week or 8 per day for 6 days for 98 per cent. of the inside workers in both years, and for 89 per cent. and 85 per cent. in 1919 and 1920 respectively of the outside workers. In bituminous mines the average full time hours for the inside occupations vary from 48.1 to 54.8, the general average being 48.5. In the case of outside occupations the average varies from 50.6 to 58.5, the general average being 51.3. The full time hours were 48 per week for 95 per cent. of the inside workers and 69 per cent. of the outside workers. Detailed particulars relating to various occupations are given in table II.

Table II also shows the average full time hours and the average hours actually worked per half-month. By comparing between these it will be seen that in the anthracite mines many classes of

(2) Full time hours are defined as "the regular hours during which the mines are open during the week".

inside workers and most classes of outside workers actually worked on an average more than full time hours. But for the total number of inside workers the average time actually worked was about 12 per cent. less than full time hours both in 1919 and 1920; for outside workers the time actually worked averaged about 5 per cent. more than full time hours. In bituminous mines the actual hours both of inside and outside workers are less than full time hours by 35 per cent. and 17 per cent. respectively.

TABLE II. AVERAGE HOURS AND EARNINGS IN A HALF-MONTH  
PAY-ROLL PERIOD BY OCCUPATIONS

*Anthracite (1919 and 1920)*

Occupation (?)	Year	Num-ber of mines	Num-ber of em-ploy-ees	Hours			Earnings		
				Aver. full-time hours per week	Aver. full-time hours in half-month (?)	Aver. hours actu-ally work-ed in half-month	Aver. earn-ings per hour (?)	Aver. earn-ings actu-ally re-ceived in half-month	Aver. full-time earn-ings in half-month (?)
<i>Inside (underground) work :</i>									
Blacksmiths	1919	13	30	48.0	112.0	124.7	\$ 0.590	\$ 73.56	\$ 66.26
	1920	8	20	48.0	112.3	123.7	0.578	71.44	64.85
Bratticemen	1919	17	116	48.0	112.0	111.9	0.561	62.80	62.83
	1920	14	111	48.0	112.2	121.3	0.569	62.97	63.79
Cagers	1919	22	234	48.4	112.2	126.9	0.518	65.78	58.24
	1920	16	197	48.6	113.4	130.5	0.511	66.75	57.89
Car runners	1919	17	342	48.0	112.1	109.9	0.506	55.62	56.85
	1920	15	233	48.0	112.1	116.1	0.504	58.53	56.58
Door tenders (boys)	1919	20	247	48.0	112.0	106.8	0.315	33.66	35.23
	1920	14	156	48.0	112.0	102.5	0.306	31.36	34.24
Drivers	1919	22	479	48.0	112.0	105.3	0.500	52.66	55.86
	1920	14	272	48.0	112.0	106.1	0.498	52.83	55.73
Engineers	1919	17	121	50.7	117.9	130.9	0.537	70.34	63.25
	1920	14	100	50.5	117.0	120.0	0.562	67.41	65.02
Labourers	1919	22	1,200	48.9	113.9	107.3	0.514	55.13	58.80
	1920	16	736	48.1	112.4	108.6	0.521	56.56	58.40
Labourers, company min-ers' (?)	1919	19	632	48.0	112.0	102.9	0.527	54.26	58.92
	1920	9	308	48.0	112.5	105.7	0.526	55.63	59.35
Labourers, consideration miners' (?)	1920	10	202	48.0	112.1	94.3	0.541	50.97	60.71
Labourers contract min-ers'	1919	21	1,855	48.0	112.0	78.7	0.635	49.99	71.57
	1920	14	1,191	48.0	112.0	82.1	0.679	55.77	76.00
Machinists	1919	11	67	51.4	119.8	113.1	0.568	64.29	67.80
	1920	9	19	48.0	112.1	145.9	0.584	85.18	65.46
Masons	1919	12	41	48.0	112.0	112.0	0.576	64.56	64.56
	1920	6	29	48.0	112.0	115.0	0.579	66.82	64.85
Miners, company	1919	19	656	48.0	112.0	94.1	0.582	54.79	65.12
	1920	11	367	48.0	112.8	97.9	0.576	56.42	64.90
Miners, consideration	1919	10	498	48.0	112.0	101.4	0.634	64.24	71.19
	1920	10	480	48.0	112.5	97.6	0.659	64.33	73.88
Miners, contract	1919	22	4,887	48.0	112.0	94.5	0.841	79.56	94.29
	1920	16	3,188	48.0	112.1	91.8	0.825	84.86	104.79
Motormen	1919	19	247	48.0	112.0	130.4	0.558	72.78	62.47
	1920	15	202	48.0	112.3	131.7	0.554	73.02	62.20
Motor barkemen	1919	18	190	48.0	112.0	119.3	0.502	59.84	56.20
	1920	14	178	48.0	112.2	116.1	0.497	57.69	55.74
Pumpmen	1919	21	104	78.5	179.6	174.2	0.404	70.42	73.09
	1920	15	99	74.3	169.9	169.0	0.417	70.46	70.61
Timermen	1919	15	136	48.0	112.0	99.8	0.591	58.97	68.69
	1920	13	97	48.0	112.0	106.7	0.578	61.66	64.67
Trackmen	1919	22	163	48.0	112.0	114.5	0.572	65.44	63.89
	1920	13	123	48.0	112.2	120.8	0.578	69.85	64.80
Total	1919	22	12,245	48.4	112.9	98.7	0.661	65.18	75.59
	1920	16	8,308	48.4	113.0	99.4	0.690	68.56	79.95

TABLE II (cont.) Anthracite (1919 and 1920)

Occupation (1)	Year	Number of mines	Number of employees	Hours			Earnings			
				Aver. full-time hours per week	Aver. full-time hours in half-month (2)	Aver. hours actually worked in half-month	Aver. earnings per hour (2)	Aver. earnings actually received in half-month	Aver. full-time earnings in half-month (2)	
<i>Outside (surface) work:</i>										
Ashmen	1919	19	72	53.5	123.8	129.0	0.441	56.82	54.47	
	1920	15	53	55.7	127.7	126.0	0.449	56.62	57.61	
Blacksmiths	1919	22	60	48.0	112.0	127.0	0.567	71.96	64.02	
	1920	16	39	48.0	112.1	134.0	0.574	76.86	64.40	
Cagers	1919	22	119	48.6	113.3	132.4	0.452	60.65	51.81	
	1920	15	84	49.7	115.8	132.1	0.449	59.31	51.09	
Carpenters	1919	22	250	48.3	112.8	132.4	0.561	74.29	63.22	
	1920	16	163	48.0	112.4	136.1	0.548	74.64	61.45	
Car runners	1919	15	83	48.0	112.0	109.8	0.453	49.73	50.81	
	1920	10	46	48.0	112.4	114.1	0.450	51.32	50.57	
Dumpers	1919	19	88	48.0	112.0	111.1	0.449	49.83	50.27	
	1920	16	57	48.0	112.1	119.5	0.448	53.60	50.18	
Engineers	1919	22	248	52.1	120.8	140.0	0.527	73.80	63.00	
	1920	16	185	56.0	129.2	140.7	0.532	74.81	68.65	
Firemen	1919	22	314	55.7	127.3	128.6	0.502	64.62	63.98	
	1920	16	217	55.6	127.4	133.2	0.501	66.71	63.89	
Jig runners	1919	18	81	48.0	112.0	129.1	0.416	58.70	45.93	
	1920	12	54	48.0	112.4	123.4	0.426	52.59	47.72	
Labourers	1919	22	1,211	49.3	114.9	120.0	0.433	51.94	49.69	
	1920	16	718	48.5	113.4	118.5	0.432	51.94	49.61	
Loaders	1919	21	199	48.0	112.0	122.6	0.448	54.92	50.14	
	1920	16	142	48.0	112.2	119.2	0.449	53.51	50.33	
Machinists	1919	20	112	48.0	112.0	141.9	0.513	72.31	57.85	
	1920	14	117	48.4	113.5	150.3	0.509	76.58	57.73	
Oilers	1919	21	77	48.0	112.0	129.7	0.436	56.58	48.58	
	1920	15	42	48.0	112.0	114.9	0.440	50.60	49.12	
Platemen	1919	21	180	48.0	112.0	118.7	0.431	51.13	48.18	
	1920	14	112	48.0	112.3	124.1	0.429	53.27	47.52	
Repairmen	1919	10	113	48.0	112.0	123.5	0.485	59.90	54.31	
	1920	5	21	42.0	112.0	121.3	0.480	58.24	53.71	
Slaters (boys)	1919	21	580	48.0	112.0	99.9	0.300	29.95	33.41	
	1920	15	345	48.0	112.2	100.6	0.303	30.51	33.95	
Timber cutters	1919	19	115	48.0	112.0	130.3	0.452	58.91	50.67	
	1920	14	92	48.0	112.5	127.9	0.448	57.31	50.40	
Trackmen	1919	14	28	48.0	112.0	115.7	0.478	55.26	53.40	
	1920	8	26	48.0	112.5	133.0	0.455	60.43	51.10	
Total	1919	22	3,930	49.4	115.0	121.5	0.442	54.37	50.81	
	1920	16	2,513	49.6	115.6	123.2	0.453	55.81	51.70	
Grand total	1919	22	16,175	48.6	113.4	104.2	0.600	62.55	69.57	
	1920	16	10,821	48.7	113.6	104.9	0.625	65.60	73.39	
<i>Bituminous (1919)</i>										
<i>Inside (underground) work:</i>										
Brakemen	146	1,005	48.6	105.0	76.1	0.581	44.22	60.69		
Bratticemen and timbermen	163	932	48.3	103.6	84.9	0.610	51.78	62.97		
Cagers	90	220	48.3	100.2	82.6	0.626	51.72	63.20		
Drivers	165	2,372	48.1	102.3	73.1	0.609	44.55	62.16		
Labourers	164	2,319	48.5	103.9	74.9	0.586	43.86	60.17		
Loaders	128	13,345	48.5	104.7	65.3	0.774	50.51	81.24		
Miners, hand	143	11,379	48.1	102.5	60.0	0.785	47.12	80.83		
Miners, machine	120	1,721	48.4	104.3	73.2	0.926	67.75	98.45		
Motormen	154	894	48.7	105.3	86.5	0.619	53.51	65.00		
Pumpmen	117	344	54.8	118.0	104.1	0.586	61.01	68.35		
Trackmen	187	1,122	48.5	104.1	82.4	0.598	49.23	61.84		
Trappers (boys)	103	536	48.5	101.6	71.7	0.339	24.26	34.64		
Total		201	36,189	48.5	103.8	67.6	0.726	49.06	76.36	

TABLE II (cont.) *Bituminous (1919).*

Occupation	Num- ber of mines	Num- ber of em- ploy- ees	Hours			Earnings		
			Aver. full- time hours per week	Aver. full- time hours in half month	Aver. hours actu- ally work- ed in half- month	Aver. earn- ings per hour	Aver. earn- ings actu- ally re- ceived in half- month	Aver. full- time earn- ings in half- month
<i>Outside (surface) work :</i>						\$	\$	\$
Blacksmiths	187	376	50.8	109.0	100.6	0.621	62.47	67.54
Carpenters	110	260	50.6	110.1	96.5	0.585	56.43	64.10
Engineers	150	380	56.9	121.3	116.0	0.601	69.67	72.77
Firemen	122	443	58.5	124.6	112.2	0.537	60.26	66.88
Labourers	198	2,860	49.5	106.3	83.7	0.502	42.00	53.22
Total	201	4,319	51.3	110.0	91.7	0.534	48.96	58.24
Grand total	201	40,508	48.8	104.4	70.1	0.699	49.05	74.43

(1) The appendix of the Report contains definitions of the principal occupations; see p. 138 of this *Review*.

(2) The half-month was 13, 15, or 16 days including Sundays. In all cases the first half of a month was 15 days. The last half was 16 days for months of 31 days, 15 days for months of 30 days, and 13 days for February.

(3) The average earnings per hour were the result obtained by dividing the total of the actual earnings of employees in the occupation by the total of the actual hours worked in the half-month pay-roll period for which data were obtained.

(4) The average full time earnings in the half-month were the result obtained by adding the average earnings per hour of all employees in the occupation whose full time hours in the half-month are the same and multiplying the sum by their full-time hours; combining the products for the groups of employees in the occupations whose full-time hours are different and dividing the sum of the products by the total number of employees in the occupation. The full time hours in a half-month of 13 days comprising 11 week days of 8 hours each and 2 Sundays are 88; in a half-month of 14 days are 96; in one of 15 days are 104; and in one of 16 days are 112.

(5) Figures for 1919 include "labourers, consideration miners".

(6) Figures for 1919 include "labourers, company miners".

### WAGES AND EARNINGS

It will be observed that the above table also gives figures of wages and earnings. It shows the average wages and earnings for the whole country in the principal occupations in anthracite mines in 1919 and 1920, and in bituminous mines in 1919. In bituminous mines, as a rule, the three actual mining occupations, hand mining, machine mining, and loading, show higher average earnings per hour than all the other occupations. Employees in these occupations are, as a rule, paid on a tonnage basis, while employees in other occupations are paid hourly, daily, weekly, or monthly rates.

The table below shows that average earnings per hour were, as a rule, higher for employees of mines that were in operation less than one-half of full time in the pay-period taken than for employees of mines that were in operation one-half to full time. This is especially true of loaders, hand miners, and machine miners, who are paid on a tonnage basis, and seems to indicate that employees in these occupations speed up when mines are running short time, thereby earning more per hour than where mines are in operation full time; over 26,000, or approximately 65 per cent., of all bituminous employees covered in this report are included in these three occupations. Brakemen, cagers, labourers, pumpmen, and trappers are exceptions to the above rule; less than 4,500 employees, or approximately 11 per cent., of all bituminous employees are included in these four occupations.

TABLE III. COMPARISON OF AVERAGE HOURS AND EARNINGS  
FOR 201 BITUMINOUS MINES

Occupation	No. of mines operating—		No. of employees in mines operating—		Aver. hours worked in half-month pay-period in mines operating—		Aver. earnings in half-month pay period in mines operating—		Aver. earnings per hour in mines operating—	
	one-half to full time	less than half of full time	one-half to full time	less than half of full time	one-half to full time	less than half of full time	one-half to full time	less than half of full time	one-half to full time	less than half of full time
<i>Inside / underground / work :</i>							\$	\$	¢	\$
Brakemen	146	19	1,005	105	76.1	43.7	44.22	24.76	0.581	0.558
Bratticemen and timbermen	163	20	932	125	84.9	59.9	51.78	38.03	0.610	0.635
Cagers	90	18	220	47	82.6	47.4	51.72	29.38	0.626	0.619
Drivers	165	25	2,372	348	73.1	45.2	44.55	27.83	0.609	0.611
Labourers	164	25	2,319	323	74.9	42.0	48.86	24.62	0.586	0.583
Loaders	128	19	13,345	1,657	65.3	31.5	50.51	29.33	0.774	0.936
Miners, hand	143	16	11,379	1,459	60.0	34.2	47.12	27.91	0.785	0.816
Miners, machine	120	18	1,721	239	73.2	35.8	67.75	37.02	0.926	1.064
Motormen	154	21	894	100	86.5	48.4	53.51	30.08	0.619	0.628
Pumpmen	117	17	344	47	104.1	100.3	61.01	55.92	0.586	0.575
Trackmen	187	26	1,122	167	82.4	55.1	49.23	34.08	0.598	0.617
Trappers (boys)	103	17	536	85	71.5	34.8	24.26	11.64	0.339	0.336
Total	201	27	36,189	4,702	67.6	37.4	49.06	29.07	0.726	0.807
<i>Outside / surface / work :</i>										
Blacksmiths	187	26	376	39	100.6	70.9	62.47	46.16	0.621	0.646
Carpenters	110	11	260	20	96.5	87.5	56.43	55.36	0.585	0.631
Engineers	150	21	380	36	116.0	118.8	69.67	71.86	0.601	0.601
Firemen	122	18	443	50	112.2	113.7	60.26	63.20	0.537	0.556
Labourers	198	27	2,860	308	83.7	59.1	42.00	31.53	0.502	0.533
Total	201	27	4,319	453	91.7	73.2	48.96	40.54	0.534	0.555
Grand total	201	27	40,508	5,155	70.1	40.6	49.05	30.08	0.699	0.785

## COMPARISON OF EARNINGS BEFORE AND SINCE THE WAR

The following tables enable certain comparisons to be made between earnings before and since the war. The comparison is complete only as regards inside workers in the bituminous industry other than pick miners or hand miners.

Pick miners or hand miners who, with contract miners (the corresponding class of workers in the anthracite industry) together represent the most important occupation in the mines, are paid on the tonnage basis. As no information exists on hours and earnings prior to 1919, index numbers cannot be computed for these occupations for earlier years by the usual methods, i.e. on the basis of actual rates of earnings per hour. The only alternative is to show the percentage of change in gross tonnage rates. In the two following tables the 1902 rates are taken as the basis of comparison.

In anthracite mines actual gross tonnage rates differ from mine to mine, and even within a mine, but the percentage of increase in gross tonnage rates made from time to time has applied uniformly to the then existing rates. The following table shows the effect of the different awards, the resulting gross tonnage rate being given as a percentage of that existing in 1902 and first revised by the Anthracite Coal Commission in 1903. These index numbers,



therefore, are not based on net tonnage rates or on average rates of wages or earnings per hour. As deductions for helpers and for supplies have not changed in the same proportion, these figures cannot be assumed as representing the changes in net earnings.

TABLE IV. PERIOD OF AGREEMENT AND INDEX NUMBERS BASED ON GROSS-TONNAGE RATES OF CONTRACT MINERS

*Anthracite (1902=100)*

Year or period of agreement	Index numbers	Year or period of agreement	Index numbers
1902	100.00	May 1912 to 31 Mar. 1913	121.00
1 Apr. 1903 to 31 Mar. 1904	114.40	1 Apr. 1913 to 31 Mar. 1914	121.00
1 Apr. 1904 to 31 Mar. 1905	114.95	1 Apr. 1914 to 31 Mar. 1915	121.00
1 Apr. 1905 to 31 Mar. 1906	114.31	1 Apr. 1915 to 31 Mar. 1916	121.00
1 Apr. 1906 to 31 Mar. 1907	114.58	May 1916 to May 1917	129.47
1 Apr. 1907 to 31 Mar. 1908	114.22	May 1917 to Nov. 1917	142.42
1 Apr. 1908 to 31 Mar. 1909	114.40	Nov. 1917 to Nov. 1918	161.84
1 Apr. 1909 to 31 Mar. 1910	114.49	Nov. 1918 to Nov. 1919	181.25
1 Apr. 1910 to 31 Mar. 1911	114.40	Nov. 1919 to 31 Mar. 1920	181.25
1 Apr. 1911 to 31 May 1912	114.95	Apr. 1920	213.62

In bituminous mines the gross tonnage rates for "run of mine"<sup>(3)</sup> were obtained from agreements between coal operators (employers) and miners of the Hocking Valley district of Ohio for the years 1902 to 1918 from the award of the Fuel Administration for 1919, and from the award of the Bituminous Coal Commission for 1920. The Hocking Valley district is the basing district of Ohio, and is part of the central competitive field, consisting of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and western Pennsylvania.

TABLE V. PERIOD OF AGREEMENT, GROSS TONNAGE RATES, AND INDEX NUMBERS BASED ON GROSS-TONNAGE RATES OF PICK MINERS IN HOCKING VALLEY DISTRICT OF OHIO

*Bituminous (1902=100)*

Year or period of agreement	Gross-tonnage rate Hocking Valley district for run of mine	Index numbers	Year or period of agreement	Gross tonnage rate Hocking Valley district for run of mine	Index numbers
1 Apr. 1902 to 31 Mar. 1903	\$ 0.5200	100.00	1 Apr. 1912 to 31 Mar. 1913	\$ 0.6500	125.00
1 Apr. 1903 to 31 Mar. 1904	0.5850	112.50	1 Apr. 1913 to 15 July 1914	0.6500	125.00
1 Apr. 1904 to 31 Mar. 1905	0.5525	106.25	15 Jul. 1914 to 31 Mar. 1915	0.6760	130.00
1 Apr. 1905 to 31 Mar. 1906	0.5525	106.25	1 Apr. 1915 to 31 Mar. 1916	0.6760	130.00
1 Apr. 1906 to 31 Mar. 1907	0.5850	112.50	1 Apr. 1916 to 16 Apr. 1917	0.6764	130.08
1 Apr. 1907 to 31 Mar. 1908	0.5850	112.50	16 Apr. 1917 to 29 Oct. 1917	0.7764	149.31
1 Apr. 1908 to 31 Mar. 1909	0.5850	112.50	29 Oct. 1917 to 31 Mar. 1918	0.8764	168.54
1 Apr. 1909 to 31 Mar. 1910	0.5850	112.50	1 Apr. 1918 to Nov. 1919	0.8764	168.54
1 Apr. 1910 to 31 Mar. 1911	0.6175	118.75	Nov. 1919 to 31 Mar. 1920	0.9991	192.13
1 Apr. 1911 to 31 Mar. 1912	0.6175	118.75	April 1920	1.1164	214.69

(3) "Run of mine" means the coal as it comes from the mine, before sorting or screening.

The following table shows the increase of wages of various groups of inside workers in bituminous mines of the Hocking Valley District. Rates were obtained from a copy of the scale of rates for the Hocking Valley District of Ohio for 1913-1918, from the award of the Fuel Administration for 1919, and from the award of the Bituminous Coal Commission for 1920. The 1913 rate is taken as base.

TABLE VI. RATES AND INDEX NUMBERS, 1913 TO DATE,  
FOR INSIDE (UNDERGROUND) OCCUPATIONS BY YEAR OR  
PERIOD OF AGREEMENT

*Bituminous (1913 = 100)*

Period of agreement	Machine cutters and loaders <sup>(1)</sup>		Pick or hand miners		Cagers, drivers, machine and water haulers, motormen, timbermen, snappers, tracklayers, trip riders, and wiremen		Pipemen		Track-layers' helpers		Trappers (boys)	
	gross tonnage rate for run of mine (2)	index numbers (3)	gross tonnage rate for run of mine	index numbers	rate per day	index numbers	rate per day	index numbers	rate per day	index numbers	rate per day	index numbers
1 Apr. 1913 to 15 July 1914	\$ 0.4485	100.0	\$ 0.6500	100.0	\$ 2.84	100.0	\$ 2.78	100.0	\$ 2.62	100.0	\$ 1.32	100.0
15 July 1914 to 31 Mar. 1915	0.4700	104.8	0.6760	104.0	2.84	100.0	2.78	100.0	2.62	100.0	1.32	100.0
1 Apr. 1915 to 31 Mar. 1916	0.4700	104.8	0.6760	104.0	2.84	100.0	2.78	100.0	2.62	100.0	1.32	100.0
1 Apr. 1916 to 16 Apr. 1917	0.5000	111.5	0.6764	104.1	2.98	104.9	2.92	105.0	2.75	105.0	1.40	106.1
16 Apr. 1917 to 29 Oct. 1917	0.6000	133.8	0.7764	119.4	3.60	126.8	3.52	126.6	3.35	127.9	1.90	143.9
29 Oct. 1917 to 31 Mar. 1918	0.7000	156.1	0.8764	134.8	5.00	176.1	4.92	177.0	4.75	181.3	2.65	200.8
1 Apr. 1918 to Nov. 1919	0.7000	156.1	0.8764	134.8	5.00	176.1	4.92	177.0	4.75	181.3	2.65	200.8
Nov. 1919 to 31 Mar. 1920	0.7980	177.9	0.9991	153.7	5.70	200.7	5.61	201.8	5.42	206.9	3.02	228.8
1 Apr. 1920	0.9400	209.6	1.1164	171.8	6.00	211.3	5.92	213.0	5.75	219.5	3.18	240.9

(1) The gross tonnage rate for machine cutting has been combined with the gross tonnage rate for loading, thus making a gross tonnage rate for cutters and loaders combined. This is done because the gross tonnage rate for pick miners or hand miners covers both loading and mining of coal.

(2) Combined rate for cutting in rooms by Jeffrey style of machines and for loading in rooms and hand drilling.

(3) Index numbers for cutters and loaders, and for pick miners or hand miners have been computed from the gross tonnage rates here shown with the 1913 rate the base, or 100; they are not based on net tonnage rates or on average rates or earnings per hour. Index numbers for the other three groups are based on actual rates of wages per day.

#### DAYS OF OPERATION IN ONE YEAR

The following table shows the average number of days in which mines in the principal fields were in operation during the twelve months terminating at some date between 31 December 1918 and 30 April 1919 (for anthracite mines the figures for two years are given); it also classifies the mines into groups accor to the

number of days so worked. All the mines referred to in the Report are included. It will be observed that, in bituminous mining, for ten States the year reported ends 31 December 1918; for three it ends 30 April 1919; and for the other five States the year ends on different days. Totals for all States are not shown, because the year is not for the same period for all States, and no comparison of figures should be made between the States except where the year ends on an identical date.

TABLE VII. AVERAGE AND CLASSIFIED DAYS OF OPERATION IN ONE YEAR BY STATES

State	Year ending	Number of mines	Average number of days in operation in year	Number of mines in operation							
				under 150 days	150 and under 180 days	180 and under 210 days	210 and under 240 days	240 and under 270 days	270 and under 300 days	300 and under 315 days	days not reported
<i>Anthracite</i>											
Pennsylvania	31 Jan. 1919	22	293.8					2	10	10	
»	31 Mar. 1920	16	266.0 <sup>(1)</sup>		1		1	1	10		3
<i>Bituminous</i>											
Alabama	31 Dec. 1918	5	294.4						2	3	
Colorado	30 Apr. 1919	18	253.1	1	2			8	5	2	
Illinois	15 Feb. 1919	16	256.5			2	1	6	7		
Indiana	28 Feb. 1919	11	251.4 <sup>(1)</sup>			1	3	1	5		1
Iowa	31 Mar. 1919	11	251.2 <sup>(1)</sup>				3	5	2		1
Kansas	15 Apr. 1919	12	249.9			1	4	4	3		
Kentucky	31 Dec. 1918	19	249.9 <sup>(1)</sup>			2	2	10	2		3
Maryland	31 Dec. 1918	5	255.0			1		2	2		
Missouri	15 Mar. 1919	11	264.4				2	3	6		
New Mexico	31 Dec. 1918	6	308.2							6	
Ohio	31 Dec. 1918	13	233.7 <sup>(1)</sup>			2	6	3	2		
Oklahoma	31 Dec. 1918	8	253.0 <sup>(1)</sup>			1	1	3	2		1
Pennsylvania	31 Dec. 1918	31	285.0				3	4	15	9	
Tennessee	31 Dec. 1918	7	290.2 <sup>(1)</sup>						5		2
Utah	30 Apr. 1919	7	251.7				2	3	2		
Virginia	31 Dec. 1918	4	296.3						2	2	
West Virginia	31 Dec. 1918	13	252.0 <sup>(1)</sup>			2	2	4	3	1	1
Wyoming	30 Apr. 1919	4	253.8				1	2	1		

(1) Average for mines reporting.

The extent to which different causes operated in stopping the working of mines is shown in table VIII. It gives the average number of days for which mines in each State were closed for each of a number of specified causes. Comparisons between different States are again subject to the reservations above mentioned.

Some mines were closed on account of "vacations", which are here classed as strikes. In September 1920 a large number of anthracite miners refrained from work of their own accord against the advice of their union leaders, and without consulting officials of the mines in which they were employed, declaring that they were taking a vacation.

#### NUMBER OF "STARTS" PER DAY

Table IX. shows the number of starts (days) made in the half-month ending 31 March 1919 by anthracite employees. Starts as shown in this table mean the number of days on which an employee started working in the mine regardless of the number of hours he worked.



TABLE IX. NUMBER AND PER CENT. OF EMPLOYEES CLASSIFIED BY "STARTS" (DAYS ON WHICH EMPLOYEES WORKED) IN THE HALF-MONTH ENDING 31 MARCH 1920

Occupation	Number of—		Number of employees whose "starts" were—														Per cent. of employees whose "starts" were—																				
	min-emp' of es	Average— no. of hrs. 5 ts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16			
<i>Inside (under-ground) work:</i>																																					
Bratticemen	12	103 13.3	9.1	1												15	45	11	11	1																	
Cagers	13	161 13.0	10.1	1												24	80	13	5	1																	
Car runners	12	191 12.9	9.0	1												34	108	17	4																		
Door tenders	11	104 12.6	8.1	1												17	61	2	1																		
Drivers	11	179 12.0	8.4	1												31	78	2	1																		
Engineers	11	84 13.8	8.7	1												29	17	20	2																		
Labourers	13	650 12.2	8.8	12	12	8	11	8	8	7	15	19	26	31	52	90	271	52	23	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	3	4	5	8	14	42	8	4			
Labourers, company mines'	7	218 11.7	8.7	6	4	3	6	4	5	3	6	5	13	24	43	85	5	3	3	2	1	3	2	2	1	1	3	2	6	11	20	39	2	1			
Labourers, consideration, miners'	10	202 11.7	8.1	9	4											44	77	4	1	4	2																
Labourers, contract miners'	14	1,191 10.8	7.6	56	30	40	29	29	34	41	38	61	79	104	200	412	7	2	5	3	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	5	7	9	17	35	1	(1)			
Miners, company	11	331 10.8	8.6	17	14	11	11	6	4	13	9	19	15	47	123	11	6	5	4	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	5	7	9	17	35	1	(1)		
Miners, consideration	10	480 12.0	8.1	9	12	8	9	9	8	12	22	33	29	29	76	233	8	4	(1)	(1)	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	5	6	6	15	49	2	1	(1)		
Miners, contract	16	3,188 12.4	7.4	9	12	28	24	38	44	63	114	188	165	253	689	1,524	23	1	(1)	(1)	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	5	6	8	21	48	1	(1)	
Motor men	13	192 13.1	10.0	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	3	7	8	16	22	95	21	11	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	4	8	11	49	11	6			
Motor brakemen	12	171 12.3	9.4	1												27	74	5	5	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	9	12	16	43	3				
Pumpmen	13	88 14.8	11.4	1												1	6	35	88	1	1	2	2	7	1	1	1	5	5	3	7	17	43	7			
Timbermen	11	88 12.2	8.6													38	11	4	4	1	2	2	2	7	1	1	1	5	5	3	7	17	43	7			
Trackmen	13	109 13.8	8.8													24	56	13	8																		
Total	16	7,731 12.1	8.1	116	90	116	95	108	110	129	160	252	399	406	592	1,378	3,423	251	156	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	5	5	8	18	44	3	2			
<i>Outside (surface) work:</i>																																					
Cagers	12	66 13.4	9.8													13	28	5	10																		
Carpenters	13	153 14.2	9.6	1												3	11	43	44	39	1																
Car runners	10	46 13.2	8.6													3	23	7	1																		
Dumpers	13	49 13.5	8.9	1												6	28	5	5		2																
Engineers	13	155 15.0	9.2													7	22	82	89																		
Firemen	13	188 14.8	9.0													10	18	54	89																		
Jig runners	10	49 14.0	8.8													8	26	5	8																		
Labourers	13	636 13.0	9.1	5	4	11	2									77	233	90	80	1																	
Loaders	13	124 13.2	9.0	1												21	40	20	17	2	1																
Machinists	11	114 14.5	10.2													5	22	43	34	1	3																
Oilers	12	38 12.7	8.8													4	18	4	1																		
Platenen	11	99 13.8	9.1													9	43	17	9																		
Slaters	12	240 12.3	8.0	1												26	3	130	9	(1)	1																
Timber cutters	11	80 13.5	9.4	1												3	30	27	6	1																	
Trackmen	6	24 13.8	9.6													1	13	3	3																		
Total	13	2,154 13.6	9.1	12	11	18	8	14	12	27	32	38	80	46	85	210	741	385	435	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	4	2	4	10	34	18	20		
Grand total	16	9,935 12.4	8.3	128	101	134	103	122	122	156	192	290	479	452	677	1,588	4,164	636	591	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	3	5	5	7	16	42	6	6			

(1) Less than one-half of one per cent.

## DEFINITIONS OF OCCUPATIONS

Each of the occupations for which figures are presented in this report is briefly defined below.

If a definition applies to an inside (underground) occupation the word "inside" follows the name of the occupation. Example—"Brakemen, inside". If it applies to outside (surface) work the word "outside" follows the name. Example—"Ashmen, outside". If the occupation is found both inside and outside the mine no modifying word is used. Example—"Blacksmiths".

The same rule has been followed to indicate anthracite and bituminous mine occupations.

*Ashmen, outside, anthracite.*—Remove ashes from beneath the firebox of boilers by flushing or by shovelling the ashes into cars.

*Blacksmiths.*—Do general blacksmithing, nearly all repair work.

*Brakemen, inside.*—Also known as trip riders, trailers, and tailers. In anthracite mines they are called motor brakemen. They operate or throw switches; couple and uncouple cars; assist motormen in the transportation of loaded coal cars from switches or sidings in the mines to the shaft, and of empty cars from the shaft to the switches or sidings. Loaded cars are hauled by mules from rooms in which coal is mined to the switches and empty cars from the switches to the rooms.

*Bratticemen, inside.*—Sometimes also called airmen. They usually work under the supervision of the fire boss, whose duty it is to see that the mine is prepared for ventilation and for protection against fire. They construct brattices of wood, canvas, stone, brick, or cement. This work is of great importance in mines affected by gas, as such mines must be thoroughly ventilated.

*Cagers.*—Also called bottomers and dumpers. They are stationed at the shaft inside the mine and at the top of the shaft outside the mine. Those inside the mine place loaded coal cars in the cage and take empty cars out of it. Those outside the mine take loaded cars from the cage and place empty cars in it.

*Carpenters, outside.*—Do general carpentry repair work on mine cars and breakers. Breakers are machines used in breaking large lumps of anthracite coal.

*Car runners, inside, anthracite.*—In some mines cars are run by gravity from rooms or chambers in which coal is mined to switches or sidings, or to shafts or from switches or shafts to rooms or chambers. Cars so run are in charge of car runners, who control their speed or stop them by brakes or sprags.

*Car runners, outside, anthracite.*—Transfer empty railroad cars to breaker chutes and loaded cars from chutes over a section of the railroad track where scales are installed for weighing cars.

*Door tenders, inside (boys), anthracite.*—Also called trappers. They open ventilating doors to let cars through them to and from the shaft and close them as quickly and securely as possible as soon as the cars have passed. In some mines there are no door tenders, as the doors are opened and closed automatically.

*Drivers, inside.*—Drive mules into and out of rooms in which coal is mined, hauling loaded coal cars from rooms to switches or sidings where cars are assembled for transportation by motor to the shaft, and empty cars from switches to the rooms. In mines where the distance from the rooms to the shaft is short, the haul is from the room to the shaft and return, no motor being used.

*Dumpers, outside, anthracite.*—Dump loaded coal cars at the tippie by hand or by operating mechanical apparatus.

*Engineers.*—Operate and repair ventilating fans inside the mines and breaker machinery outside the mines. Operate and inspect hoisting machinery which is used in lifting employees and loaded coal cars in cages to the top of the shaft and in lowering employees, empty cars, and material from the top of the shaft into the mines.

*Firemen, outside.*—Keep fires burning under boilers to produce steam by shovelling coal into the fire box as needed and by keeping the fire box clear of ashes and clinkers.

*Jig runners, outside, anthracite.*—Operate a jig, a mechanical contrivance or part of the breaker machine, which cleans coal by removing slate, rock, and waste material.

*Labourers.*—Do various kinds of unskilled inside and outside work. They push cars, assist trackmen and timbermen, shovel dirt and handle material, and do other necessary unskilled work about the mines. In anthracite mines company miners' labourers and consideration miners' labourers are not included with these labourers, because they are paid a higher wage than is paid to these.

*Labourers, company miners', inside, anthracite.*—Load cars and assist company miners in drilling holes into stone or coal for explosives. The drilling is done with electric or compressed-air machines. Company miners seldom mine any coal, it being their duty to remove obstructions and prospect for new chambers or rooms. These labourers are paid a time rate which is a little lower than that of "Labourers, consideration miners'".

*Labourers, consideration miners', anthracite.*—Load cars and assist consideration miners in drilling holes into coal or stone for explosives. The drilling is done with electric or compressed-air coal-mining machines. They become contract miners' labourers when working conditions improve and miners are able to earn on a tonnage basis more than the fixed or specified time rate of consideration miners. They are paid a time rate when working as consideration miners' labourers, the rate being a little higher than that of company miners' labourers, and are paid on a tonnage basis when working as contract miners' labourers.

*Labourers, contract miners', inside, anthracite.*—Load cars and assist contract miners in operating electric or compressed-air coal-mining machines, which are used in drilling holes into coal for explosives. They become consideration miners' labourers when mining or working conditions are abnormal, due to obstructions, such as stone, slate, and dirt, and when contract miners are thereby unable to earn on a tonnage basis more than the fixed or specified rate of consideration miners. They are paid on a tonnage basis when contract miners' labourers and a time rate when consideration miners' labourers. The rate as consideration miners' labourers is a little higher than that of company miners' labourers.

*Loaders, inside, bituminous.*—Shoot or blast coal from veins or beds after it has been undercut by machine miners and then load the coal into cars with coal-loading machines. In some mines they do the timbering, i.e. set props or timbers to prevent the falling of slate, stone, and earth into the rooms of the mines; also lay tracks in rooms of mines and keep rooms in good working condition.

*Loaders, outside, anthracite.*—Load coal into railroad cars and refuse into mine cars.

*Machinists, Anthracite.*—Install and repair machines and machinery.

*Masons, inside, anthracite.*—Construct necessary air bridges and walls to conduct or force air into all parts of the mine.

*Miners, company, inside, anthracite.*—These employees very seldom mine coal. They operate electric or compressed-air machines, drill holes into stone or coal for explosives, and load cars. They are usually engaged in removing obstructions in the mines and in prospecting for profitable mining chambers. They are paid a time rate which is a little less than that of the consideration miner and are called "company miners" to distinguish them from the consideration miner.

*Miners, consideration, inside, anthracite.*—Operate electric or compressed air coal-mining machines, drill holes into coal or stone for explosives, and also load coal into cars. These employees are regular *contract* miners who, in consequence of obstructions in their working chambers or rooms, such as stone, slate, dirt, or of bad working conditions, are unable to earn on a tonnage basis an amount equal to or in excess of a certain specified rate per day. They are paid the specified rate, which is a little more than that of company miners, until they are able to earn more on a tonnage basis.

*Miners, contract, inside, anthracite.*—Operate electric or compressed-air coal-mining machines, drill holes into coal for explosives, and also load coal into cars. They are paid on a tonnage basis. A contract miner becomes a consideration miner when, owing to obstructions in his working chamber or room, such as stone, slate, or dirt, he is unable to earn an amount in excess of a fixed or specified rate per day. He then becomes a consideration miner and is paid the fixed rate per day until he is able to earn more on a tonnage basis.

*Miners, hand or pick, inside, bituminous.*—Undercut coal with pick, cutting some distance from the face of the vein, separate it from veins with pick or explosives, and load the coal into cars.

*Miners, machine, inside, bituminous.*—Operate electric or compressed-air coal-mining machines, undercutting veins of coal and drilling holes into coal for explosives.

*Motormen, inside.*—Operate motors which are used in the transportation of loaded cars from switches or sidings in the mines to the shaft and of empty cars from the shaft to the switches or sidings. Loaded and empty cars are hauled to and from the switches by mules.

*Motor brakemen, anthracite.*—See *Brakemen, inside, bituminous.*

*Oilers, outside, anthracite.*—Oil and clean machines and engines.

*Platemen, outside, anthracite.*—Work at the breaker machines and remove large stones from the coal before it enters the conveyors.

*Pumpmen, inside.*—Operate, repair, and look after pumps used in pumping water from the mines.

*Repairmen, outside, anthracite.*—Repair chutes and breakers and other machinery.

*Timber cutters, outside, anthracite.*—Cut and load props or timbers into cars for transportation into the mines. They also load cars with other supplies for use in mines.

*Timbermen, inside.*—Cut and set timbers or supports in mines to prevent falls of slate, stone, and dirt.

*Trackmen.*—Lay and repair tracks used in the transportation in and about the mines. At some mines outside trackmen repair tracks on the mine property.

*Slaters (boys), outside, anthracite.*—Also called pickers. They pick slate from the coal as it passes over the automatic conveyors or down the coal chutes.

*Trappers (boys), outside, bituminous.*— See *Door tenders, inside, anthracite.*





# BOOK NOTES

## OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

### INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

*Compensation for War Disabilities in Germany, Austria, Poland, and Czecho-Slovakia.* 46 pp. *Studies and Reports*, Series E, No. 3. Geneva, September 1921.

This pamphlet follows the same general plan as an earlier study on compensation for war disablement in France.<sup>(1)</sup> It gives an account of current legislation in Austria, Czecho-Slovakia, Germany, and Poland. After comparing the principle underlying the right to pension in these countries with that laid down by French law, it examines in turn the development of legislation fixing the conditions of pensionable disability, the methods in use for the assessment of disability, and the systems of determining the compensation allowed for disability. An appendix contains the texts of the Acts regulating compensation to men disabled in war in the four countries in question.

### CANADA

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION. *Twelfth Annual Report for the Year 1920.* 328 pp. Ottawa. 1921.

The primary interest of this report lies in its estimate of the success of the scheme for reclassification of the Canadian Civil Service which was undertaken some two and a half years ago. "The close of 1919", the report states, "found the service in a more or less chaotic condition". After about a year's experience with a service reorganised and reclassified according to the nature and function of each post in the service, the report states that "the Civil Service Commissioners feel that they are justified in characterising the year's work as a record of substantial progress in the important scheme of civil service reform".

### GERMANY

REICHSARBEITSMINISTERIUM. *Arbeitsrecht und Arbeiterschutz (einschliesslich der Versorgung und Fürsorge für die Kriegsopter). Die sozial-politische Gesetzgebung des Reichs seit 9. November 1918* (MINISTRY OF LABOUR: *Labour Legislation and Protection (including Maintenance and Welfare of War Victims). Social Legislation since 9 November 1918*). — Berlin, Reimar Hobbing. 1921.

This work sketches in outline the development of social legislation in Germany since 9 November 1918. It is divided into seven parts: labour legislation, labour protection, the labour market, special legislation for war victims, international labour legislation, social insurance, living conditions, and settlement problems on the land. Acts and regulations not yet published in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* are appended. A detailed index adds to the value of the book.

### GREAT BRITAIN

COMMITTEE TO COLLECT INFORMATION ON RUSSIA. *Report (Political and Economic)*. (Cmd. 1240) London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1921. 2s.

The above Committee was appointed in May 1920 to enquire into the conditions under which British subjects were detained in Russia, and

<sup>1</sup> *Studies and Reports*, Series E, No. 1. *Compensation for War Disablement in France. Act of 21 March 1919*, issued 28 February 1921.

generally to obtain information regarding the economic and political situation in that country.

Its report is divided into political and economic sections and has twelve appendices.

The political section sketches the Bolshevik movement in Russia and traces the influence on it of the French Revolution and of industrial, intellectual, and political movements in Russia. This is followed by sub-sections devoted to the structure of the Soviet Government, the Extraordinary Commission, the trade unions, etc.

The economic section deals with a number of matters having a direct bearing on labour questions, including the nationalisation of industry, the number of workers in the factories, workers' wages and their purchasing power, the productivity and mortality of workers.

The appendices deal with fuel, transport, revolutionary movements, food and rationing, and are mostly translations from Russian documents.

The report, which is unfavourable to the economic restoration of Russia under the present regime, is supported by a weighty mass of evidence. It is one of the most important official documents which have recently appeared in connection with Soviet Russia.

## NORWAY

ARBEIDSRADET OG FABRIKKTILSYNET. *Arsberetninger for 1920. Utgitt ved chefspektoren for Fabrikktilsynet* (LABOUR COUNCIL AND FACTORY INSPECTION: *Annual Report for 1920*. Issued by the Chief Inspector of Factories. Christiania, P. M. Bye and Co., 1921.

This report deals with the application of the Acts of 18 September 1915 and 11 July 1917 for the protection of workers in industrial enterprises, under the direction of a central authority and the supervision of nine factory inspectors, each responsible for a special district. According to the report, the number of establishments subject to the Act in 1920 was 8,597, and the number of workers employed 164,793; there were 37 fatal accidents.

## UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION: *Commercial Engineering*. Bulletin, 1919, No. 58. 180 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 20 cents.

The report of a conference on business training for engineers and engineering training for students of business, held at Washington on 23 and 24 June 1919. It was agreed that the engineer needs a knowledge of the economic and commercial sides of his work in order to make him completely efficient, while the business man without any technical knowledge of the processes he controls is unlikely to succeed. The difficulty of introducing additional subjects into an already overcrowded curriculum in the colleges and universities might be overcome by eliminating certain of the more highly specialised courses and broadening the general educational basis of the training given.

— — *Education for Highway Engineering and Highway Transport*. Bulletin, 1920, No. 42. 134 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 25 cents.

This is the report of a conference held at Washington on 14 and 15 May 1920 and attended by representatives of colleges and universities, government highway departments, and commercial firms engaged in road transport and the supply of transport facilities. The factors which gave rise to the conference were the enormous increase in road transport of recent years, the great Federal plan for road development and improvement, and the consequent need for highly trained highway and transport engineers, together

with the shortage of students graduated from the colleges and universities with the requisite qualifications. The conclusions of the conference and of its committees pointed to the desirability of co-operation between industrial and educational interests to ensure that students were aware of the openings in road engineering and transport and that the training given was that needed at the time in industry. Emphasis was laid on the fact that the problems both of roads and of transport were as much economic as technical.

— — *The National Crisis in Education: an Appeal to the People*. Bulletin, 1920, No. 29. 191 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 25 cents.

This Bulletin describes the proceedings of the National Citizens' Conference on Education, called by the Commissioner of Education, and held at Washington on 19, 20, and 21 May 1920. Its object was to call attention to the critical educational situation, to a small extent due to, but much more revealed by, the war. The percentage of illiteracy in some of the States is very high; the shortage of teachers is so great that many schools have had to be closed; the number of candidates for the profession is diminishing; the typical teacher, especially in the rural districts, is "immature, transient, and untrained" as well as underpaid; the rural schools in particular are far too few in number, ill-equipped, and inefficient; funds for educational purposes are hopelessly inadequate; and there is a lack of co-ordination in curricula and administration. In view of these conditions, the conference recommended a nation-wide campaign to arouse public interest in education; the establishment of a much higher standard for teachers; greatly increased and re-organised financial provision; and a larger measure of Federal support for State education.

— — *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the Year ended 20 June 1920*. 134 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1920.

The report of the Commissioner of Education deals with many aspects of education in the United States, but in all of these the problem is a similar one—a greatly increased demand for education to be met with totally inadequate resources, whether in buildings, staff, or finance. Much of the report is therefore devoted to possible transitional measures which may partially overcome the difficulty, pending more radical action. A chapter on vocational education points out the vast scope for further advances, in spite of the progress already recorded. The demand for home economics education has outrun the capacity of the existing machinery to supply it. The relations of education and hygiene are dealt with at some length and the connection between the shortage of teachers and the present low level of salaries is made clear.

The second part of the report deals with the activities of the Bureau itself.

— — *Statistics of City School Systems 1917-1918*. Bulletin, 1920, No. 24. 477 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1920. 45 cents.

This Bulletin contains very full and detailed statistical information regarding the schools of all cities in the United States which have a distinct municipal school system and a population of more than 2,500—a total of 2,401. The figures are grouped under such headings as schools and buildings, teaching staff, teaching load (the number of pupils per teacher), length of term, and pupils. The financial aspect of the question is dealt with very thoroughly. The volume should prove a mine of useful information to any student of American education.

— — *Statistics of Universities, Colleges, and Professional Schools, 1917-1918*. Bulletin, 1920, No. 34. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 25 cents.

This Bulletin consists of advance sheets of the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1916-1918. Particulars are given of the

numbers of the various institutions for higher education, the students attending them, the subjects and nature of the courses taken, the number and grade of degrees conferred, the number and rank of instructors, and the sources of income of the institutions. Wherever possible, full data are given for purposes of comparison with previous years and between different types and districts.

— *Training Teachers for Americanization: a Course of Study for Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes*, by J. J. MAHONEY and others. Bulletin, 1920, No. 12. 62 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1920. 10 cents.

A realisation of the importance of the enormous number of comparatively unassimilated foreigners within the United States has led to the movement for "Americanisation". One of the chief problems to be faced is the education of the adult immigrant, who is usually ignorant of even the rudiments of the language, customs, history, and laws of his adopted country. Before the war adult immigrant education was haphazard in organisation and inefficient in working; Bulletin No. 12 is a handbook for those proposing to take up this work. Its outline courses deal with such subjects as racial backgrounds and characteristics, teaching methods and subjects, and the ideal and object of Americanisation; they are accompanied by full bibliographical references. A chapter on immigrant classes in factories states that one factory reduced accidents by 54 per cent. by the teaching of English to its foreign-born employees, while a marked increase in general efficiency has almost always been the result of such classes. Another chapter shows that Americanisation can be a social as well as an educational factor by establishing contact with the homes of the immigrants. The book closes with a summary of the conclusions of a conference on Americanisation held at Washington from 12 to 15 May 1919.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *Probation in Children's Courts*. Monograph prepared for the Children's Bureau by Charles L. CHUTE. Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes Series No. 11; Bureau Publication No. 80. 32 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

"This report is one of a series dealing with problems of juvenile court organisation and administration. ...It is hoped that the present report on probation... will be of assistance in the development of higher standards and better equipment for the specialised and delicate task of dealing with children in need of the care and protection of the state, by reason of delinquency, or parental neglect, or other conditions requiring court adjudication."

— WOMEN'S BUREAU. *Preliminary Report of a Survey of Wages, Hours, and Conditions of Work of Women in Industry in Georgia, 1920-1921*. 63 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

Fifteen cities and towns were included in this survey, and 104 establishments visited. These plants employed 7,305 women, and included department stores, 5 cent and 10 cent stores, textiles and knitted goods and garment manufacturing, cigar making, laundries, and food manufacturing establishments.

In the schedule of working hours three-fourths of all the women employed averaged 55 hours and over per week. The average earnings for all white women for one week were \$12.20, and of coloured women \$6.20. Less than \$8 a week was earned by one-fifth of all white women whose earnings were reported.

WAR INDUSTRIES BOARD: *American Industry in the War; a Report of the War Industries Board*, by Bernard M. BARUCH, Chairman. 421 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

In the words of the report this is "a record not alone of new methods of government control over business; it is also a record of many new practices on the part of business itself".

It was the function of the War Industries Board to co-ordinate the activities of business in the United States for war purposes.

As a result of the experience of the Board during the war the following recommendations are made by the Chairman.

(1) Establishment of a peace-time organisation on the lines of the War Industries Board, which represented industrial and financial leaders, organised workers, and the general public.

(2) Provision of a government system for protecting and stimulating the production of certain valuable minerals, particularly valuable in war-time, as, for example, nitrogen, manganese, chrome, tungsten, dyestuffs, and coal-tar derivatives.

(3) Under the supervision of Departments of the Government certain war industries should be encouraged to maintain skeleton organisations, through which they could develop at short notice the rapid manufacture of various kinds of munitions.

## NEVADA

COMMISSIONER OF LABOR: *Third Biennial Report 1919-1920*. 122 pp. Carson City, Nevada. 1921.

The report contains, *inter alia*, a directory of labour organisations in Nevada, together with the number and membership of local trade unions; a section on wages and hours of labour in 1919; a survey of conditions of employment of women in the State; labour legislation 1919-1920; a summary of the enforcement of wage legislation; a table giving quarterly average retail prices of the principal articles of food; and an account of the wage earners' co-operative stores which have been organised in the State.

The Commissioner of Labor makes recommendations, among others, concerning workmen's compensation, rehabilitation of injured workers, the amendment of the wage law and of the 8-hour day law for women.

## NEW JERSEY

STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION: *Plans for the Administration of the Federal Act for Vocational Education, 1920-1921*.

Under the Federal Act for Vocational Education of 23 February 1917 it is required that the State Board in charge of vocational education shall submit to the Federal Board for Vocational Education a statement as to the plans and policies of the State board in the administration of vocational schools in the State which are to receive Federal aid. This Bulletin has been prepared by the New Jersey Board of Education to meet this requirement, and, having been approved by the Federal Board, is regarded as a working agreement between the two Boards for the year 1920-1921. Particulars are given of the types of school, curricula, teachers, teacher training, supervision, and general administration, which are contemplated.

## NORTH DAKOTA

INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION: *The North Dakota Industrial Programme*. 109 pp. Bismarck, North Dakota. Industrial Commission of North Dakota. 1921.

— *The Constitution, Laws, and Amendments thereto, authorising the North Dakota Industrial Programme*. 45 pp. Bismarck, North Dakota. Industrial Commission of North Dakota. 1921.

These two books contain (1) a report on the organisation and progress of the North Dakota State industries and on the working of the legislation for the protection and encouragement of agriculture and other industries in the State, as enacted by the sixteenth session of the North Dakota Legislative Assembly, and (2) the legal enactments themselves.

The report deals specifically with the Bank of North Dakota, the Mill and Elevator Association, and the Home Building Association, with progressive labour legislation, especially that on workmen's compensation, and with a number of other measures, including insurance against the various risks incurred in agriculture.

## NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

*Agricultural Workers' Wages the Labour Party's Fight for the Agricultural Wages Board.* 30 pp. London, Labour Party. 1921.

This booklet reprints in full the speeches of labour members of Parliament on the occasion of the debate on the repeal of the Agriculture Act 1920. The speeches are given without comment, but the cross-headings introduced enable the reader to pick up the threads of the labour argument at a glance.

ALLEN, Frederick J.: *A Guide to the Study of Occupations.* 183 pp. Cambridge (U. S.), Harvard University Press; London, Milford, Oxford University Press. 1921.

This is a book of reference indicating the latest and most authoritative literature on educational and vocational guidance. The first section gives detailed references to books, their chapters or pages, containing relevant material, under the headings of different occupations; in the second an alphabetical list of these books is given, with brief notes on their contents. The book is intended for use in classes in occupations in schools, in vocation bureaux in colleges, and by librarians.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE: *The Place of the United States in the World Organisations for the Maintenance of Peace.* In the *Annals*, Philadelphia. Vol. XCVI, July 1921.

This volume discusses the success of the League of Nations up to the present time and the major problems for consideration under any system of international relations, such as the possibility of disarmament, the treatment of backward peoples, the functions of international courts and means of enforcing their decisions. A special supplement treats of the economic problems involved in the settlement of the Allied debts to the United States.

Among the contributors to the volume are Senators Lenroot, France, McCormick, and Walsh; the Hon. Oscar S. T. Crosby, former Assistant Secretary of the Treasury; Henry W. Taft of the New York City Bar; Professor Albert Bushnell Hart of Harvard University; and George W. Wickersham, former Attorney-General of the United States.

ASOCIACION DEL TRABAJO: *Memoria y Balance correspondiente al Ejercicio de 1920-1921* (LABOUR ASSOCIATION: *Report and Minutes for the Year 1920-1921*). Buenos Aires, Talleres Graficos A. de Martino, Rivadaria 1529. 1921.

This second report of the Labour Association, which now includes more than seventy employers' organisations, contains a short introduction describing social conditions in the Argentine Republic, and a detailed statement of the work of the Association, dealing chiefly with labour and social legislation. The Association has submitted to Congress a conciliation and arbitration Bill, and, at the request of its executive committee, a conference is to be held in June 1922 to study the various questions raised by the emigration problem.

BEZERRA, ANDRADE : *O direito internacional operario e a conferencia do trabalho de Washington (International Labour Legislation and the Washington Labour Conference)*. 228 pp. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa Nacional. 1920.

An excellent introduction to the study of the problems before the International Labour Office. The author, a delegate at the Washington Conference, explains the present state of international labour legislation, and the work of the various conferences which dealt with international labour legislation up to 1913; he further gives a detailed appreciation of the work of the Washington Conference. In conclusion, he expresses his confidence in the development and efficacy of international labour legislation. A translation of the Washington decisions is annexed.

BULLARD, F. L.: *The Public Refuses to Pay*. 89 pp. Boston, Marshall Jones Company. 1921. 50 cents.

This book is a reprint of a number of editorials from the Boston *Herald* aiming to show that the building trade unions and the railway labour unions work against the public welfare. The general conclusion is that "organised labour today more than all else needs to emphasise less its rights and more its duties".

CANTINEAU, F. L.: *Traduction française du rapport de la Commission ministérielle anglaise relative à l'emploi des couleurs plombières dans la peinture en bâtiment (French translation of the Report of the British Departmental Committee on the Use of Lead Paints in the Painting of Buildings)*. x+388 pp. Paris and Liège, Libr. polytechnique Ch. Béranger. 1921.

— *Traduction française du rapport de la Commission ministérielle anglaise relative à l'emploi des composés de plomb dans la peinture en carrosserie (French translation of the Report of the British Departmental Committee on the Use of Lead Compounds in the Painting of Coaches and Carriages)*. ix+134 pp. Paris and Liège, Libr. polytechnique Ch. Béranger. 1921.

By an Order of the Home Secretary, dated 20 January 1911, the British Government ordered a detailed enquiry to be made on the question of the use of lead paints in the painting of buildings and of coaches and carriages. The results of this enquiry are given in four volumes, the first two of which, translated by Mr. Cantineau, contain the most important parts of the investigation. The first volume, which appeared at the beginning of 1915, and the second, which was published in 1920, contain a summary of the evidence presented, an analysis of it, a critical examination of the possible solutions of the problem under consideration, and the conclusions and recommendations of the Commission. The translator says in his preface that the English enquiry can be considered as having at once renewed and exhausted the subject, and that it therefore seemed desirable to render such very important documents available for the many experts on hygiene, technology and sociology of French-speaking countries, who are interested in the question.

CHAMBRE DE COMMERCE INTERNATIONALE (Premier Congrès, Londres, 27 juin-1<sup>er</sup> juillet 1921): *Examen des conditions économiques et financières actuelles aux États-Unis (INTERNATIONAL CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, First Congress, London, 27 June to 1 July 1921: Examination of Present Economic and Financial Conditions in the United States)*. 23 pp. Paris, Secrétariat général, 33, rue Jean-Goujon. 1921.

This report was drawn up by the American Section of the International Chamber of Commerce. It deals with the volume of production, fluctuations in prices, and wage scales, as factors which have influenced the present situation in the United States from the economic and financial points of view. An appendix contains various statistical tables dealing, *inter alia*, with agricultural, mining, and industrial production, wholesale prices of various articles in the United States, index numbers of average weekly work and wages in New York State, and retail food prices in the United States from January 1920 to March 1921.

— Brochure No. 9: *Construction*. 19 pp. Paris, Secrétariat général. 1921.

In consequence of a resolution submitted by Mr. Willis H. Booth on the study of the construction industry, the Council of the International Chamber of Commerce appointed a select committee to study the questions mentioned in the resolution. This Committee decided to set on foot an investigation into the present condition of the construction industry, and on 19 May Mr. Lemaire, an industrial engineer, was appointed to draft a report giving the opinion of the members of the committee. The present pamphlet contains the text of Mr. Lemaire's report on the housing crisis, and on the search for a remedy. It also gives the proposals of the American members of the Committee on Construction, and the report of the Italian delegation.

COMITÉ DIRECTEUR DE L'UNION SUISSE DES PAYSANS ET DU SECRÉTARIAT DES PAYSANS SUISSES: *Vingt-troisième rapport annuel 1920* (EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE SWISS ASSOCIATION OF PEASANTS AND OF THE SECRETARIAT OF SWISS PEASANTS: *Twenty-third Annual Report*, 1920). 120 pp. Brougg, Secrétariat des paysans suisses. 1921.

The first section of this report contains a statement of the attitude of the Swiss Association of Peasants to the following questions: the extension to agriculture of compulsory accident insurance; the Federal law on hours of work in transport undertakings; insurance against old age, invalidity, and death; and the international regulation of agricultural labour. With regard to the last point, the Association issued a circular to agricultural organisations in the principal countries opposing any proposal for international Conventions for the regulation of agricultural labour. A reply to the circular was made by the Director of the International Labour Office, and the President and Director of the Association in their turn also replied. These three documents are given in full <sup>(2)</sup>. In the second section the Secretariat of Swiss Peasants states that it hopes to be able to publish in 1921 the results of its enquiry on Swiss agricultural associations, but anticipates that the collection and analysis of the material for the enquiry on agricultural workers' wages will not be ready until 1922.

DUTT, R. Palme: *The Two Internationals*. pp. iv + 92. London, Labour Research Dept. and George Allen and Unwin. 1920.

*The Two Internationals* is a non-partisan statement compiled by the secretary of the International Section of the Labour Research Department, giving the history of the Socialist International from 1914 to 1919 (the year of the formation of the Third International). The composition of the successive conferences held during the war and the reconstruction period, the views expressed at these conferences, and the gradual crystallisation of differences of opinion are stated briefly and clearly. Documents of importance in the history of the international Socialist movement are quoted in full in appendices, and a good select bibliography of the history of the movement from its beginning is given on the last two pages.

ELSTER, L., WEBER, Adolf, WEISER, Fr.: *Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften*. 4. gänzlich umgearbeitete Auflage (*Encyclopædia of Economic Sciences*. *Fourth edition, completely revised*). Nos. 1 and 2. Jena, Gustav Fischer. 1920. 15 marks each.

The previous edition of the *Encyclopædia of Economic Sciences* appeared in 1909. The above new edition has been carefully revised and brought up to date; it contains new articles on questions of the day, the 8-hour day, the contemporary agrarian movement, and agrarian reform in Russia. The work is to be completed in three years' time.

(2) Also in INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Bulletin* No. 14, pp. 17-24, and *Official Bulletin*, Vol. III, Nos. 2-3, pp. 7-9.



HARBEN, Henry D.: *Labour and the Land; An Agricultural Policy*. No. 7 of Labour Booklets. 19 pp. London, The Labour Publishing Co. Ltd. 1921.

The policy proposed by the author of this booklet is land nationalisation coupled with joint control of agriculture by farmers and labourers. This control would be exercised by means of county agricultural committees.

It is assumed that, with the disappearance of the great landowners, the chief cause of under-cultivation would cease to exist; but there is no encouragement for those who see salvation in small holdings. To ensure efficiency and economy with the maximum of production, the author unhesitatingly advocates the creation of large industrial farms under the management of the new type of county committee he would set up.

LANDSORGANISATIONENS Skriftserie ([Swedish] TRADE UNION FEDERATION: Publications). Stockholm, Tidens Vorlag. 1921.

Vol. I. BERGMAN, Per (Landsorganisationens Ombudsman [Representative of the Trade Union Federation]): *Var Facklige Kamp, 1914-1919* (*Our Trade Union Struggle, 1914-1919*).

Vol. II. Moskvoteserna och Fackföreningsrörelsen; en disputation mellan Redaktör Sigfrid HANSSON, Representant för Landsorganisationen och Ombudsman Emil ANDERSSON, Representant för Fackliga Propagandaförbundet (*The Moscow Theses and the Trade Union Movement; a debate between Sigfrid HANSSON, Editor, representing the Trade Union Federation, and Emil ANDERSSON, representing the Trade Union Propaganda Association*).

Vol. III. BERGMAN, Per. Synpunkter i Fackförenings fragan (*Aspects of Trade Union Questions*).

The Swedish Trade Union Federation has for some time been issuing a series of pamphlets on important questions relating to trade unions. The first of these covers the history of labour disputes from 1914 to 1919, and includes a table showing the movements of wages. The second contains an interesting discussion of the Moscow theses, while the third deals with the various points of view from which the problems of the trade union movement can and should be considered.

LÜTKENS, Charlotte: *Aushau und Abbau der Kohlenplanwirtschaft in England* (*The History of the Economic Organisation of the Coal Industry in England*). VII+58 pp. Dresden, von Zahn u. Jaensch. 1921.

This pamphlet is the fourteenth of a series issued by the Office for Public Ownership in Saxony<sup>(3)</sup>. There is a preface by Max Schippel on socialisation and denationalisation, the labour movement, and the miners' strike in England. The pamphlet was published last winter at the request of the Federal Socialisation Commission. It contains a survey of the attitude of English workers, from the political and trade union point of view, with regard to the removal of government control of the mines.

The author first gives a survey of the organisation of the mining industry in England before and during the war, and during the transition period. She then gives an account of the work of the Sankey Commission, which was set up by the Act of 26 February 1919, and of the proposals of the Report. She shows that, in spite of differences of origin and divergences of detail, the German proposals and those of the English Commission offer numerous analogies on points of principle. From various points of view the necessity is admitted of regulating industrial relations, with the aim of raising the individual, regarded as an economic unit, out of his state of isolation, in order to absorb him in some form of collectivism.

MAQUET J.: *Report on the Industrial Future of War Orphans*, submitted to the second International Conference for the Protection of Children, held at Brussels from July 18 to 21 last. 40 pp.

This pamphlet contains a number of quotations from other works on the same subject. It gives a summary of the methods employed in settling

(3) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, Nos. 2-3, May-June 1921, p. 148, and Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, p. 204.

the choice of a trade in the various countries of Europe and in the United States. One chapter deals with the use of questionnaires by which the intelligence of a candidate may be quickly gauged, and his aptitude for, and choice of, a trade determined. The author further advocates the use of the Binet and Simon tests in deciding whether a candidate has special aptitude for manual work of any particular kind. He concludes by stating that, in order to achieve satisfactory results, vocational guidance should be followed by medical supervision and by inspection of apprenticeship.

MORRIS, J. V. L. : *Employee Training*. 311 pp. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company. 1921.

The object of this study is to discover to what extent manufacturing industry in the United States can be relied upon to train its own workers. It consists of an examination of the various methods of technical training, apprenticeship, and Americanisation, which have been adopted by a number of large industrial corporations in the various fields of industry. It draws the conclusion that the larger corporation may profitably be considered the unit for the vocational training of its employees in their specific occupations.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD. : *Experience with Trade Union Agreements—Clothing Industries*. Research Report No. 38. 134 pp. New York, the Century Company. 1921.

This report investigates the practice of collective bargaining in the clothing industries; it outlines the terms of the most recent agreements concluded in the various clothing centres between the trade unions and the employers, and describes their working, with special attention to the experience gained from the latter. The report finds that the outstanding feature of the agreements examined is their instability. On the other hand, the machinery for adjusting disputes provided by these agreements, particularly the institution of the impartial chairman, is regarded as a most valuable development. The report finds that output under agreements in the clothing industries has been adversely affected by three principal factors : reduction of the working week, substitution of time-work for piece-work, and a relaxation of discipline due to limitations placed upon the employers' power to discharge. On the other hand, the report states that in certain respects production has been helped rather than hindered by the existence of agreements.

*Organisatsia Truda (Labour Organisation)*, No. 1. 145 pp. Moscow. March 1921.

This is the first number of a journal published at intervals by the Labour Research Department of the All Russian Council of Trade Unions. A section is devoted to explaining the work of the Department, and there are, in addition, articles on the Taylor system, labour classification, motion study, and the fundamental principles of factory administration. Other sections deal with science and technology in Russia and abroad, labour organisation, and art in relation to production; a bibliography is given. The review treats labour and labour problems from a purely scientific and physiological standpoint.

PIGOU, A. C. : *The Political Economy of War*. 251 pp. London, Macmillan and Co. 1921.

This book gives a brief but comprehensive account of the workings of the principles of political economy in time of war, thereby supplementing the ordinary treatise on economics, which deals essentially with their normal working in time of peace. The treatment in part is general, but in the main has direct reference to the European war, 1914-1918, particularly its effects upon economic conditions in Great Britain. The financial aspect of these effects is the topic chiefly considered.

RICHARDS, Cicely : *A History of Trades Councils, 1860-1875*, with an introduction by G. D. H. COLE. 36 pp. London, Labour Research Dept. 1920. 1s.

The *History of Trades Councils* begins with the formation of the London Trades Council in the year 1860, from which the continuous activities of the councils in general may be dated. The councils are considered primarily from the point of view of the various activities undertaken by them during the period covered, the order of development in different industries and districts being left on one side. It devotes special attention to the history of the London and Glasgow Councils, which were particularly active in matters of national interest. Mr. Cole in his introduction discusses briefly the weaknesses and possibilities of the present system of trades councils.

VEBLEN, Thorstein : *The Engineers and the Price System*. 169 pp. New York, B. W. Hübsch, Inc. 1921.

This series of papers appeared in the *Dial* during 1919, and comprises the following : on the need and use of sabotage; the industrial system and the captains of industry; the captains of finance and the engineers; on the danger of a revolutionary overturn; on the circumstances which make for a change; a memorandum on a practical soviet of technicians.

Absentee ownership, according to the author, has made doubly important the position and function of management in the administration of industry. It will fall upon the engineers or technicians to make more tolerable the strain of present productive methods and so to organise industry as to eliminate the appalling amount of waste which takes place.

VIGEN, Anders : *Bolshevismen (Bolshevism)*. Komitéen til Belysning af Statsmonopoler (Committee of Enquiry into State Monopolies); Series B, No. 2. 70 pp. Copenhagen, G. E. C. Gad. 1921.

The second volume of a series of publications issued by the Committee of Enquiry into State Monopolies, appointed in 1919. The author describes Bolshevism as a development of Marxian Socialism; he shows its connection with previous revolutionary movements in Russia, explains how it broke away from Social Democracy during the war, and gives reasons for its success. The object of the work is to throw light on past events; it is based principally on Bolshevik literature published before the Revolution.

WILLIAMS, ROBERT. *The New Labour Outlook*. New Era Series, Vol. 10. 160 pp. London, L. Parsons. 1921. 4s. 6d.

*The New Labour Outlook*, written by the Secretary of the Transport Workers' Federation partly before and partly after his visit to Bolshevik Russia, is an impressionist sketch of the history of the British labour movement, designed to show the steps by which certain sections of the movement approached the Communist principles adopted by the Third International, and to assert the utter failure of the Second International and the uselessness of indirect action on the part of the workers.

*Wirtschaftliches Arbeitnehmertaschenbuch (Workers' Economic Manual)*. Vol. 1. Stuttgart, Volksverlag für Wirtschaft und Verkehr. 1921.

This work, the result of collaboration between manual and non-manual workers, technical workers, and men of science, without distinction of party, deals principally with labour legislation and social welfare. The editor proposes to publish a fresh volume on some important question every year.

## ERRATUM

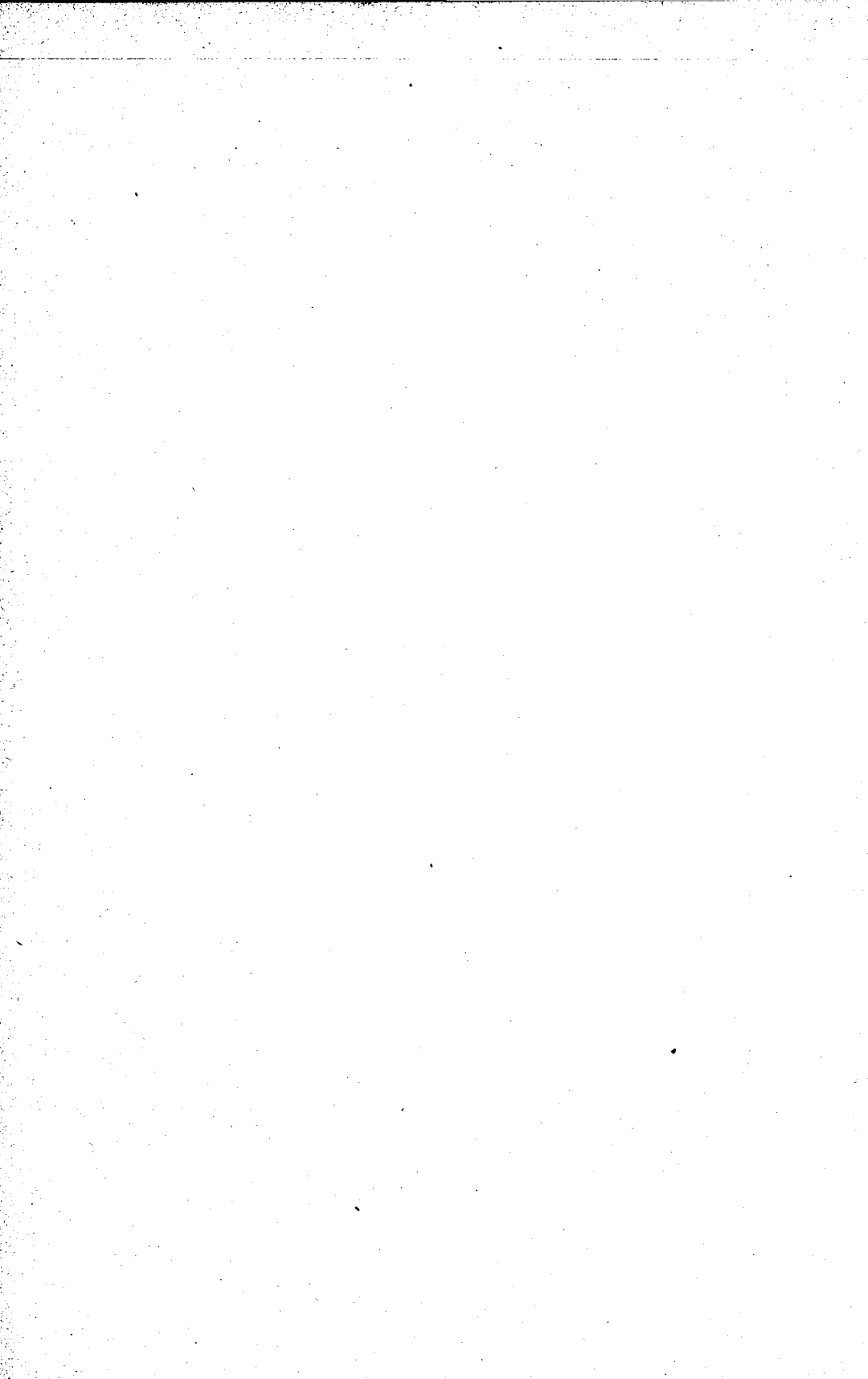
Vol. IV, No. 2, November 1921, p. 112, Note 16, *read* :

(16) Act of 9 August 1918. This was only a provisional Act expiring on 30 Sept. 1921; it was renewed for another year by the Act of 5 Aug. 1921 (*Norsk Lovtidende*, 1921, No 35).

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# THE METRIC AND BRITISH SYSTEMS OF WEIGHTS. AND MEASURES

A. Metric Measures in terms of British			B. British Measures in terms of Metric		
UNIT	EXACTLY	ROUGHLY	UNIT	EXACTLY	ROUGHLY
<b>A. Linear Measures</b>					
Millim.	0.0894 inches	one 25th of an inch	Inch	25.399 mm.	4 in. = 10 cm.
Centim.	0.3937 "	10 cm. = about 4 ins.	Foot	30.479 cm.	30 cm.
Metre	39.371 "	11 metres = 12 yards	Yard	0.9144 metres	11 yards = 10 metres
Kilom.	0.6214 miles	5 furlongs	Mile	1.6093 km.	5 miles = 8 km.
<b>B. Square Measures</b>					
Sq. Metre (centiare)	1.196 sq. yds.	1½ sq. yds.	Square inch	6.451 sq. cm.	
Are	3.954 poles	10 ares = ¼ acre	Square yard	0.836 sq. metr.	6 sq. yds = 5 sq. metr.
Hectare	2.471 acres	2½ acres	Acre	0.40467 hect.	1 acre = 2½ hect.
			Sq. mile	2.5899 sq. km.	100 sq. miles = 260 sq. km.
<b>C. Measures of Capacity</b>					
Litre	1.76 pints	4½ litres = 1 gallon	Pint (liquid)	0.5679 litres	1 litre = 1½ pints
Decalitre	2.201 gallons	5 decalitres = 11 gallons	Quart (liquid)	1.1359 "	—
Hectolitre	22.01 "	22 gallons	Gallon (liquid)	4.5435 "	4½ litres
			Peck (dry)	9.087 "	22 gallons = 1 hectol.
			Bushel	36.34766 "	9 litres
					36 litres
<b>D. Measures of Weight</b>					
Gramme	0.353 oz.	454 grs = 1 lb.	Ounce	28.35 grs.	7 oz. = 200 grs.
Hectogr.	3.527 "	nearly ¼ lb.	Pound	453.59 "	½ kilo
Kilogr.	2.2046 lbs.	5 kilos = 11 lbs.	Hundred-weight	50.802 kilos	22 lbs = 10 kilos
Metric Ton	2,204.6 lbs.	1 Long Ton	Short ton (2,000 lbs)	901.6 "	50 kilos
			Long ton (2,240 lbs)	1,016.04 "	900 "
					1,000 " (1 Met. ton)



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# PUBLICATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

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The International Labour Office now issues the following publications :

## **Regular Periodical Publications**

### **I. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW.**

The International Labour Review is a scientific, popular publication containing articles, statistics and information relating to labour and industry, of interest and value to employers, workers, and governments. It contains, in addition to articles for which the International Labour Office is responsible, contributions by well-known economists, employers, and trade union leaders of their views on questions of the day. The Review appears in English and French. In conformity with the Peace Treaty, it may also be published in other languages later.

### **II. THE OFFICIAL BULLETIN.**

The Bulletin is the weekly official journal of the Office, and its purpose is to supply information with regard to the activities of the International Labour Organisation. It contains the texts of official documents, reports of meetings of the Governing Body and the various International Commissions (on unemployment, emigration, etc.), as well as general information with regard to the progress of the work of the Office. It also contains particulars with regard to the action taken by the different nations, Members of the Organisation, to give effect to the decisions of the Annual Conference. The Bulletin has appeared regularly in English and in French since 8 September and in German since 20 October 1920.

### **III. THE DAILY INTELLIGENCE.**

The Daily Intelligence, containing brief notes on important current events relating to labour and industry, first appeared in somewhat form in French on 1 September 1920. Since 15 November 1920 it has been printed in both French and English.

## **Irregular Periodical Publications**

### **IV. STUDIES AND REPORTS.**

The Studies and Reports appear at frequent intervals, and contain short reports and articles on subjects of immediate importance in the field of labour and industry. The collection falls into twelve series :

(a) Industrial relations (the activities of trade unions and employers' associations, and political activity in its relation to questions of labour); (b) Economic conditions; (c) Employment and unemployment; (d) Conditions of labour; (e) Workmen's compensation, rehabilitation, and social insurance; (f) Industrial hygiene, accidents and safety; (g) Welfare of workers; (h) Co-operation; (i) Protection of women and children; (j) Education; (k) Agriculture; (l) Maritime affairs.

### **V. BIBLIOGRAPHICAL SERIES.**

The Bibliographical Series will include: (a) General bibliographical lists of publications, both official and non-official, which are printed weekly or as often as desirable and possible; (b) Special annotated bibliographies relating to particular subjects, such as the minimum wage, the 8-hour day, vocational education, employees' participation in industrial management, industrial hygiene, etc., which will appear from time to time as occasion demands.

### **VI. LEGISLATIVE SERIES.**

This Series contains reprints and translations of the texts of laws, decrees, orders, and regulations affecting labour issued in the different countries of the world. The series, which is published in English, French, and German, constitutes a continuation in a new form of the series published by the old International Labour Office at Basle.

### **VII. REPORTS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.**

These Reports comprise: (a) Reports prepared by the International Labour Office for the Annual Conference; (b) Verbatim Reports of the proceedings of the Conference; (c) The official text of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference.

### Non-Periodical Publications

#### VIII. SPECIAL REPORTS.

The results of important special investigations or researches carried out by the International Labour Office and similar studies made outside the Office, if deemed of sufficient value, will be published as Special Reports.

#### IX. OTHER PUBLICATIONS.

Under this heading are included all publications which do not fall into any of the categories mentioned above. Such publications comprise, for example, the Constitution and Rules of the International Labour Organisation, as well as the series devoted to explaining the functions and activities of the Organisation and the International Labour Office.

### CONDITIONS OF SUBSCRIPTION

#### *Inclusive Subscription.*

It has been decided to establish an inclusive subscription for the publications of the Office as a whole. This subscription will cover all publications of whatever kind appearing during the period for which the subscription is valid.

#### *Individual Subscription.*

Subscriptions will be received for any one or more of the various series of periodical publications, regular or irregular, mentioned above. Individual subscriptions do not cover non-periodical publications. All publications may be bought separately.

Unless otherwise requested subscriptions will date from the first of the month current at the time of receipt.

### Rate of Subscription

The Office has encountered certain difficulties in fixing the rate of subscription for its publications. It is clearly impossible to fix the price for each country at current rates of exchange with, say, the Swiss franc. Such a system would make the rate of subscription prohibitive in countries in which the currency has greatly depreciated. Furthermore, as the rates of exchange continually fluctuate, the prices would vary from day to day and from year to year. On the other hand the Office did not consider it advisable to fix the rates of subscription in the currencies of the different countries at the par rates of exchange existing before the war. The plan adopted is frankly a compromise intended to give the widest circulation to the publications of the International Labour Office, while safeguarding the Office from too heavy financial losses. It has taken into account to some extent current rates of exchange, but it has avoided imposing prohibitive prices on any country. The annual rates of subscription have been fixed provisionally in the table given below.

	Belgium	France	Germany	Great Britain	Italy	Netherlands	Spain	Switzerland	United States
Currency	Francs	Francs	Marks	£ s d	Lire	Florins	Pesetas	Francs	Dollars
<i>International Labour Review</i>	50	50	75	1/4/0	65	15	30	30	5
<i>Official Bulletin</i>	25	25	38	0/12/0	32.50	7.50	15	15	2.50
<i>Daily Intelligence</i>	165	165	250	4/0/0	215	50	100	100	17
<i>Studies and Reports</i>	200	200	300	4/16/0	260	60	120	120	20
<i>Bibliographical Series</i>	10	10	15	0/5/0	13	3	6	6	1
<i>Legislative Series</i>	35	35	50	0/16/0	45	10	20	20	4
<i>Documents of the Annual Conference</i>	35	35	50	0/16/0	45	10	20	20	4
<b>Inclusive Subscription</b>	500	500	750	12/0/0	650	150	300	300	50

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