



INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Trade Union Organisations

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

THE Committee of the International Federation of Trade Unions met at Geneva from 22 to 23 October. The Bureau reported on the action taken in sending relief to Russia (1). Medical supplies to the value of three million marks are being sent to the Russian Red Cross, and children's homes are to be established by the Federation. A report was also submitted on the position of trade unions and the right of association in Spain (2). A trade union congress is to be held there in the beginning of 1922, to which the International Federation will send a delegation and give its full support.

Relations with the American Federation of Labour (3) were the subject of considerable discussion. The American withdrawal was said to be due largely to a complete lack of understanding of industrial conditions and trade unionism in Europe. It was decided that still further attempts were to be made to reach an understanding, with a view to the re-affiliation of the American Federation of Labour to the International. A request from Mr. Gompers of the American Federation of Labour, addressed to certain of the national trade union organisations, and submitted by them to the International, that they should demand workers' representation at the Disarmament Conference at Washington, was noted, but it was decided not to comply with it. On the other hand, plans were made for a conference of the Bureau of the Federation with the secretariats of transport workers, metal workers, and miners, on the subject of disarmament.

The next general international trade union congress, previously fixed for November 1921, was postponed until 20 April 1922 at Rome. After discussion of the industrial depression and the attempts to reduce wages and lengthen hours resulting from it, the committee outlined the general attitude to be adopted by the workers' delegates at the forthcoming International Labour Conference.

(1) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, p. 51, note (9).

(2) *Ibid.* Vol. I, No. 2, Feb. 1921, p. 49.

(3) *Ibid.* Vol. II, No. 1, April 1921, p. 17; Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug., p. 110; and No. 3, Sept., p. 54; Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct., p. 57.

The General Council of the **International Transport Workers' Federation** met at Amsterdam from 3 to 5 October. The chief subject of discussion was the Federation of Transport Workers which the Moscow Trade Union International proposes to establish; a committee of ten had been appointed for preparatory work in this connection, and expected to convene a conference within a few months. A member of the Council of the existing Transport Workers' Federation served on the Moscow committee, ostensibly as representative of a Dutch organisation. It was agreed that no one could be allowed to be a member of the two organisations at the same time, that the organisation which the member in question was said to represent should be asked for an explanation, and that a decision should be taken at the next meeting of the Executive Committee. The International Transport Workers' Federation of Amsterdam intends to oppose the Moscow Federation wherever possible.

The British delegate submitted a report on the withdrawal of the Sailors' and Firemen's Union from the British Transport Workers' Federation ⁽⁴⁾. A proposal was put forward to form a special section in the International Transport Workers' Federation of seamen's unions which are not affiliated with the International Seafarer's Federation ⁽⁵⁾. It was reported that the transport workers' unions in the Netherlands were weakened by a split which it had so far been impossible to remedy.

The **International Federation of Working Women** was formally constituted at the Second International Congress of Working Women, which was held at Geneva from 17 to 25 October. The objects of the Federation are to promote trade union organisation among women and the adoption of a policy taking into consideration the needs of women and children, to support the proposals of the International Labour Office, and to encourage the appointment of working women on organisations concerned with the welfare of workers. Only organisations affiliated to the Amsterdam International or in sympathy with its aims will be admitted to the Federation. It will therefore be impossible to recognise any trade unions on a sectarian basis or affiliated with Moscow. The Secretariat of the Federation is to be in London.

The congress devoted most of its time to a consideration of the agenda of the forthcoming International Labour Conference, and voted in favour of the 8-hour day, the protection of women and children, improvement of housing conditions, measures for the prevention of unemployment in agriculture, the prohibition of the use of white lead in painting, and measures for the prevention of anthrax. Other resolutions called for total disarmament and for international action for dealing with unemployment generally.

An **International Intelligence Office for Bank Clerks** was established at Berlin on 1 October for the interchange of information and the encouragement of organisation among bank clerks where it is deficient. This step was first proposed at the congress, held in August last at Vienna ⁽⁶⁾, of the International Federation of Non-manual Workers, in conjunction with which the new office is to work.

(4) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 2, Nov. 1921, p. 65, and p. 71 of this number.

(5) *Ibid.* Vol. IV, No. 2, Nov. 1921, p. 66.

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The **Danish Farm Workers' Union** (*Landarbejderforbundet i Danmark*), comprising about 25,000 workers, held a congress at Copenhagen from 12 to 14 September. A proposal was put forward by no less than eight branches for withdrawal from the General Confederation of Danish Trade Unions (*Samvirkende Fagforbund i Danmark*), to be followed later by the formation of a special organisation of the farm workers' and allied unions. This proposal was, however, rejected by a very large majority.

In France, the National Council of the **Federation of Leather Workers** (*Fédération des Cuirs et Peaux*) met in Paris on 9 October. The Executive Committee's scheme for workers' control was considered and approved. It was decided that an agitation should be set on foot in defence of the 8-hour day and an educational campaign undertaken to encourage the members of the Federation to resist all attacks on it. The new Government Bill on social insurance was laid before the Council, and agreement was reached on the amendments to be proposed in co-operation with the General Confederation of Labour⁽⁶⁾. The resolution supporting the 'majority' conception of trade union discipline was passed almost unanimously.

The Parisian members of the **National Union of Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Workers** (*Syndicat national des Agents des postes, télégraphes et téléphones*) held a meeting on 13 October to protest against the removal of the state monopoly of these services and their exploitation in the interests of private firms, which was recently demanded by the League of Economic Interests (*Ligue des intérêts économiques*)⁽⁷⁾. A further protest was registered against the reduction of budget credits for the postal services. It was maintained that the unsatisfactory working of the services was not due to the inefficiency of the staff, who frequently made suggestions for reform and improvement which had not been adopted.

The **Federated Union of State Employers** (*Union fédérative des Travailleurs de l'Etat*) held its congress in Paris from 17 to 22 October. It protested against the proposed reduction of civilian staffs as long as the military are still employed in civil establishments, and until the Bills for re-organisation of the state services now before the Chamber have been examined. A proposal was put forward for the complete amalgamation of the different unions, now associated in the Federated Union, to take place in March 1922. This was referred to the constituent unions for decision.

The National Council of the **Miners' Federation** (*Fédération des Travailleurs du Sous-sol*) met at Paris on 17 and 18 October. Noting the present break-down of the foreign exchange, the extent of unemployment and distress, and the wars still being carried on in so many countries, the National Council decided to request the Committee of the Miners' International to take steps, in pursuance of

(6) Cf. p. 135 of this Review, *Public Opinion on the French Government's Social Insurance Bill*.

(7) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 48.

the decisions of the Geneva Congress of August 1920 (*), to demonstrate to the governments the need — or to take more general action if necessary — for the stabilisation of exchanges, the establishment of an international office for the distribution of raw materials, the conclusion of a final peace, and progress towards total disarmament. The International Federation of Trade Unions was requested to issue a declaration on the subject at its next conference. If the Miners' International is unwilling to take action as outlined, the French Federation proposes to do so at the first favourable opportunity.

The National Council of the **Federation of Non-Manual Workers** (*Fédération des Syndicats des Employés*) met on 23 October in Paris. It demanded the removal of passport and customs restrictions, and protested against taxes on wages and salaries, while excess profits so largely escaped. The resolution on trade union discipline directed the Executive Committee to put into force the exclusion of all unions adhering to the revolutionary trade union committees, in accordance with the decisions of the Confederal Congress of Lille (*). The Council drew attention to the incomplete application of the 8-hour day to commerce, and considered the need for further vocational education for commercial occupations.

The **Hungarian National Association of Land Workers** (*Magyarországi Földmunkások Országos Szövetsége*) met in congress on 2 October at Szentes. It was reported that 36 branches of the association have now resumed their activities. The agenda was on the lines of that of the International Labour Conference of 1921. The congress declared in favour of the principle of equality between industrial and agricultural workers. On the question of hours the congress supported the principle of the 8-hour day, but in view of the peculiar circumstances of the present time, stated that the association would be willing to make concessions. It was proposed that hours be limited to 8 per day from October to March, and to 12 per day from July to September, with a maximum for the harvest weeks of 15 hours per day. Various means of preventing and remedying unemployment were considered, including the provision of relief works of economic value, an increased number of small holdings, the encouragement of agricultural co-operation, and the extension of agricultural credit. Improved housing conditions and the protection of women and children in agriculture were also demanded. It was claimed that full rights of association and public meeting should be extended to the trade unions, which had no legal status at present, although liable to legal action. The congress also requested the extension of all forms of social insurance to agricultural workers. The resolutions passed were to be formally brought to the notice of the Government.

In India trade unions are comparatively little developed. The seamen's unions, the **Indian Telegraph Association**, and the **Railway Workers' Association** are fairly well organised on Western lines, but even in these unauthorised strikes are not infrequent. Otherwise, the unions are often merely loose groups or organisations formed especially for strikes.

(8) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 7, and *International Labour Review*, Vol. I, No. 2, Feb. 1921, p. 50.

(9) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, pp. 51-55.

A Circular dated 13 September has been issued to all local government authorities giving the Central Government's views on legislation affecting trade unions. In so far as trade unions lead to the organisation of labour and the improvement of conditions from within, they should be encouraged. Public registration of unions should be an effective check on union officials, and should make the employers more willing to negotiate with the unions. The Circular gives tentative conclusions on points to be covered by any legislation. The principles laid down are based in some respects on English trade union law. The Circular states that a legal definition of "trade union" should be given, which should not be such as to exclude unions from political activities. They should be given legal recognition and protection, and facilities for public registration; this registration should be optional, but unions taking advantage of it should fulfil certain standard conditions. It is suggested that the minimum age for admission to a trade union should be 15. Trade union liabilities should be exactly defined, and it is proposed that they should not be rendered liable for any interference with trade involved by their action, but that they should be liable for acts of their servants performed on their instructions. Strikes should be recognised as legal, but picketing declared illegal. It is proposed that the English law with regard to trade union funds should be adopted, with certain modifications required by the Indian law of trust. At the same time it is laid down that the internal management of trade unions should be entirely free from state interference.

The Executive Committee of the **General Confederation of Labour** (*Confederazione Generale del Lavoro*) of Italy met at Milan on 7 October. It denounced wage reductions as an illusory means of overcoming the economic crisis⁽¹⁰⁾. The Council pointed out that the cost of necessities was still rising, and that any decrease should be made in interest on capital rather than in wages. It was decided to approach the Government and the employers' organisations with a view to the prolongation of wage agreements and to the appointment of joint commissions to examine the rise in prices and its causes. In this connection the need for fuller knowledge of the conditions of production in any attempt to deal with trade depression or wage reductions was pointed out.

The Committee of the **Swiss Trade Union Federation** (*Union syndicale suisse*) met at Olten on 15 October. The chief item on the agenda which was the subject of long discussion, was the attitude to be adopted by the Federation to the International Labour Organisation. Finally, by a majority of 37 to 9, it was decided that the Federation should be represented in the Conferences and other bodies of the Organisation, although this was not to imply any approval of the League of Nations.

The **British Seafarers' Union** is proposing to amalgamate with organisations of ships' stewards, cooks, etc., in order to form a single Marine Workers' Union. Both the British and the International Transport Workers' Federations have approved this proposal⁽¹¹⁾.

(10) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 54 (resolutions of the General Confederation of Italian Industry).

(11) Cf. p. 68.

The Sailors' and Firemen's Union strongly opposes this step and questions whether the Trades Union Congress will recognise the British Seafarers' Union and its action, as this union originally seceded from the Sailors' and Firemen's Union. The congress of the latter Union, which met in London on 27 September, held most of its sessions in private. A statement was issued, however, that steps were to be taken against attempts at secession from the Union. On 13 October, however, a meeting of seamen and other workers was held at Liverpool under the auspices of the Vigilance Committee, and it was then decided to form the National Maritime and Ship Workers' Union of Great Britain and Ireland, in opposition to the Sailors' and Firemen's Union.

The National Union of Post Office Workers, which, at its congress in Edinburgh, decided by a narrow majority to maintain its strike policy (*), has now suspended the collection of its strike fund owing to the objections raised by many members.

The American Federation of Labour, in a letter addressed to all its constituent unions on 17 September, asked that copies of all injunctions issued in labour cases and of decisions of courts relating to labour be sent to the President of the Federation. The object of collecting these data is to enable the Federation to advise labour organisations as to procedure in such cases. The New Jersey State Federation of Labour on 3 October unanimously decided to carry a test case of an injunction forbidding peaceful picketing to the United States Supreme Court, in the event of the State Court of Appeals sustaining the verdict.

The Federations of Labour of various States, such as New Jersey, Oregon, and Rhode Island, held conventions during October, all of them dealing with the question of injunctions, as well as in many cases the questions of unemployment and workmen's compensation.

Employers' Organisations

AMONG recent conferences of employers' organisations particular significance attaches to the American Mining Congress held at Chicago in October, and the attitude there manifested with regard to industrial relations. The situation in the United States would seem to indicate that general attention, which during the last nine months has been concentrated on the railway dispute, will now be transferred to the mining industry.

The criticisms voiced by certain sections of German employers with reference to the Bill concerning the hours of work of industrial

workers are here summarised. The Bill in question (1) proposes to give legislative effect to five of the Draft Conventions adopted at the International Labour Conference held in Washington in 1919.

A brief review is given here of the history of the General Federation of Danish Employers, taken from a pamphlet issued by the secretary to celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of the Federation (2).

The General Federation of Danish Employers (*Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening*), when first founded in 1896, comprised only members of the Copenhagen building trade and a few other trades. In 1897 the organisation of employers in the iron industry, and in 1898 a large number of organisations of employers in the engineering trade, both in Copenhagen and the provinces, joined the Federation. The Federation now includes organisations of employers in industry, commerce (including maritime transport), agriculture, and handicrafts. Of its 18,300 members some 18,000 belong to affiliated national or local organisations, while about 300 establishments are directly affiliated to the Federation.

Authority on all matters affecting the Federation rests with the general meeting, which consists of about 500 representatives, elected by the members on the principle of proportional representation according to the subscription paid and the number of members of the organisation. The general meeting elects a representative governing directorate (*Hovedbestyrelse*), consisting of 55 members who, in their turn, elect an executive committee of 15. Routine business is in the hands of the president and vice-president of the Federation, assisted by a staff of about one hundred. One of the bureaux of the Federation is occupied entirely in compiling statistics concerning wages and the state of the labour market, which statistics are used and published by the Statistical Department of the Government.

Members of the Federation pay an entrance fee of one per cent., and an annual subscription of 0.035 per cent., of the wages paid during the preceding year. In addition, a contribution of 0.045 per cent. must be paid to the strike fund of the Federation. In the event of a lock-out or strike an indemnity is paid amounting to 25 per cent. of the normal wages bill.

The chief activity of the Federation consists in negotiating collective agreements for its members. At present about a thousand such agreements are in existence. In addition to the current agreements relating to conditions of work, a general agreement is in force between the Federation of Danish Employers and the Confederation of Trade Unions in Denmark (*Samvirkende Fagforbund*), known as the September Agreement (*Septemberforliget*), concluded on 5 September 1899 at the close of a memorable dispute. The terms of this general agreement are embodied in practically all the collective agreements concluded, even when these affect organised workers not affiliated to the General Confederation of Trade Unions. Among the most important clauses is one providing for compulsory preliminary notification to be given in the case of lock-outs

(1) For the text of this Bill see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Official Bulletin*, Vol. IV, No. 16, 19 Oct. 1921.

(2) *Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening*, published by the Federation, Copenhagen, 1921.

and strikes. Two such notices must be delivered, one at least a fortnight, and the other a week, before the intended stoppage of work. The Agreement establishes the right of the employer to manage and allocate the work of his undertaking. It also secures his right to prevent the unionisation of foremen, who are considered as the agents of the management. Generally speaking, the employers are entitled to employ non-union workers, but as practically all workers are organised, this item is chiefly a question of principle. Under the provisions of the Agreement a board of arbitration was established in 1900. In 1910 this board was superseded by a permanent court of arbitration set up by the state. All cases relating to a breach of the September Agreement or of current agreements must be brought before this court.

For many years the General Federation of Danish Employers has co-operated with other organisations of employers in the Scandinavian countries. It is also a member of the International Organisation of Industrial Employers established in 1919.

The **General Confederation of French Production** (*Confédération générale de la Production française*) has been considering proposals for the amendment of existing industrial accident legislation submitted by the Association of Employers of Labour (*Association des Employeurs de Main-d'œuvre*). One of the objects of these proposals is to remove the difficulties caused by the application of certain provisions of the law with reference to work in ports. The Central Council of the General Confederation has approved a number of proposed amendments to the legislation in force. At present, under the Act of 9 April 1898, the daily allowance payable in case of temporary incapacity is based on the previous month's earnings of the worker affected. The General Confederation proposes to amend the Act by the addition of the following clause covering the point in question :

When the intermittence of work is due to the nature of the work itself (building work, dock work), the daily allowance shall be at least equal to half the wage for the working day, as established by agreements, workshop regulations, or local custom, for the class of workers, manual or non-manual, to which the injured person belongs.

It is proposed to change the Section on the appointment of doctors so as to avoid the necessity, at present enforced, of approval by a magistrate of the doctor nominated by the head of the undertaking to visit the victim weekly. An amendment is also suggested in the Section of the Act relating to notification of accidents and progress towards recovery, with a view to making it less rigid. This would permit the head of the undertaking to forward to the mayor's office (which will immediately issue a receipt) "either a medical certificate stating the condition of the victim and the date on which it will be possible to ascertain his final condition, or a declaration stating the exact reason why he has been unable to produce the said certificate".

The Executive Committee of the **Association of French Employers of Harbour Workers** (*Association des Employeurs de Main d'œuvre dans les Ports de France*), at its monthly meeting on 15 November, noted progress made in this matter. In discussing the Social Insurance Bill at present under consideration, the committee expressed the opinion that the most explicit guarantees

should be formulated. Emphasis was laid on the inconvenience resulting from the compulsory nature of the insurance, the increase in charges entailed, with the consequent effect upon the costs of production, and the risky nature of the particular project under consideration.

The General Association of Commerce and Industry (*Syndicat général du Commerce et de l'Industrie*), which met on 8 November, unanimously adopted a resolution calling for the rejection of the Social Insurance Bill (3).

The French Confederation of Commercial and Industrial Groups (*Confédération des Groupes commerciaux et industriels de France*) held its annual congress at Paris from 14 to 16 November. The vice-president of the Confederation read a report on the economic crisis. This report, which was prepared as the result of an enquiry among the various groups of the Confederation, specified the following reforms as being those most necessary for a restoration of economic equilibrium; a better application of the Eight Hour Day Act; reduction in freight charges; better credit facilities; an improvement in the foreign exchanges; and complete restoration of commercial liberty. Another speaker addressed the conference on the necessity of the return of the telephone system to private enterprise.

During the Congress a meeting was held of the General Council of the Union of Economic Interests (*Union des Intérêts économiques*) and the presidents of the great national federations. This meeting considered and adopted the industrial and financial programme drawn up by the Union, which was summarised in the preceding number of the *Review* (4).

Employers in Germany have criticised certain of the provisions of the Bill concerning the Hours of Work of Industrial Workers. As stated in its Preamble, this Bill is intended to put into execution five of the Draft Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference held at Washington in November 1919, relating to the 8-hour day, the minimum age for admission of children to industry, night work of young persons, and the employment of women during the night and before and after childbirth.

In an article in *Handel und Gewerbe* (5) the Chambers of Commerce formulate a number of objections, of which the following are the chief. They maintain that the economic situation in Germany does not permit of the introduction of the 8-hour day, and point out that the countries which are Germany's most important industrial competitors have refused to introduce it. In any case, it is contended that in the interests of industry it should be possible, by agreement between employers and workers, to distribute the 48 hours of work per week over less than six days. It is argued that the Bill constitutes a serious infringement of the rights of the individual, inasmuch as it expressly deprives industrious workers of the right to work outside their ordinary working day of eight

(3) Cf. p. 134 of this *Review*.

(4) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 48.

(5) 15 Oct. 1921.

hours. There is, however, considerable difference of opinion as to what regulations should be made in this respect. Some chambers of commerce would like to see the provisions concerning spare time employment deleted from the Bill. Others would have them extended so as to include not only additional work done for another employer, but also any done on the worker's own account. The restriction of prohibition to work done "in their own or any kindred trades" is considered a regrettable one. In any case, it is maintained, infringement of the provisions dealing with the performance of additional work should render the worker, as well as the employer, liable to a penalty. In the Bill the age limit of children is fixed at 14 years and of young persons at 18 years. The chambers of commerce consider that under certain circumstances these should be reduced to 13½ and 16 years respectively.

Other wishes formulated by certain of the chambers of commerce are that the clause providing for overtime payment at one and a quarter of the ordinary time rate should be suppressed and that the number of days on which overtime may be authorised by the competent authority should be increased from 60 to 120 days, or at least 90 days, per annum. Others consider that the regulation of overtime should be left to the management, as the management alone is capable of judging what extra work is required.

Employers in the handicraft industries have criticised the Bill along somewhat similar lines⁽⁶⁾. They contend that seasonal work, occupations requiring slight or intermittent exertion, and handicraft work in connection with agriculture should not be included within its scope. They consider also that the clause granting permission under certain conditions to regulate hours of work in a manner different from that generally laid down should be less stringent. By the terms of the Bill such permission may be granted for 60 days in a year; they claim that it should be allowed for 150, or at least 90, days per year. They maintain also that apprentices should not be included as industrial workers, and support their arguments with quotations from the Industrial Code. They consider also that the employee should be forbidden to engage in additional work of any kind, whether for another employer or on his own account, and that employer and employee should both be liable to penalties for infringements of this regulation.

The quarterly meeting of the **Association of British Chambers of Commerce** was held at Sheffield on 21 October. With reference to the question of unemployment, the following resolution was moved on behalf of the Executive Council, and was subsequently, with some additions, adopted unanimously:

The Association of British Chambers of Commerce is of the opinion that, while steps should at once be taken to organise relief in the provision of works of public utility, the problem of unemployment can only be permanently settled by reduction in the cost of production and by the development of oversea trade.

The Association welcomes the simplified scheme of export credits announced by the Government, and hopes that foreign trade may thereby be extended. While the disorganisation in foreign markets in consequence of the war is fully recognised, the abnormal increase in the cost of production, especially in regard to coal, has rendered

(6) Cf. *Deutsches Handwerksblatt*, 1 Oct. 1921.

competition abroad exceedingly difficult in most trades, and such abnormal increase is among the chief causes of the present stagnation in industry, a condition of affairs which has been greatly aggravated by frequent strikes and labour disputes, which have destroyed confidence, upon which enterprise and industry depend.

The Association is further of the opinion that it is only by full co-operation between capital and labour that the industries of the country can be developed and a full measure of employment secured. The employers are ready for such co-operation.

An amendment to add to the resolution words placing part of the responsibility for increased cost of production on transport and railway charges was carried. One speaker thought that it would be unfortunate if they put a reduction of wages before the reduction of costs. Sir George Renwick M. P. said that the cost of coal could be reduced only by a drastic reduction of wages, which they seemed afraid to mention, or by increased production. It would make a great difference if the miners reverted even temporarily to an 8-hour day.

The President of the Association urged that it was a matter of great importance that the unemployment relief work actually undertaken should be of the maximum value to the community. The Association was asked to express the opinion that the Government should reconsider, in a more generous spirit, its scale of grants for revenue-producing work, as the result of pushing forward this class of work would ultimately be less burdensome both nationally and locally. He thought that, as far as possible, liberty of choice should be left to the local authorities arranging relief work as to which would be most useful to the community.

The annual members' meeting of the **Auckland (New Zealand) Provincial Employers' Association** was held on 14 September at Auckland. The report of the executive committee stated that the steady annual increase in membership reported for the past five years had been more than fully maintained. The year completed on 30 January last had created a record in this respect, 408 new members having been enrolled. The net increase, however, had been reduced to 361 by losses from various causes. During the year the secretary of the Association had acted as advocate for the employers in some sixty industrial disputes before conciliation councils and the Arbitration Court. In May last the Court made its pronouncement with regard to the cost of living bonuses in accordance with the Government Statistician's figures. In spite of the fact that the figures showed a still further advance in the cost of living, the Court took the wise view, says the report, that rather than place any burdens on the industries of the Dominion at that time it would be preferable to stabilise wages for a period of twelve months. It was felt that this would ultimately be for the benefit of the public, employees, and employers alike. "The wisdom of the Court in its action has been proved by the condition of trade at the present time", continues the report. "It is an undoubted fact that unemployment, which is quite serious enough as it is, would most certainly have been largely increased had higher wages been forced on industries which had already reached an unremunerative stage."

Reviewing industrial legislation during the year, the report deals with the various amending Acts passed, and mentions in

particular that the amendment to the Workers' Compensation Act increased the total liability of employers in case of death from accident to £750. In view of persistent rumours of contemplated amendments to industrial laws, the report points out that it will be the duty of the incoming executive to consider and deal with these Bills and also to place clearly before members of Parliament the views of employers through the medium of the Employers' Association.

In moving the adoption of the report, the president of the Association said that the time was ripe for employers' representative bodies, together with the Employers' Association, to take a hand seriously in exerting their influence in the direction of securing a revision of the industrial laws of the Dominion. The Industrial Conciliation and Arbitration Act had been in existence for some twenty-six years. It had been amended from time to time and had to a certain extent been superseded by the Labour Disputes Investigation Act of 1913. The Arbitration Act, as it now stood, did not meet the purpose for which it was originally created, namely, the settlement of disputes and the prevention of strikes. The time had arrived, he said, when the whole of the laws dealing with the settlement of labour disputes might well be repealed and one Act substituted. He would suggest that only one court should be set up, the court to be open to all unions, whether registered under the Act or not, and to all employers. Any strike or lock-out should be made illegal and punishable by fine or imprisonment according to the degree of responsibility. Glancing at the industrial future, the president said he thought they should impress upon the Government the need for the greatest economy at present in all departments, and that the burden of taxation on industrial and commercial enterprises should be made as light as possible. The aim should be to lessen the cost of production by the introduction of the latest machinery, by encouraging workers to work with their brains as well as their hands, and by the adoption of improvements and quicker methods, so decreasing cost without the necessity of disturbing the standard of living. The president proposed that the policy of the Association should be (1) to encourage the investment of capital in industrial enterprises by using its utmost endeavours to secure stability in industries, both primary and secondary, and by impressing on the wage earners that the growth of the country and the continuity of employment of its workers depended on capital being assured of a fair return on its investments; (2) to urge on the Government that taxation on industrial enterprises should be reduced to the lowest possible minimum, and that the most urgent necessity for the growth of industries was to stabilise conditions so that capital might be invested with a reasonable amount of security; (3) to urge the amendment of industrial legislation so as to permit of all industrial disputes being settled by one means only; (4) to urge employers to take labour employed in the manufacturing industries into their confidence as much as possible by means of workshop committees or otherwise, and to encourage workers to take an intelligent interest in the economics of the industry in which they were engaged; (5) to make conditions of work in all walks of life as attractive as possible; and lastly (6) to pay for work done, where possible, on results.

The twenty-fourth Convention of the **American Mining Congress**, held at Chicago from 17 to 22 October, was attended by

some 2,500 or 3,000 delegates, approximately 75 per cent. of whom represented the coal industry. This organisation is one of technical mining engineers, and represents management rather than ownership in industry. It is not strictly an employers' association, but of recent years it has taken a keen interest in problems of industrial relations. A message from President Harding, containing the following passage, was read to the delegates.

I cannot forbear to suggest that your congress might perform a useful service in connection with the improvement of conditions in coal mining. A widely variable demand makes the problem of production difficult, especially when it involves an overload of the transportation system at a time when that system is least able to bear it. With both labour and facilities lying idle for substantially half of each year, the costs of coal are bound to be unsatisfactory to the consumer...

Adequate improvement can hardly be expected in the coal mining industry until the army of working men and the vast capital engaged in it find constant employment. I would be glad indeed if your deliberations might produce some suggestions of practical value in dealing with this difficult problem.

The Convention responded by adopting resolutions calling for the appointment of a committee of mining men to co-operate with Mr. Hoover, Secretary of Commerce, in working out methods and plans of mineral production and distribution. In the discussion with regard to the relationship between the coal industry and the public, and between coal-mine owners and labour, the president of the Pennsylvania Coal and Coke Company asserted that the policy and programme of the United Mine Workers and the resulting uncertainty in the industry were attributable to the leaders of that organisation, who had "thrown to the winds all conservatism and all sense of responsibility to the public and to the employers". He accused them of discarding all sense of equity, ignoring all economic conditions, all principles of collective bargaining, and all moral obligations to the employers with whom they had dealt in the past. He thought that the mine owners themselves were partly responsible for these conditions, by reason of their countenancing the "check off", by which fines, dues, and assessments of members of the Union were deducted from their earnings, and paid by the employer to the union collector. He continued:

A union that cannot exist on its own merits—on the voluntary payment of its dues by its members—should not be allowed to function in this land of free and equal opportunity to all. So I say the operators are to blame, and are helping to carry forward the menace to our institutions that I believe surrounds the present policy of the United Mine Workers of America.

The evil effects of cut-throat competition and profiteering in the coal business were alike serious, according to the same speaker. There is "just as much danger to the interests of the nation as a whole in cut-throat competition and in selling the coal below cost as there is in exorbitant prices". He said that the inevitable effect of such competition was to produce a condition of labour unrest, brought about by attempts to reduce wages beneath the level of fair remuneration.

Among the resolutions adopted by the Convention was one advocating a programme of sound business education, to bring

about a better understanding between labour and capital of each other's problems, with a view to hastening the return to normal industrial activity.

The Cloak, Suit, and Skirt Manufacturers' Protective Association, comprising 300 manufacturers owning more than 2,000 shops in New York City and employing more than 55,000 union men and women workers, held a meeting on 25 October. It was decided to substitute the piece-work system for the week-work plan, increase the number of working hours, and reduce wages. Part of a resolution adopted reads as follows:—

In order to stabilise and bring into the industry a condition under which garments may be manufactured efficiently and at prices consistent with the times, there must be a radical readjustment of industrial standards; therefore, it is

Resolved that it has become necessary to substitute in the industry the piece-work system for the week-work system, to establish an increase of the number of working hours in the week, and to fix a reduction of the wages of the workers in those branches of the industry where, by the nature of the services rendered, it is required that they be retained on the week-work system...

It is expected that when the readjustment of working conditions is established as outlined, that the effect will be not only a reduction of the prices of the garments to the consumer, but also, through the stimulation of business, that the workers will be enabled to earn an average wage in excess of their earnings under the present week-work conditions.



PRODUCTION AND PRICES ⁽¹⁾

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 where possible 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*, but completed and brought up to date; in particular, the figures for South Africa have been revised.

In previous numbers of the *Review* attention was called to a slight but distinct slackening in the rate of fall during recent months in most of the index numbers of wholesale prices. In order to make it easier to follow this movement, the table given in the last number of the *Review*, containing the variations in points of the general index numbers for the countries for which recent figures are available, is repeated below.

(1) For the sake of convenience and of comparison between the two editions of the *Review*, the French alphabetical order of countries has been adopted in this and the following sections.

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES AS PUBLISHED

countries	South Africa	Germany	Australia (Melbourne)	Belgium	Canada	China (Shanghai)	Denmark	Egypt (Cairo)	United States	France	India (Calcutta)	Italy	Japan	Norway	New Zealand	Nether-lands	Poland	United Kingdom	Sweden	Switzerland
sources	Official	Official	Official	Official	Official	Official	Finans- tidsende	Official	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Dun	Official	Baohi	Bank of Tokio	Okonomisk Revue	Official	Official	Fiedor- owicz	Official	Svensk Han- delsidning	Swiss lan- d
number of commodities	488	38 (f)	92	73	272	147	33	24	354	200	45	75	56	92	140	53	—	44	47	71
time period	1910	Jan. 1920	1901-1910	Dec. 1920	1890-1899	Sept. 1919	July 1912 July 1914	Jan. 1913 July 1914	1913	—	1901-1910	1901-1905	1900	Dec. 1913 June 1914	1900-1913	1901-1910	1913	1901-1905-1877	1913	Jan. 1913
(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
average 1913	112.5	100	1088	*	135.5	*	100	100	100	120.9	115.6	126.0	132.2	*	1032	114	100	2692	100	*
1914	109.0	105	1149	*	136.1	122.3	138	100	*	122.3	117.9	119.8	126.3	*	1077	114	106	2658	85.0	100
1915	120.4	142	1604	*	148.0	160.4	102	101	*	126.3	161.6	117.0	127.8	159	1269	165	218	2658	83.0	116
1916	137.9	152	1504	*	182.0	182.0	164	124	*	147.9	171.6	112	136.3	233	1380	165	218	3313	108.0	145
1917	158.3	176	1662	*	237.0	237.0	228	169	*	204.1	202.4	125	151.4	293	1355	326	1091	4392	136.0	185
1918	172.3	216	1934	*	278.3	278.3	293	196	*	247.9	302.4	135	196.4	341	1855	326	1091	5496	175.0	244
1919	185.4	412	2055	*	293.2	293.2	294	226	206	239.2	392.1	178	215.5	345	1809	447	1509	6056	182.0	339
1920	251.2	1251	2055	*	333.6	333.6	382	299	233	247.8	588.8	204	316.0	372	1834	339	2137	6382	256.0	330
July	—	1363	2671	*	346.8	346.8	385	283	250	252.3	572.9	209	317.0	377	2185	320	12895	313.9	347	*
Aug.	—	1446	2692	*	330.2	330.2	394	279	234	248.2	579.5	209	311.0	409	2262	328	12127	323.8	363	*
Sept.	—	1495	2618	*	326.6	326.6	398	299	226	237.3	607.7	208	308.5	419	2261	338	14418	320.0	365	*
Oct.	251.1	1462	2450	*	317.6	317.6	403	300	225	237.2	580.0	206	329.8	425	2267	327	16709	318.1	362	*
Nov.	*	1506	2371	*	304.2	304.2	374	287	190	211.6	532.0	194	324.7	403	2347	296	16709	308.5	346	*
Dec.	*	1437	2245	100	290.5	290.5	341	238	173	198.6	520.6	184	323.5	377	2249	266	20134	232.9	331	*
Jan.	211.6	1436	2233	96.4	281.3	281.3	290	214	163	185.8	470.0	178	323.5	377	2249	266	30936	269.4	330	*
Feb.	*	1372	2190	82.3	270.1	270.1	280	196	167	154.1	434.3	174	344	319	2233	243	33986	250.9	267	230
Mar.	*	1334	2008	94.0	263.1	263.1	270	182	162	154.1	416.0	183	319	319	2163	225	40236	239.9	250	219
Apr.	186.2	1323	1947	79.0	253.7	253.7	257	181	154	143	416.0	183	312	312	2146	241	42481	215.1	237	208
May	*	1306	1828	78.0	247.3	247.3	254	179	151	142	385.7	184	297	297	2115	201	40756	208.7	239	184
June	*	1365	1845	78.8	242.6	242.6	253	166	148	139	380.8	184	294	294	2079	207	43925	205.0	229	186
July	168.8	1325	1813	74.2	238.6	238.6	254	164	148	141	375.7	178	294	294	2065	208	47003	201.0	218	176
Aug.	—	1917	166	71.8	236.4	236.4	224	164	143	163.7	381.6	184	297	297	2065	205	60756	198.4	211	180
Sept.	—	2067	184	71.8	236.4	236.4	202	152	143	162.6	383.0	184	297	297	2065	205	71856	194.3	211	180
Oct.	—	2160	—	74.6	232.7	232.7	186	150	—	161.8	397.7	—	287	287	—	205	—	191.4	182	182
Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	384.3	—	—	—	—	—	—	184.4	175	183
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Monthly figures relate to: (a) the monthly average; (b) the month of January; (c) from 1920 a revised index is used; (d) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities; (e) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities; (f) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities; (g) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities; (h) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities; (i) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities.

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

Countries	South Africa	Germany	Australia (Melbourne)	Canada	Denmark	Egypt (Cairo)	United States	France	India (Calcutta)	Italy	Japan	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom	Sweden	Switzerland	
Sources	Official	Official Frankfurter Zeitung	Official	Official	Finlands- tidsn	Official	Bureau of Labour Statistics Federal Reserve Board	Dun	Official	Official	Bank of Tokio	Oekonomisk Revue	Official	Official	Fiedor- owicz	Official	Statist	Swensk Handels- tidsn	Neue Zuercher Zeitung
(i)	(f)	(f)	(f)	(c)	(d)	(f)	(a)	(d)	(b)	(b)	(a)	(g)	(c)	(a)	(a)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(a)
Average 1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
" 1914	97	105	106	100	100	102	101	101	100	95	96	100	100	100	106	99	100	116	100
" 1915	107	142	147	109	138	102	104	104	112	133	97	159	104	105	218	123	127	145	100
" 1916	123	152	138	134	164	124	124	123	188	200	117	233	123	145	361	161	160	185	100
" 1917	141	176	153	175	228	169	176	169	125	200	149	341	134	222	1091	204	206	244	100
" 1918	153	216	178	205	293	207	196	190	142	306	149	345	151	286	1509	225	226	339	100
" 1919	165	412	189	216	294	226	212	206	178	409	196	322	175	392	240	235	242	330	100
" 1920	223	1251	228	246	382	299	243	233	509	624	258	377	212	281	12895	314	283	295	100
1920 July	—	1363	245	256	385	283	262	250	496	604	240	409	219	296	12127	324	300	363	100
" Aug.	—	1446	1560	247	394	279	250	234	501	625	225	417	219	288	12127	320	288	365	100
" Sept.	—	1495	1582	241	398	299	242	226	526	656	231	425	220	287	14418	318	284	362	100
" Oct.	223	1462	1647	225	403	300	225	208	502	659	226	419	222	283	14210	309	267	282	100
" Nov.	—	1506	1658	218	374	287	207	190	461	610	221	403	218	260	16709	293	245	263	100
" Dec.	—	1437	1603	206	341	238	189	173	434	655	206	377	218	233	20134	269	220	244	100
1921 Jan.	188	1436	1473	205	290	214	178	163	407	642	201	344	216	213	20396	251	209	267	100
" Feb.	—	1372	1419	201	280	196	167	154	376	613	195	319	210	197	33282	230	192	215	100
" Mar.	—	1334	1410	185	194	270	182	162	360	604	191	312	208	188	40236	215	189	209	100
" Apr.	166	1323	1428	179	190	257	154	143	347	584	190	297	205	176	42481	209	183	200	100
" May	—	1306	1387	174	183	254	151	142	329	597	191	284	201	182	40756	205	182	191	100
" June	—	1365	1463	170	179	253	148	139	325	509	192	294	200	182	43235	202	179	218	100
" July	150	1425	1733	167	254	166	148	141	330	520	197	300	200	176	47908	198	178	211	100
" Aug.	—	1917	1788	172	224	164	152	143	381	542	183	297	—	180	60756	194	179	182	100
" Sept.	—	2067	1993	172	202	174	152	134	344	580	207	287	—	180	71856	191	183	176	100
" Oct.	—	2460	2687	—	186	—	—	—	332	599	—	—	—	169	—	184	170	163	100
" 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 18 commodities only; (g) the figures for 1915 to 1920 relate to December in each year; (h) figures for 1913 not being available, 1914 has been taken as base; (i) from 1920 a revised index is used, with 76 commodities. The sign * signifies "no figures published"; the sign — "figures not available".

TABLE III. MOVEMENT OF GENERAL INDEX NUMBERS
OF WHOLESALE PRICES

(Base : 1913=100)

Countries	1921							
	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
Germany :								
Official	-38	-11	-17	+57	+ 60	+ 492	+150	+393
<i>Frankfurter</i>								
<i>Zeitung</i>	- 9	+18	-41	+76	+ 260	+ 75	+195	+694
Canada	- 5	- 4	- 7	- 4	- 3	- 2	- 2	"
Denmark	-10	-13	- 3	- 1	+ 1	- 30	- 22	- 18
United States :								
Bureau of Lab.								
Statistics	- 5	- 8	- 3	- 3	0	+ 4	0	- 2
Fed. Res. Board	- 4	- 7	- 1	- 3	+ 2	+ 2	"	"
France	-16	-13	-18	- 4	+ 5	+ 1	+ 13	- 12
India	+11	0	+ 1	- 6	+ 5	+ 1	"	"
Italy	-10	-20	+17	-88	+ 11	+ 22	+ 38	+ 19
Japan	- 4	- 1	+ 1	+ 1	+ 5	+ 2	+ 8	"
Norway	- 7	-15	+ 3	0	+ 6	- 3	- 10	"
Netherlands	- 9	-12	+ 6	0	- 6	+ 4	0	- 11
Poland	+2245	-1723	+1569	+5578	+12,853	+11,100	"	"
United Kingdom:								
Official	-15	- 6	- 4	- 3	- 4	- 4	- 3	- 7
<i>Economist</i>	- 3	- 6	- 1	- 4	- 1	+ 1	+ 4	- 13
<i>Statist</i>	- 7	- 9	- 9	- 8	+ 3	- 4	- 6	- 13
Sweden	-13	- 8	-11	0	- 7	- 13	- 16	- 7
Switzerland	-11	-22	- 2	- 6	- 2	+ 4	+ 4	- 2

The situation can be summed up fairly clearly from this table. In most countries for which the September figures at latest are available there has been a slight rise during the summer, a rise more or less marked, and extending over a varying period. In Germany and Poland, however, the movements of prices covered a wider range, and are due to quite different causes from those operating in other countries. In these countries, as observed in the case of retail prices, it is not a question of seasonal fluctuations, but of further depreciation of the currency; the fall in their exchange is the dominant factor. In Canada and Sweden prices have declined. This would also be true of the United Kingdom if the official index number only had to be considered, but the index numbers of the *Economist* and the *Statist* both show a slight increase, one in August, the other in July.

From September onwards—August in the case of Denmark and Norway—the fall reappears in most countries. The index numbers for October are lower in Denmark, the United States, France, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, Sweden, and Switzerland. Prices have increased in Italy and Germany. The October figures have not yet been received for Japan and India, where prices were higher in the last months reported than for the spring months,

nor for Canada and Norway, where they were lower. It seems, therefore, that the fall has once more begun after some months of interruption, at any rate in most of the countries of Europe and America.

In preceding numbers of the *Review* it was pointed out that the temporary increase of the general index number could be assigned mainly to agricultural products, which had shown a marked rise, whilst industrial products had hardly been affected. In order to indicate this fact clearly the following tables have been compiled, giving index numbers for different countries and for similar groups of commodities.

In comparisons of this kind, perhaps even more than in studying the tables (Nos. I and II) of general index numbers, the greatest caution is necessary. The figures must be taken only as mere approximations to what is happening. It would, in fact, be entirely wrong to take these group index numbers as accurate and comparable measurements. Not only are there the numerous differences in the methods of calculation used, the importance of which was pointed out at the beginning of this article, but there is also the fact that the group index numbers necessarily refer to a smaller number of commodities than the general index numbers. Errors arising from differences of method are partly neutralised by the large number of commodities included in the general index numbers, but this does not hold for the group numbers. Further, the number of articles included in the calculations varies very much from one country to another.

Another difficulty arises from the rather wide divergences between the classifications of commodities adopted in the different countries. This fact has made it necessary to limit the number of countries covered by this investigation and to confine it to the really fundamental groups of commodities. The nine following countries were finally chosen : Germany (two index numbers), Belgium, Canada, the United States (index number of the Bureau of Labour Statistics), France, Italy, the United Kingdom (three index numbers), Sweden, and Switzerland. In each of these cases the index numbers make it possible to express by one or two series of figures the fluctuations in wholesale prices of foodstuffs, textiles, and metals and minerals. An exception has been necessary in the case of Canada, where foodstuffs were given four separate entries, owing to the way in which the food groups are divided in the Canadian indexes. In addition to the three principal tables (IV, V, and VII), there are two secondary tables (VI and VIII) relating to hides and leather and building materials, which are less complete than the other three, but which may serve to supplement the information contained in them.

All the figures given below are based on the same calculations as those used in compiling the general index numbers in tables I and II. Most of the percentages have been reduced to the base 1913=100; in the case of Switzerland, July 1914=100. The Belgian and Italian index numbers have had to receive separate treatment, since there were no data for reducing them to a pre-war base. All the index numbers which are higher than in the preceding month are printed in heavy type.

TABLE IV. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF FOODSTUFFS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES. MARCH TO OCTOBER 1921

Country	Number of commodities	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
<i>Base : 1913 = 100</i>									
GERMANY	17	1152	1123	1117	1194	1245	1949	2020	2417
Official :	25	1195	1169	1116	1274	1880	1845	1995	2786
<i>Frankfurter Zeitung</i>	17	171	169	158	146	143	143	132	—
{ <i>Meal</i>	9	175	161	126	124	133	142	140	—
CANADA { <i>Dairy produce</i>	20	175	162	162	169	157	182	170	—
{ <i>Fruit and vegetables</i>	25	203	189	189	183	174	173	170	—
{ <i>Groceries, tea, coffee</i>									
UNITED STATES { <i>Bureau of Labour</i>	54	150	141	133	132	134	152	146	142
{ <i>Statistics</i>	20	424	430	412	413	424	412	408	377
FRANCE									
UNITED KINGDOM	53	228	222	213	212	210	120	200	183
Official	19	232	225	209	207	206	208	191	168
<i>Statist</i>	10	207	204	204	201	199	202	191	163
<i>Economist</i> { <i>Cereals and meat</i>	6	204	203	194	187	199	201	193	192
{ <i>Other foodstuffs</i>									
SWEDEN { <i>Vegetable products</i>	—	238	232	221	237	236	213	183	—
{ <i>Animal products</i>	—	229	231	217	206	227	230	208	—
SWITZERLAND (1)	22	236	229	224	223	216	216	214	212
<i>Base : 1920 = 100</i>									
BELGIUM (2)	23	84	83	82	83	82	81	84	—
ITALY (3) { <i>Vegetable products</i>	19	108	106	102	97	100	107	114	—
{ <i>Animal products</i>	10	117	116	112	101	109	113	125	—

(1) Base : July 1914 = 100.

(2) Base : end of 1920 = 100.

(3) Base : end of 1920 = 100.

The above table shows that the general fall in food index numbers during the first half of 1921 was interrupted by a slight rise in July and August, and in some cases even in June. There are two exceptions to this : Switzerland, where the index number was unchanged during the summer months, and Belgium, where the index number oscillated between 81 and 84 points (base : end of 1920=100) during the spring and summer, after having fallen perceptibly during the two first months of the year. In Canada prices have risen only in the two main groups (dairy produce, and fruits and vegetables) out of the four given in the tables.

This general rise is sometimes very noticeable, but it is not permanent. The index numbers frequently reach a level attained three or four months before, and September, in most cases, shows a new fall. The Belgian index number is the only one which is still oscillating, and the Italian and German numbers are the only ones still rising. The German number must, of course, be considered quite separately, for the reasons explained above when the fluctuations in the general index numbers were being discussed.

The temporary rise noted during the summer in the general index numbers occurs more uniformly in the index numbers of foodstuffs only. In particular, in Canada the general index number did not rise, while the food index number did, and in the United Kingdom, where the three general index numbers did not show at all the same fluctuations, the three food index numbers all rose during August, or at any rate quite stopped falling.

With regard to textiles, it will be seen that the movement is very similar to that observed in the case of foodstuffs.

In all countries in the case of textiles there is an increase lasting for one or more months between July and October; the September index number has risen everywhere without exception. This rise of recent months was not, however, preceded by such a general fall as in the case of the food index number. It is true that the April-May increase reported in the United Kingdom is not of much importance, for in the official index number it only applies to cotton, and in the more general index number of the *Statist* it is very slight.

TABLE V. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF TEXTILES IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES. MARCH TO OCTOBER 1921

Country	Number of commodities	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
		Base : 1913 = 100							
GERMANY { Official Frankf : Zeit : (including leather)	6	1922	1821	1773	1814	1985	2193	3070	4176
	10	2153	2125	1907	2153	2269	2616	3270	4578
CANADA	20	198	191	187	180	179	181	183	—
UNITED STATES { (including leather and clothing)	63	192	186	181	180	179	179	187	190
FRANCE	6	375	314	282	278	290	321	388	391
UNITED KINGDOM									
Board of { Cotton	6	173	181	183	179	180	176	213	225
Trade { Other textiles	15	179	170	166	162	161	159	163	170
Economist	10	161	161	156	152	150	156	197	183
Statist	8	171	172	164	164	167	160	182	179
SWEDEN		134	125	132	129	133	132	166	161
SWITZERLAND (1) { (including leather)	6	126	128	121	121	128	146	171	169
		Base : 1920 = 100							
BELGIUM { (including leather)	5	68	59	60	63	64	67	71	
(2)									
ITALY (2)	9	64	57	47	46	54	62	75	

(1) Base : July 1914 = 100.

(2) Base : end of 1920 = 100.

(3) Base : 1920 = 100.

The only other exceptions of any importance are Sweden, with a temporary increase in May, Belgium, where the index number began to rise steadily in May, and Germany, where the exchange crisis is reflected with special intensity in the prices of textiles, all of which are imported.

The index numbers classified under the heading "textiles" also include hides and leather in some countries, in particular Germany (*Frankfurter Zeitung*), the United States, Switzerland, and Belgium. The figures in table V, then, are index numbers of even more diverse composition than those in table IV. This fact may have a certain bearing on the results, for the fluctuations in the prices of hides and leather do not absolutely follow those of textiles. This can be seen in the following table, which gives index numbers of hides and leather for those countries in which index numbers of this group are published separately. In the United Kingdom, France, and Italy these commodities are included in the "miscellaneous" group.

TABLE VI. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF HIDES AND LEATHER IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES MARCH TO OCTOBER 1921

Country	Number of commodities	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
		Base : 1913 = 100							
GERMANY Official	4	1822	1804	1648	1818	1914	2305	3727	4539
CANADA	11	118	115	114	106	106	101	100	—
SWEDEN	—	85	84	106	108	113	107	108	119
SWITZERLAND (1)	2	127	126	132	111	111	113	120	120

(1) Base : July 1914 = 100.

The movement differs from one country to another. There is a considerable rise in Germany, for the reasons already stated; a steady fall in Canada, though much slower in the last month; two successive periods of increase in Sweden and Switzerland, the most marked of which was in the autumn for the former country and in the spring for the latter. There is no very close parallelism between these index numbers and those for textiles in the corresponding countries. A certain tendency to rise may, however, be found during July and September, or at any rate a slackening in the rate of fall. It would probably be more interesting if it were possible to follow the fluctuations in the prices of leather, especially in the countries where they are included in the index number of the textile group, but detailed data are only published at present for Switzerland. It may, however, be said that a comparison of the series for these countries in tables IV and V shows that the leather index number, without following absolutely the fluctuations in the index number for textiles and leather together, has been moving in very much the same way, if the sudden rise in the month of May is excluded from consideration.

To sum up, the examination of the preceding three tables leads to the conclusion that foodstuffs and textiles, and to a less extent hides and leather, have risen in price quite definitely in all the countries during the third quarter of 1921, thus interrupting the fall which had been going on during the two previous quarters.

An entirely different state of affairs exists with regard to the movement of prices of industrial products. The following table gives index numbers of metals and minerals. In some countries they are published in two separate groups, in others in one joint group. In Canada and the United States lighting has been added to fuel.

In spite of these differences a general tendency to fall is quite evident. The German index numbers are the only ones which have been increasing since June, for the reasons already given. In May the temporary rise in the British index numbers is explained by the miners' strike, the effect of which on the price of coal was felt even in Sweden and Switzerland. On the other hand, there is a slight rise in metals in Canada in June, and in metals and minerals in the United States and in France in September and October. The index numbers for all countries, however, Germany alone excepted,

are at a distinctly lower level in September than they were in March and April. Table IV, and still more tables V and VI, show an entirely different state of affairs. During the period from July to September, during which the prices of foodstuffs and textiles increased noticeably, there was quite a general fall in the index numbers of metals and minerals.

TABLE VII. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF METALS AND MINERALS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES MARCH TO OCTOBER 1921

Country	No. of Com-mod.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
		Base : 1913 = 100							
GERMANY									
Official } <i>Metals and oil</i>	7	1605	1572	1513	1551	1581	1673	2036	2965
Coal and iron	3	1628	1696	1671	1671	1740	1774	1840	1885
<i>Frankfurter Zeitung</i>	3	1608	1566	1524	1608	1636	1748	2112	2937
CANADA (*) { <i>Metals</i>									
Coal (6), light (4)	23	158	145	147	154	147	145	143	—
	10	232	226	218	212	207	206	206	—
UNITED STATES (*) { <i>Metals and tools</i>									
Coal (8), light (5)	38	139	138	138	132	125	120	120	121
	13	207	199	194	187	184	182	178	182
FRANCE									
	7	289	281	266	261	253	245	253	194
UNITED KINGDOM									
Board of } <i>Iron and steel</i>	24	283	259	250	240	229	222	207	261
Trade } <i>Other metals & minerals</i>	20	192	192	193	189	185	172	160	157
<i>Economist</i>	8	192	179	184	186	179	176	167	156
<i>Statist</i>	7	178	175	176	157	167	155	148	138
SWEDEN { <i>Metals</i>									
Coal	—	185	172	153	149	148	130	130	130
	—	279	291	369	371	315	250	223	202
SWITZERLAND (*)									
	11	289	165	171	170	163	153	149	147
Base : 1920 = 100									
BELGIUM (*)									
	15	83	78	77	74	70	68	66	—
ITALY (*)									
	12	72	69	62	60	60	60	59	—

(1) Base : July 1914=100.

(2) Base : end of 1920=100.

(3) Base : 1920=100.

(4) No. If item given in brackets.

The movement in quite as clearly marked, if not more so, in the index numbers of building materials, which are given in table VIII for such countries as publish these figures separately. The fall here occurs almost without exception; the slight increases in Belgium and Sweden can only be taken as local fluctuations due to special causes.

The general conclusion is now easily obtained. The rise observed in the general index numbers of wholesale prices during the third quarter of 1921 (see table III) is wholly due to the increase in the prices of foodstuffs, textiles, and to some extent of hides and leather (see tables IV, V, and VI), or in other words, all foodstuffs and industrial products which have their origin either in agriculture or in cattle raising. With regard to metals of every kind, fuel, semi-manufactured metallic products, and building materials, coming from mines, yards, and factories, prices are still falling rapidly and fairly regularly (see tables VII and VIII).

TABLE VIII. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF *BUILDING MATERIALS* IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES MARCH TO OCTOBER 1921

Country	Number of commodities	Mar.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
		Base : 1913 = 100							
CANADA	48	231	229	224	218	217	192	171	—
UNITED STATES	28	212	208	202	202	200	198	193	—
SWEDEN	—	298	236	237	224	199	198	191	211
SWITZERLAND (1)	3	219	205	205	205	205	200	187	184
		Base : 1920 = 100							
BELGIUM (2)	8	94	93	93	87	87	87	91	—
ITALY (3)	5	113	109	107	102	95	92	91	—

(1) Base : July 1914 = 100.

(2) Base : end of 1920 = 100.

(3) Base : 1920 = 100.

The movement, however, varies considerably from one country to another in intensity and definiteness. It is particularly strongly marked in the United States and Canada. It hardly appears at all in France, where the fluctuations of the index number are sometimes in the opposite direction to that expected. In the United Kingdom the increase in foodstuffs is of the slightest. In Germany the movement is quite different and has no relation to what is happening in other countries. In Italy the depreciation in the purchasing power of money perhaps also comes into play, for the rise in foodstuffs and textiles is particularly strong, and the fall in metals and minerals especially slow. The general tendency in all the countries still, however, remains fairly clear.

SOURCES

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GERMANY	<i>Wirtschaft und Statistik</i> , Oct. 1921. <i>Frankfurter Zeitung</i> , 6 Nov. 1921. Communication from the <i>Statistisches Reichsamt</i> .
AUSTRALIA	<i>Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics</i> , June 1921. <i>Bulletin de l'Institut international de statistique</i> , The Hague, August 1921.
BELGIUM	<i>Bulletin de Documentation Economique</i> , No. 187.
CANADA	<i>Labour Gazette</i> of Canada, Oct. 1921.
CHINA	<i>The Statist</i> , 12 Nov. 1921.
DENMARK	Communication from the <i>Finanstidende</i> .
EGYPT	<i>Monthly Bulletin of Statistics</i> of the League of Nations, No. 10, 1921.

UNITED STATES	Communication from the Bureau of Labour Statistics. <i>Federal Reserve Bulletin</i> , Oct. 1921. <i>Dun's Review</i> , 1920-1921.
FRANCE	<i>Bulletin de la statistique générale de France</i> , July 1921. Communication from the <i>Statistique générale de France</i> .
INDIA	<i>Federal Reserve Bulletin</i> , Oct. 1921.
ITALY	<i>L'Economista</i> , 9 Oct. 1921.
JAPAN	<i>Chugai Skogyo and Jiji</i> , 18 Jan. 1921. <i>Statist</i> , 12 Nov. 1921.
NORWAY	<i>Oekonomisk Revue</i> , 2 Feb. 1921. <i>Svensk Handelstidning</i> , 6 Oct. 1921.
NEW ZEALAND	<i>Monthly Abstract of Statistics</i> , Sept. 1921.
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NETHERLANDS	<i>Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek</i> , Oct. 1921. Communication from the <i>Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek</i> .
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SWEDEN	<i>Svensk Handelstidning</i> , 6 Oct. 1921. <i>Oversicht över det allmänna ekonomiska och sociale läget</i> , 12 Nov. 1921.
SWITZERLAND	Dr. Lorenz : <i>Die Schweizerischen Grosshandels-Indexzahlen</i> , 1 Oct. 1921. <i>Neue Zürcher Zeitung</i> , 18 Nov. 1921.

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. 92 gives index numbers of the retail prices of food in various countries. Table II on p. 93 gives cost of living index numbers, i.e. numbers which, in addition to food, as a general rule, 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.

Some slight changes have been made. In table I, two of the series previously given have been replaced by others. The first of these is in Belgium, where index numbers are now given based on the consumption of 602 households with an income below 5 francs a day in 1910, instead of a series obtained by taking the average of three index numbers based on the consumption in 1910

TABLE I. INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES
(Base : July 1914 = 100)

Countries	South Africa (a)	Germany (official) (c)	Australia (a)	Austria	Belgium (c)	Canada (f)	Den- mark (g)	United States (c)	Finland	France	India	Italy	Norway (p)	New Zealand (c)	Nether- lands (l)	Poland (m)	United Kingdom (d)	Sweden (o) (d)	Switzer- land (d) (p)	Czecho- Slovak- ia		
No. of towns or localities	9	47	30	Vien- na	602 bud- gets	60	100	51	20	Paris	320 (k)	Bom- bay	Rome	Milan	30	25	Amst- er- dam	War- saw	630	40	23 (q)	30
No. of items	18	13	46	12	22	29	—	43 (h)	37	13 (i)	13 (i)	—	36	38	—	59	27	—	20	50	37	26 (n)
Original base period	1910	1913- 1914	1911	July 1914	15 Apr. 1914	July 1914	July 1914	1913	July 1914	1910	1910	July 1914	1st half 1914	1st half 1914	July 1914	1909- 1913	1913	Jan. 1914	July 1914	July 1914	June 1914	July 1914
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)
1914 July	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1915 "	107	*	131	181	*	105	128	98	*	120	123	*	95	*	123	112	114	*	132	*	119	*
1916 "	116	*	130	386	*	114	146	109	*	129	142	*	111	*	153	119	117	*	161	152	141	*
1917 "	128	*	126	622	*	157	166	143	*	183	184	*	137	*	203	127	146	*	204	180	179	*
1918 "	134	*	131	1788	*	175	187	164	*	206	244	*	203	325	271	139	175	*	210	258	222	*
1919 "	139	*	147	3037	*	186	212	186	*	261	289	*	206	310	290	144	196	*	209	318	250	*
1920 July	197	1156	194	5570	459	227	253	215	982	373	*	*	318	445	319	167	210	*	262	287	239	*
" Aug.	196	1049	194	5777	496	221	*	203	1029	373	*	*	322	454	333	171	212	*	267	*	229	*
" Sept.	195	1032	197	6206	501	215	*	199	1134	407	388	*	324	468	336	173	217	*	270	*	248	*
" Oct.	197	1129	192	6184	523	213	*	194	1172	420	*	*	340	480	340	177	219	*	291	293	246	*
" Nov.	196	1184	186	7131	513	206	*	189	1206	426	*	184	361	515	342	176	214	*	282	*	236	*
" Dec.	198	1272	184	8918	511	200	*	175	1233	424	450	178	375	535	342	179	202	19 613	278	*	230	*
1921 Jan.	172	1265	184	9788	493	190	276	169	1174	410	*	163	367	573	334	178	193	25 140	263	286	224	1643
" Feb.	165	1191	184	10080	482	178	*	155	1107	382	*	156	376	564	308	175	193	31 827	249	*	221	1494
" Mar.	160	1188	181	11073	434	172	*	154	1137	358	429	154	386	582	299	169	193	32 883	238	*	218	1423
" Apr.	156	1171	—	11241	417	165	*	149	1107	328	*	154	432	598	300	169	187	31 711	232	247	211	1450
" May	152	1152	168	10848	407	150	*	142	1117	317	*	162	421	598	292	168	184	32 640	213	*	208	1456
" June	144	1175	165	11001	419	148	*	141	1146	312	363	169	409	523	290	166	180	35 393	220	*	213	1445
" July	139	1274	161	—	410	154	236	145	1278	306	*	174	402	506	295	164	180	45 655	226	231	207	1346
" Aug.	134	1399	—	—	427	159	—	152	1324	317	*	177	417	518	297	163	179	53 100	225	*	204	—
" Sept.	133	1418	—	—	423	155	—	150	—	329	350	183	430	545	290	161	179	60 728	210	*	198	—
" Oct.	—	1532	154	—	—	—	—	150	—	331	—	—	461	561	—	156	168	—	200	228	—	—
" 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.

(f) Monthly figures relate to the 15th of the month until December 1920, and to the 1st of the month after January 1921.

(g) Average of selected weeks in the half-year.

(h) Until December 1920, 22 items.

(i) 11 foodstuffs, in addition to paraffin and methylated spirit.

(k) Quarterly index. From 1914 to 1919, index for the third quarter of each year.

(l) From 1914 to 1919 figures relate to average for year.

(m) Index numbers based on January instead of July 1914.

(n) Including wood, coal, paraffin and soap.

(o) For 1916 index relates to December, for 1917 to September.

(p) From 1914 to 1919 the figures relate to June.

(q) Index number of the Federation of Co-operative Societies. From 1914 to 1919 the figures relate to the whole country.

* No figures published.

— Figures not available.

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

Countries	South Africa (o)	Germany		Australia (g)	Belgium (c) (h)	Canada (i)	Denmark	United States	Finland	France (j)	India	Italy	Norway (k)	New Zealand (l)	Poland (p)	United Kingdom (d)	Sweden (m) (d)	Switzerland (d) (k)
No. of towns or localities	9	47 (e)	Berlin (f)	30	56	60	100	32	20	Paris	Bombay	Rome	30	25	Warsaw	630	40	23 (n)
Groups of items (see notes)	A. C. D. E.	A. C. D. E.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. E.	A. B. C. D. F.	A. C. D. E. G.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E. F.	A. B. C. D. E.	A. B. C. D. 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. C. D.
Original base period	1910	1913-1914	1913-1914	1911	Apr. 1914	July 1914	July 1914	1913	July 1914	1st half 1914	July 1914	1st half 1914	July 1914	1909-1913	Jan. 1914	July 1914	July 1914	June 1912
(¹)	(²)	(³)	(⁴)	(⁵)	(⁶)	(⁷)	(⁸)	(⁹)	(¹⁰)	(¹¹)	(¹²)	(¹³)	(¹⁴)	(¹⁵)	(¹⁶)	(¹⁷)	(¹⁸)	(¹⁹)
1914 July	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1915 "	103	"	"	119	"	97	116	102	"	"	"	99	117	107	"	125	"	119
1916 "	106	"	"	115	"	102	136	109	"	"	"	116	146	113	"	148	139	140
1917 "	114	"	"	116	"	130	155	128	"	"	"	146	190	119	"	180	166	180
1918 "	118	"	"	118	"	146	182	156	"	"	"	197	253	128	"	203	219	229
1919 "	126	"	"	132	"	155	211	175	"	238	"	205	275	133	"	208	257	261
1920 July	159	842	1125	"	453	190	262	"	911	"	189	313	"	149	"	255	"	253
" Aug.	158	795	1069	"	463	188	"	"	991	"	191	316	"	150	"	261	"	258
" Sept.	158	777	1038	165	471	186	"	"	1030	363	192	325	335	152	"	264	281	262
" Oct.	161	827	1104	"	477	187	"	"	1063	"	193	348	"	154	"	276	"	258
" Nov.	161	872	1097	"	476	185	"	"	1085	"	186	369	"	155	"	269	"	249
" Dec.	155	916	1146	162	468	181	"	198	1103	370	181	378	335	157	9 769	265	271	243
1921 Jan.	152	924	1122	"	450	175	264	"	1065	"	169	374	"	159	12 314	251	"	237
" Feb.	149	901	1090	"	434	168	"	"	1013	"	162	379	"	160	14 834	241	"	234
" Mar.	147	901	1035	160	411	165	"	"	1027	338	160	384	301	160	15 077	233	249	231
" Apr.	144	894	976	"	399	161	"	"	1008	"	160	411	"	159	15 658	228	"	212
" May	141	880	930	"	389	153	"	179	1012	"	167	396	"	159	17 723	219	"	210
" June.	136	896	1080	151	384	152	"	"	1050	307	173	390	302	158	22 478	219	236	214
" July	133	963	1125	"	379	155	237	"	1139	"	177	387	"	157	26 585	222	"	209
" Aug.	130	1045	1177	"	384	158	"	"	1175	"	180	391	"	"	34 812	220	"	206
" Sept.	"	1062	"	"	386	155	"	176	"	"	185	400	296	"	"	210	231	200
" Oct.	"	1146	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	203	"	"
" Nov.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"
" Dec.	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"	"

Groups of items included in the budgets:

A. Food. B. Clothing. C. Heating.
D. Lighting. E. Rent F. Miscellaneous.

(a) Monthly figures relate to average of month.

(b) Monthly figures relate to end of month.

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

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

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

(f) Kuczynski's index number. Minimum cost of subsistence.

(g) Index numbers relate to quarterly average.

(h) The index is a simple arithmetic average.

(i) Figures relate to the 15th of the month.

(j) For 1914 and 1919, figures relate to first half-year.

(k) From 1914 to 1919, figures relate to June.

(l) Monthly figures relate to 6 months preceding month in question.

(m) For 1916 figures relate to December, for 1917 to September.

(n) Index number of the Federation of Co-operative Societies. From 1914 to 1920 figures relate to the whole country.

(o) From 1914 to 1919 the figures relate to average for year.

(p) Index numbers based on January instead of July 1914.

* No figures published.

— Figures not available.

of three different types of household. There seems reason to suppose that the new series lends itself better to comparison with those of other countries. The second change is in Poland, for which there is given a series communicated by the Polish Government, and containing more recent figures. In table II, two new cost of living index numbers have been added, those of South Africa and Poland, which have been communicated by the Governments of those states. The reader is referred to the notes on these countries for details of the methods of calculation used. 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 a standard budget which gives 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 standard budget are fixed according to observations made on a certain number of working-class families, or according to theoretical calculations based, as regards foodstuffs in particular, on the number of calories which are necessary to support life. In some countries the basis of calculation is the total consumption of the area in question, computed with the help of statistics of production, imports, and exports. These different quantities, which are invariable, are then multiplied, either by the prices actually current at the various periods, or else by the relative prices in relation to the selected year. In either case it is assumed that the family consumption does not change. The total expenditure so 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 computations 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, wherever possible, the cost of living index numbers for groups of commodities have been given for the latest six months available. A certain number of countries limit their investigations on the cost of living to foodstuffs. As foodstuffs, 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 several 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 months April to October as compared with the previous month. Four countries—Finland, the Netherlands, Poland, and South Africa—have been included in this table, which did not appear in the corresponding tables in previous numbers of the *Review*, because no sufficiently recent figures were available. Australia has been omitted, as no figures have been received this month. In addition, the most recent available index number for each country has been included. This figure, therefore, refers to the last month for which the variations in points are given.

TABLE III. CHANGES IN INDEX NUMBERS FOR FOODSTUFFS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Country	Increase or decrease on the preceding month expressed in "points"							Latest available index number (Base : July 1914 = 100.)
	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	
South Africa	- 4	- 4	- 8	- 5	- 5	- 1	•	133
Germany (<i>Statistisches Reichsamt</i>)	-17	-19	+23	+ 99	+125	+19	-114	1532
Belgium	-17	-10	+12	- 9	+17	4	•	423
Canada	- 7	-15	- 2	+ 6	+ 5	- 4	•	155
United States	- 5	- 7	- 1	+ 9	+ 7	- 2	•	150
Finland	-30	+10	+29	+132	+46	•	•	1324
France (Paris)	-30	-11	- 5	- 6	+11	+12	+ 2	331
India (Bombay)	-11	+ 9	+ 7	+ 5	+ 3	+ 6	•	181
Italy (Rome)	+16	-11	-12	- 7	+15	+13	+ 31	461
Italy (Milan)	+ 6	0	-75	- 17	+12	+27	+ 16	561
Norway	+ 1	- 8	- 2	+ 5	+ 2	- 7	•	290
New Zealand	0	- 1	- 2	- 2	- 1	- 2	- 5	161
Netherlands (Amsterdam)	- 6	- 6	- 4	0	- 1	0	- 11	168
Poland	-1172	+929	+2753	+10262	+7445	+7628	•	60728
United Kingdom ¹	- 6	-14	+ 2	+ 6	- 1	-15	- 10	200
Switzerland ¹	- 7	- 3	+ 5	- 6	- 3	- 6	•	198

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

The rise mentioned above is still in progress in six countries—France, India, Italy, Finland, Germany, and Poland. In the last three countries the increases are so considerable that it is no longer possible to attribute them to seasonal fluctuations in prices. They are no doubt directly connected with the extreme depreciation of the currency in those countries at present, especially in Germany and Poland.

In Belgium, Norway, the Netherlands, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom, prices have again been falling quite definitely, after having risen or remained stationary for from one to three months. They have fallen steadily in South Africa and New Zealand. In the United States the index number rose in July and August, fell slightly in September, and remained stationary in October. In Canada the summer rise stopped in September, but prices have not yet begun to fall. It seems, therefore, that except in a few countries the rise in foodstuffs is within sight of its end.

In the other groups of commodities the same movement as before is still in progress, so far as the latest available data allow of drawing any conclusion. Clothing is falling fairly generally; so, also, are fuel and lighting. Rents are tending to rise, slowly, but quite distinctly. This statement obviously again does not hold for countries such as Germany and Poland, where successive falls in the value of money are reflected in continually soaring prices.

NOTES ON DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

SOUTH AFRICA

The cost of living index number communicated by the South African Government covers food, heating, lighting, and rent, but not clothing and miscellaneous articles. Up to 1920 the standard pre-war budget was used in weighting. Beginning with 1921, the weighting is based on the general consumption of the articles in question, computed from statistics of production, imports, and exports for the period 1917 to 1919. These cost of living index numbers rose fairly slowly during the war, and more rapidly in 1920. The maximum (an increase of 61 per cent.) was reached in October-November 1920, after which prices fell fairly rapidly. The latest available figures show that in August 1921 the increase was only 30 per cent. of the pre-war prices, or very nearly the level of 1919 (see tables I and II).

GERMANY

The cost of living index number published by the *Statistisches Reichsamt* covers food, rent, heating, and lighting, but not clothing and miscellaneous articles. During recent months, however, it has been rising rapidly, and has now gone far beyond the maximum reached in December 1920 (see tables I and II). This very rapid increase in prices is quite certainly due to the fall in the exchange, although it has as yet by no means caught up with the spectacular decline in the latter. As before, index numbers have been calculated from the data published by Kuczynski, giving the maximum cost of subsistence for a family of four persons in Berlin. The following table shows that the increase in prices is quite general, and that it exists in all the groups. The index numbers in almost

all the groups reached entirely new maxima during October. The only exception is the clothing group, for which the October 1921 index is not so high as that of April 1920. It is, however, perceptibly higher than in previous months, though it should be noted that only two items are included in the group.

TABLE IV

Groups	Index number (Base: Aug. 1913-July 1914 = 100.)						Cost in marks
	1921						1921
	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Oct.
Food	1245	1449	1540	1592	1653	1796	Mk. 176
Clothing	1077	1077	1077	1197	1197	1436	84
Heating and lighting	1316	1316	1316	1316	1368	1421	27
Rent	164	164	182	182	182	182	10
Miscellaneous	1148	1252	1304	1357	1409	1548	89
Total	990	1080	1125	1177	1212	1340	386

The following table has been prepared from figures of the statistical offices of Kiel, Hanover, Nuremberg and Ludwigshafen. It gives the fluctuations in the prices of clothing; index numbers of the general cost of living, including clothing, have been added for purposes of comparison.

TABLE V

Town	Base	Groups	1921					
			April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Kiel	July 1914	Clothing	1604	1604	1604	1604	1604	1702
		Cost of living	972	940	1027	1021	1103	1124
Hanover	July 1914	Clothing	1076	1007	1007	1007	1097	1215
		Cost of living	911	887	946	954	1027	1070
Nuremberg	Jan. 1914	Clothing	1620	1612	1585	1585	1629	1856
		Cost of living	861	909	979	1034	1121	1185
Ludwigshafen	June 1914	Clothing	1632	1642	1638	1638	1645	1645
		Cost of living	1131	1130	1165	1249	1253	1294

It appears, therefore, that clothing prices are again rising, after their fall in 1920.

BELGIUM

The Belgian Government publishes two index numbers for retail prices. The first is a non-weighted average of 56 articles of food, clothing, fuel, lighting, and miscellaneous articles; this index has been rising again during the last three months, after having fallen steadily since November 1920 (see table II). The second is a weighted index number of 22 articles of food only, and is given for three groups of household classified according to daily income in 1910; the first those with an income of less than 5 francs (see table I); the second

with an income of 5 to 8 francs; and the third with an income of 8 francs and over a day. The following table gives the results for each of these groups of households during recent months.

TABLE VI
(Base : July 1914=100)

Income groups	1920	1921					
	Sept.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Less than 5 francs per day	501	417	407	419	410	427	423
Five to eight francs per day	499	417	404	414	405	422	419
Eight francs and over per day	500	421	405	416	409	427	422

CANADA

The cost of living index number published by the Department of Labour covers food, heating, lighting, and rent, but not clothing and miscellaneous articles. It was noted last month that the index numbers for 1 August and 1 September were rising, mainly on account of the increase in food prices. On 1 October the food index number showed no change, while the general index number indicated a fall. One may therefore attribute the increase during the two summer months to seasonal causes.

TABLE VII
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	1920	1921						
	1 Sept.	1 April	1 May	1 June	1 July	1 Aug.	1 Sept.	1 Oct.
Food	215	171	165	150	148	154	159	159
Heating and lighting	207	208	202	199	196	193	191	—
Rent	134	138	139	140	141	142	142	—
Total	186	165	161	153	152	155	158	155

UNITED STATES

In the last number of the *Review* there were given the general results from the cost of living investigations of the Bureau of Labour Statistics, covering 32 towns. Detailed index numbers are given below for six of the principal towns in different States.

TABLE VIII

(Base : December 1914=100)

Groups	1920	1921		1920	1921		1920	1921	
	Dec.	May	Sept.	Dec.	May	Sept.	Dec.	May	Sept.
	Boston (Massachusetts)			Chicago (Illinois)			Cleveland (Ohio)		
Food	174	142	152	171	142	152	172	137	148
Clothing	293	250	219	259	223	186	256	227	191
Heating and light- ing	206	198	194	184	165	167	195	190	192
Rent	126	130	132	149	178	180	180	188	183
Furniture and household goods	326	271	240	306	262	238	221	187	168
Miscellaneous	197	196	195	197	193	196	234	230	223
Total	197	174	173	193	178	175	204	185	180

Groups	New York (New York State)			Philadelphia (Pennsylvania)			San Francisco and Oakland (California)		
Food	174	143	150	168	138	145	165	133	141
Clothing	302	260	232	284	245	212	276	241	210
Heating and light- ing	188	196	192	196	186	189	166	163	165
Rent	138	142	144	138	144	147	115	122	124
Furniture and household goods	286	257	237	283	236	209	276	244	222
Miscellaneous	216	218	218	222	219	216	185	184	187
Total	210	182	180	201	180	176	185	167	165

Food prices in September 1921 were slightly higher than in May. Clothing, furniture, and household goods, on the contrary, declined. Fuel, lighting, and miscellaneous articles rose in some towns and fell in others. Rents were still rising in all the towns in question except Cleveland. The general cost of living index number was slightly lower.

FINLAND

The cost of living index numbers published by the Ministry of Social Welfare on the whole show increases during August 1921. Only in the price of fuel is there a slight decrease. No figures have been received for the tobacco and newspaper groups, a matter of no great importance, however, since each includes only one article.

TABLE IX
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	1921					
	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.
Food	1137	1107	1117	1147	1278	1324
Clothing	1031	1022	1017	1032	1038	1059
Heating	1266	1291	1269	1283	1278	1275
Rent	418	419	419	535	553	575
Tobacco	1362	1322	1311	1316	1314	—
Newspapers	818	818	818	818	818	—
Total	1027	1008	1012	1051	1139	1175

HUNGARY

The cost of living index numbers published by the Confederation of Hungarian Trades Unions in *Szakszervezeti értesítő* are the only available data on the subject for Hungary. They are therefore given below, but with some reservations, for there is no complete information explaining how the figures have been calculated.

TABLE X
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	1921					
	Jan.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Food	5739	4078	4424	4521	5631	6116
Heating and lighting	5308	4645	4776	5094	5268	5732
Other household expenses	7389	6111	6944	6000	6611	6444
Clothing	9720	4937	4789	5325	6189	7679
Rent	167	198	198	198	237	237
Miscellaneous	2177	7199	7199	7199	7471	7471
Total	4745	3683	3840	3947	4597	5055

As already pointed out in the *Review* for September 1921, the index numbers for all groups were falling generally during the first quarter of 1921, with the exception of the miscellaneous group, which rose rapidly in consequence of a large increase in taxes and other charges. From June to September, however, the movement has been in the opposite direction. There has been a perceptible rise in all the other groups, while the miscellaneous group has fallen slightly. The general index number for September 1921 has accordingly reached a higher level than it had at the beginning of the year, and the cost of living is nearly 500 times the pre-war figure.

INDIA

The first number (September 1921) of the *Labour Gazette* published by the Bombay Presidency Labour Office contains information on the method followed in calculating the cost of living

index numbers given in previous numbers of the *Review*. The budget contains 17 articles of food, 3 of heating and lighting, 3 of clothing, and rent. Foodstuffs are mainly vegetables, seeing that most of the population of Bombay is almost entirely vegetarian. The weighting is done according to the general consumption in Bombay of the articles in question, computed from statistics of production, exports, and imports, for the period 1909 to 1914. The rent index number is the result of a special enquiry.

TABLE XI
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	1920	1921					
	Sept.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Food	193	154	162	169	174	177	183
Clothing	299	253	260	263	263	263	268
Heating and lighting	151	177	178	177	176	176	176
Rent	165	165	165	165	165	165	165
Total	192	160	167	173	177	180	185

A steady rise in the general index number is shown during 1921. This is due mainly to the increase in food and clothing prices. Fuel, lighting, and rent have been almost stationary. The 1920 maxima have not, however, yet been reached.

ITALY

The old series of cost of living index numbers in Rome and Milan given in tables I, and II based on pre-war budgets, show increases once more during recent months. However, the new series of index numbers given by the municipal offices of different Italian towns and based on a post-war budget as agreed on by the Statistical Congress of Milan in July 1920 show less pronounced increases. The fall which was quite evident in the various towns during the second quarter of 1921 came to an end in August and September.

TABLE XII
(Base : July 1920=100)

Town	1920	1921						
	Oct.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.
Rome	113	130	125	122	119	121	123	—
Turin	106	131	118	112	105	108	112	—
Milan	110	131	132	118	115	115	119	—
Florence	104	130	121	119	114	116	119	125
Genoa	110	120	118	113	118	119	—	—
Venice	106	118	117	108	103	111	114	—
Cremona	107	138	133	128	108	113	117	118

With regard to Milan, the group index numbers given below show that the rise there is due to increases in the price of foodstuffs and clothing. The index numbers for the other groups remain unchanged. It should, however, be noted that they are based on quarterly investigations.

TABLE XIII
(Base : July 1920=100)

Groups	1920	1921					
	Sept.	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.
Food	104	135	137	124	119	119	124
Clothing	115	107	107	82	79	78	82
Heating and lighting	112	172	172	147	147	147	147
Rent	100	129	129	129	129	129	129
Miscellaneous	100	124	124	124	124	124	124
Total	106	131	132	118	115	115	119

NEW ZEALAND

The following table gives a different index number from the one previously adopted in this note, and still appearing in tables I and II. It is calculated by the Census and Statistics Office. This index is in the form of an average for the quarter; the earlier index was monthly, and gave an average for the six months ending with the month in question. The new index has the advantage of giving separately the index numbers for each group. Both index numbers are based on the current prices for foodstuffs and rent in 25 towns in New Zealand, and for fuel and lighting in addition in the four principal towns. The weighting is based on the total consumption for the period 1909 to 1913 in the four towns only.

TABLE XIV
(Base : 1909-1913=100)

Groups	1920	1921	
	4th quarter	1st quarter	2nd quarter
Food	1903	1860	1794
Heating and lighting	2003	2027	2079
Rent	1151	1191	1191
Total	1675	1666	1634

The above table shows that the general cost of living index number reached its maximum at the end of 1920, and fell to some extent during the two first quarters of 1921. This fall is due entirely to the reduction in food prices, inasmuch as rent, fuel, and lighting were still rising.

POLAND

The Polish Government has communicated new index numbers on the cost of living in Warsaw. They cover food, clothing, heating, lighting, rent, and miscellaneous articles, and are weighted according to a theoretical budget. They differ slightly from those hitherto published in the *Review*. In the case of the cost of living index number, the difference is due to the substitution of January 1914 for December 1920 as the base. In the case of the food index number, the difference must be due to the actual composition of that number, for the figures previously published here were also reduced to the base January 1914, but are not the same as the present series. According to these new index numbers the cost of living is 348 times higher than it was before the war, and food prices about 607 times higher (see tables I and II). The following table gives index numbers based on January 1921; these numbers show the recent fluctuations in food prices in certain towns in Poland.

TABLE XV
(Base : Jan. 1921=100)

Town	1921					
	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June
Warsaw	100	124	130	124	130	140
Bielostok	100	116	120	120	112	125
Cracow	100	116	116	117	125	140
Lemberg	100	101	106	113	122	144
Lodz	100	114	109	101	96	110
Posen	100	118	134	131	134	176

Prices have increased, but with some fluctuations, which may be due either to lack of precision in the methods used by certain towns or to the instability of prices resulting from the violence of the present crisis.

UNITED KINGDOM

The index numbers published by the Ministry of Labour showed declines during recent months. The July rise seems to have been only temporary. The fall is very clearly marked in the food group; less so in the other groups. Rents, on the other hand, still show a slight increase.

TABLE XVI
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	1920	1921					
	1 Nov.	1 June	1 July	1 Aug.	1 Sept.	1 Oct.	1 Nov.
Food	291	218	220	226	225	210	200
Clothing ⁽¹⁾	420	300	290	280	270	265	260
Heating and lighting ⁽¹⁾	240	255	260	250	242	238	235
Rent ⁽¹⁾	142	145	145	152	152	153	155
Miscellaneous ⁽¹⁾	230	210	210	210	210	210	210
Total	276	218	219	222	220	210	203

(1) Approximate figures.

RUSSIA

Since the introduction of the new economic policy in Russia last April the markets have re-opened and trade has been comparatively free, under certain restrictions. The following table gives the latest prices of some of the principal commodities in Moscow at the beginning of October, which are published regularly by the Bolshevik press. As foreign trade is a state monopoly and as private trade in Russia is limited to goods sold by the producer in the market, the prices hereafter given are, in fact, the retail prices on the Moscow market.

It should, however, be remembered that prices have no stability in Russia, and that the value of an article may vary considerably in the course of even a single day. Hence a great deal of trade is still done by barter.

TABLE XVII

Commodity		Oct. 2	Oct. 9
		Roubles	Roubles
Bread (rye)	per lb.	2,800	2,700
" (wheat)	" "	8,300	8,500
Flour (rye)	" pood (1)	130,000	125,000
" (wheat)	" "	300,000	320,000
Herring (large)		5,500	6,000
Beef	per lb.	7,500	8,000
Mutton	" "	9,000	10,000
Milk	" pint.	1,400	1,600
Butter (fresh)	" lb.	28,000	30,000
Potatoes	" "	500	550
Cabbage	" "	800	700
Sugar (crystallised)	" "	24,000	25,000
Salt	" "	2,900	2,800

(1) 1 pood = 36 English lbs. approximately.

From the above it is seen that with a few exceptions the Moscow prices rose in the space of a week (from October 2 to October 9) by a percentage varying from 2 to 14 per cent. The increase on pre-war prices goes far beyond anything reached in other countries.

SWEDEN

A fairly general rise appears in the cost of living index numbers published by the Department of Social Affairs and given in the following table. Rent is the only group showing a slight rise on 1 October. The index number for taxes is unchanged.

TABLE XVIII
(Base : July 1914=100)

Groups	1920	1921			
	1 Oct.	1 Jan.	1 April	1 July	1 Oct.
Food	298	286	247	231	223
Clothing	390	355	295	270	250
Heating and lighting	400	380	316	264	231
Rent	155	155	155	155	163
Taxes	290	290	372	372	372
Miscellaneous	245	245	235	225	220
Total	281	271	249	236	231

OTHER COUNTRIES

For certain countries no figures other than those in tables I and II are available. In South Africa the food index number was falling up to September, but more slowly during the last two months. In Australia the food index number for October was slightly lower than that for July. The figures for the intervening months are not available. In France (Paris) the food index number rose again between August and September. The level reached during the latter month is, however, still below the maximum. In the Netherlands (Amsterdam) the food index number fell noticeably in September, after remaining almost stationary for four months. In Switzerland both index numbers fell again after the temporary rise in July. In Czecho-Slovakia the index number for food and fuel rose very perceptibly during July 1921. For Denmark and Norway no figures have been received later than those given in the last number of the *Review*.

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EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT



Statistics of the Unemployed

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 December (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 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, and 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 over 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 *Review* for January 1921 (2), any international comparison of unemployment statistics is prevented by differences

(1) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 80.

(2) *Ibid.*, Vol. I, No. 1, Jan. 1921, p. 118.

STATISTICS OF NUMBERS UNEMPLOYED

Period	Germany				Australia		Belgium			Canada		Denmark		Massachusetts		Norway			Netherlands				United Kingdom				Sweden																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																															
	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment	numbers covered	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	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	numbers covered (in 1,000's)	percentage unemployed	index of unemployment																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																																	

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

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.

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
29 Oct. "	123,638 ⁽¹⁾

(1) This figure relates only to places with a population of 10,000 and over. The corresponding return on 1 October was 152,202. This, however, includes the return for Leipzig, which is not included in the figure for 29 October.

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
24 September	20,436
29 October	14,969
26 November	19,590

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
4 Nov.	11	100	16,518
2 Dec.	8	75	12,374

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, after which its effects became steadily less marked. The increase in the number of unemployed persons in November is partly due to a seasonal diminution in the demand for labour.

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.

Date		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
1 Oct.	"	473,216	—

SWITZERLAND

Statistics compiled from returns supplied by employment exchanges have been published by the Federal Labour Office 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.

Date		Number totally unemployed	Number on short time
End of June	1921	54,039	76,116
" "	July	55,605	79,888
" "	Aug.	63,182	74,309
" "	Sept.	66,646	69,421
" "	Oct.	74,238	59,835

NOTES TO TABLE

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.

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 cover unemployment due to sickness and other disabilities. Unions which do not pay unemployment benefit are included. 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 and Employment.*

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.

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.

Norway : *Meddelelser fra det Statistiske Centralbyra.*

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

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 Vakvereenigingen* 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.

United Kingdom : *The Labour Gazette.*

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.

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.

MIGRATION

Notes on Migration

It is the purpose of the International Labour Office to publish in the *Review* from month to month a summary of the more salient events relating to migration. The present article, for instance, gives a summary of immigration legislation in the United States, at the same time indicating the trend of opinion on questions relating to immigration. The activities of the British Government in conjunction with the oversea Dominions are also noted, and developments in the policy of Argentine and Japan are given. The recent and rather extensive efforts of the shipping companies to improve the conditions under which emigrants are forced to travel are considered at some length.

REGULATION OF IMMIGRATION IN THE UNITED STATES

According to a statement published by the Bureau of Immigration on 30 August last, 805,228 immigrants were admitted to the United States for the fiscal year ended 30 June 1921, as compared with 430,001 for the previous fiscal year, and an annual average of 1,034,940 for the five years 1910 to 1914. The number of emigrants leaving the country during the year was 247,718, as compared with 288,315 for the preceding year. These figures do not include either non-immigrant aliens or non-emigrant aliens. The significance of these figures is brought out by comparison with the number of aliens who will be admitted in the year 1921-1922, under the provisions of the Act of 19 May 1921. This will be a maximum of 355,825, as the Act limits the number of aliens of any given nationality admitted to the United States to 3 per cent. of the number of persons of that nationality living in the country at the time of the census of 1910. In reality the number will be very much less, because many of the countries which have the right to the largest quotas for various reasons will fail to reach the maximum allowed.

The restrictions of this Act are felt mainly by Jewish immigrants and by those from eastern and south-eastern Europe. At the time of the 1910 census most of the foreign residents in the United States were natives of central and north-western Europe (Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United Kingdom), while in recent years the great majority of the immigrants have come from other parts of Europe (Italy, Greece, Poland, Russia, the old Austro-Hungarian Empire, etc.). The effect of the new Act is to allow the admission of 197,577 immigrants from the countries of central and north-western Europe, and

158,248 from the rest of the world. The so-called "old" immigration is therefore favoured at the expense of the "new" immigration.

Many difficulties have arisen in carrying out the provisions of the Act. Twenty per cent. of the total number admissible in the year are allowed to enter the United States in any one month. Each American port has a certain proportion of the quota for each country allotted to it, and already on 8 August a number of immigrants in excess of the July and August quotas were detained in various American ports. The Commissioner-General of Immigration thereupon issued an order to the effect that they were to be admitted under personal bond and charged to the year's totals. On 15 October the year's quota was already exhausted for the Atlantic Islands, Palestine, Spain, Turkey District, and Smyrna District, and the October monthly quota for Africa, Jugo-Slavia, Greece, New Zealand, Portugal, and Syria.

The right of the Commissioner-General of Immigration to make regulations dividing into twelve monthly parts the annual quota of each nationality admissible under the Act, as well as to detain or exclude aliens in excess of this quota, was challenged by a Greek, who applied for a writ of habeas corpus on the grounds that the law was being unfairly construed, that the aliens deportation was unfair and discriminating, and that he should be detained and given priority on the next month's quota. The Judge of the Federal Circuit Court dismissed the writ, holding that the fixing of a quota for each month was made essential by the terms of the Act, and that, as there is a proviso giving preference as far as possible to certain classes of immigrants, it follows that there must be power to exclude arrivals in excess of the monthly quotas.

Additional responsibilities have necessarily been placed upon the shipping companies, which have to take all rejected immigrants back to the point of departure, and there has been a great deal of racing among the ships of different companies, each one being desirous of arriving first at the beginning of each month and landing its passengers. Immediately before the new law came into force very large numbers of intending emigrants arrived, and were detained for some time, at various European ports, awaiting an opportunity to leave for the United States. It is reported, for example, that in June there were over 3,000 emigrants held up in Antwerp, owing to the fact that the steamers were able to take far fewer emigrants on board than was anticipated. Many of these emigrants had already travelled considerable distances from their homes.

Bills before Congress

The legislation in question in the United States has met with both strong support and vigorous criticism. Many Bills have been introduced in Congress to amend it in various ways. While most of these Bills represent merely the personal opinions of the members of Congress who introduced them, there are others which are representative of a certain body of opinion. The Bill (H.R. 7804, 16 July 1921) introduced by Mr. Albert Johnson, Chairman of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalisation, is intended "to provide for the more thorough supervision of immigration by the passport visa system". This would require every alien entering the United States to present a passport issued by a government whose political existence is recognised by the

Government of the United States. It is prescribed that immigrant inspectors are to be appointed as vice-consuls at American consulates at points from which emigrants leave for the United States. While large powers are given to the inspectors to grant or refuse applications of intending immigrants, this does not remove the need of examination by immigration officials and by medical authorities on arrival at the United States ports, nor will it relieve transportation companies of responsibility and duties imposed upon them by law. Aliens, however, have the same right of appeal against decisions of inspectors as they would have if rejected at a United States port, such appeals being made through the official channels of the Department of State. The Bill contains the usual provision as to excludable classes of aliens.

Another Bill, which represents a certain type of opinion in the United States, is that introduced by Senator Thomas Sterling, of the Senate Committee on Immigration. This Bill (S. 1253, 27 April 1921) embodies the views of the National Committee for Constructive Immigration Legislation. The principles of this committee are stated (1) by Mr. Sidney Gulick, the honorary secretary, to be the annual admission of "only so many as we can assimilate and Americanise, and also so many as we can steadily and wholesomely employ without lowering American standards of labour and living". The Bill aims at setting up an immigration board to determine how many immigrants of any nationality and racial group shall be admitted to the United States. Expressed concretely, the number to be admitted in any year is in no case to exceed 10 per cent. of the number of American-born citizens whose father or mother belong to the national and racial group in question and of naturalised citizens of that group, as shown by the last census. Certain relatives of persons living in the United States are to be admitted, even if the quota is already complete. The board is to forbid all immigration from any country the government of which refuses or omits to "recognise the full and complete American citizenship of every person born in the United States". This Bill, and also another (H.R.7542, 1 July 1921), introduced by Congressman Kelly of Pennsylvania, provides for a system of inspection of emigrants, not only at seaports, but at inland points of departure.

The Sterling Bill also contains the usual enumeration of excludable classes, and prohibits immigrants smuggling their way into the United States, with the exception of those who can prove "that they are fleeing from religious or political persecution, and afford reasonable expectation that they will be law-abiding citizens". A considerable part of the work of the board under the Bill will consist in carrying out a programme of Americanisation and naturalisation of immigrants, and prosecuting studies of industrial conditions abroad affecting emigration. An important feature of the Bill is the clause repealing all special laws dealing with Chinese immigration; Asiatic immigration will in future be covered by the general provisions of the Act.

One or two points are worthy of note in connection with these Bills. One is that difficulties with other governments regarding the right of American officials to examine and inspect intending emigrants on foreign soil might possibly be encountered unless

(1) Cf. *The Nation*, 2 Feb. 1921, p. 178. New York.

a previous arrangement has been arrived at between them and the United States Government. The International Emigration Commission set up by the International Labour Organisation ⁽²⁾ took up this whole question. This aspect of the immigration question was also referred to by Mr. Tittoni, President of the Italian Senate, in a lecture delivered by him on 24 August to the Institute of Politics at Williams College, Williamstown, Massachusetts ⁽³⁾. He suggested that the faithfulness of Italy in complying with the strict requirements of American law should perhaps give her the right to ask that unilateral action should be replaced by co-operation between the two countries. More recently the official organ of the Commissioner-General of Emigration of Italy ⁽⁴⁾ criticised the provisions of the Bill introduced into the American Congress by Mr. Kelly of Pennsylvania for its failure to understand "the limits beyond which American law cannot go without violating international law... In so far as it aims at the organisation of an official American service in foreign ports, [the Bill] is assuming an object which is outside the powers of American legislation". In the United States also this matter is being carefully considered ⁽⁵⁾.

The Kelly and Sterling Bills would benefit the intending emigrant more than Mr. Johnson's Bill. The latter provides only for examination at the port of embarkation; the former Bills make provision for inspection in the country of origin. This would be a great advantage to persons travelling from countries without seaports, such as Czecho-Slovakia, Hungary, Austria, Switzerland, etc., who in many cases have long journeys before they reach the port of embarkation.

Emigrants even now have generally to submit to a physical examination under the direction of an American consular officer at ports of embarkation. This examination is made, however, under the authority of the quarantine law, and does not preclude the necessity of another examination at the port of disembarkation. In Canada, on the other hand, the United States maintain full staffs of immigration officers, who conduct examinations in Canada precisely as if the applicants had presented themselves at the frontier. These officers are subject to the same rules and procedure as those operating in the United States. Moreover, the Canadian immigration authorities exercise similar functions in the United States.

Bills affecting Foreign-born Residents

There are also Bills before Congress which are of interest to aliens who have already been admitted and who are resident in the United States ⁽⁶⁾. They are concerned principally with the Americanisation of immigrants. Thus a Bill has been introduced into the House by Mr. Towner (H. R. 7, 11 April 1921) and into the Senate by Mr. Sterling (S. 1252, 27 April 1921) to appropriate \$ 7,500,000 to

(2) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, pp. 85-110.

(3) *New York Times*, 25 Aug. 1921.

(4) *Bolletino della Emigrazione*, Aug.-Sept. 1921, p. 598. Rome.

(5) Frances A. KELLOR: *Future Immigration*, in the *North American Review*, July 1921, Philadelphia. The point is made that such efforts on the part of the American Government will be misunderstood, and in any case the matter will less concern the amount of immigration than the status of aliens in foreign countries.

(6) *Foreign-Born*, Aug.-Sept. 1921, pp. 278-279. New York.

encourage the States in this task. Immigrants are to be taught "to speak and read the English language and to understand and appreciate the government of the United States and the duties of citizenship". Another Bill, introduced into the House by Mr. Fess (H. R. 5837, 5 May 1921) and into the Senate by Mr. Kenyon (S. 1607 4 May 1921), aims at the establishment of a Department of Public Welfare. It provides that a Division of Education shall be created, and shall look after "the instruction of children and illiterate adults, the training of teachers, and the Americanisation of those persons in the United States who lack knowledge of our language or institutions". Again, a Bill has been introduced into the House by Mr. Upshaw (H. R. 2488, 12 April 1921) to make it unlawful to circulate any publication issued in the United States in any foreign language, "unless said publication shall carry in parallel column a full and accurate translation of the same in the English language".

Several proposals (7) are also made for the amendment of the Act of 29 June 1906, which established a Bureau of Immigration and Naturalisation. Mr. Johnson, Chairman of the Committee of the House on Immigration, has also introduced a Bill (H.R. 5346, 27 April 1921) on this subject. It aims at reorganising the Bureau in such a way as to authorise it to "provide for the guidance, protection, and better economic distribution and adjustment of our alien population". Section 5 of the Bill would compel every alien in the United States to register annually at a cost of \$2; at the time of his registration the alien would be obliged to give a considerable amount of information of a personal nature. Another proposal, put forward by Mr. Mills (H. R. 5886, 6 May 1921), is that all aliens should be compelled to register at the immigration stations, that an alien may request a certificate stating that he is qualified for citizenship (this certificate to remain valid for not more than six months), and that no alien who cannot speak English shall be naturalised. Another is that embodied in Mr. Hickey's Bill (H.R. 6157, 12 May 1921) to the effect that every alien shall be compelled to register with the immigration authorities and submit a statement of his desire to become a citizen of the United States, that he will learn the English language and become acquainted with the form of government and institutions of the country, and obey its law. No alien shall be eligible for citizenship in the absence of such a record. Within two years he must make declaration of intention to become a citizen, or be deported. Within another three years the declarant shall meet all requirements of the law relating to naturalisation and citizenship, or be deported. An immigrant must, therefore, become an American citizen within five years of his arrival in the country or he will not be allowed to remain.

State Legislation

With regard to State legislation (8) the following Acts and Bills of the year 1921 may be noted. In California an Act has been passed providing for classes of instruction in citizenship for applicants who have filed declarations of intention to become citizens of the United States. In Pennsylvania an Act has been passed on the subject of licenses to sell steamship tickets. It is laid down that no

(7) *Ibid.* pp. 279-280.

(8) *Ibid.* Oct. 1921, pp. 309-310.

steamship or railroad companies shall receive deposits of money on account of the sale of steamship tickets. It is stipulated also that every person or corporation applying for a license to sell such tickets shall cause a copy of his application to be advertised in one daily newspaper of general circulation in the country in which he intends to do business, and also in the legal journal of that country, once a week for four consecutive weeks. The application itself must be accompanied by a list of the steamship lines for which the applicant is authorised agent, this list not to contain less than three such lines.

Care of Immigrants in American Ports

The Commissioner-General of Immigration has appointed an advisory committee serving without compensation to conduct an enquiry in regard to institutions of public welfare engaged in working for the benefit of newly arrived immigrants. This work is at present entirely done by voluntary organisations, and the function of this committee is to find out how the United States Immigration Bureau can organise a satisfactory system under its own control. There are, at present, a multitude of bodies at work at Ellis Island, New York City, where the great bulk of immigrants land. Each of these organisations is limited in its scope, and there is almost certainly overlapping in certain directions and lack of activity in others.

HYGIENIC MEASURES ADOPTED AT PORTS BY SHIPPING COMPANIES

One of the questions which is occupying the special attention of public authorities and other persons dealing with immigration is that of hygiene and care of the emigrant on his journey. The International Emigration Commission adopted several resolutions on the question (*). Various shipping companies have taken action in this matter. At Cherbourg and Havre large emigrant hotels have recently been constructed. Near Southampton the North Atlantic shipping companies are establishing a large "home" for emigrants in which there will be accommodation for 2,800 persons. At Danzig conditions have also been improved, and the institutions already existing in Hamburg and Bremen are beginning to function once more.

At Antwerp a steamship company, which carries a large number of emigrants passing through Belgium in transit, opened a large disinfection establishment in September 1921 at a cost of about one million Belgian francs. There are also four hotels for the reception of emigrants and one for quarantine purposes. While the institution in question is intended for emigrants who embark on the ships of the line to which it belongs, it is also, on payment, at the disposal of other companies which take emigrants from the port of Antwerp. The examination of emigrants on departure by the port authorities and the representatives of the United States quarantine service is carried out in this establishment.

(9) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, pp. 85-110.

When the emigrants, who come mainly from eastern Europe, arrive at Antwerp, generally from 100 to 300 at a time in special trains, they are taken by the company's agents to the emigrants' reception hotels, where they remain until they have been bathed, disinfected, and fumigated. This is all done in special rooms, those for men and women being absolutely separate. The emigrant is carefully examined for vermin or disease of any kind, washed, rubbed with oil, and generally cared for. All his clothes and luggage are sent to disinfecting rooms. No communication whatever is allowed between arriving emigrants and those who are ready to depart. As soon as disinfection is complete, the emigrants are sent with their luggage to special buildings, called quarantine hotels, where they await embarkation under the supervision of the company in agreement with the American quarantine authorities. If they have to wait a considerable time before obtaining a passage and have to go into the town, they are obliged to leave the quarantine hotel, and are not admitted again until they have been once more disinfected.

MIGRATION IN THE BRITISH EMPIRE

The majority of those persons who migrate from the British Isles go to other parts of the Empire. For example, during the first nine months of 1921, 165,581 British subjects left permanent residence in the United Kingdom to take up permanent residence in non-European countries. Of this total, 61,630 went to British North America, 30,307 to Australia and New Zealand, 10,095 to British South Africa, 6,322 to India and Ceylon, and 4,855 to other parts of the Empire, making a total of 113,209 migrants to the Empire; while 47,568 went to the United States, and 4,804 to other foreign countries, a total to places outside the Empire of 52,372. The Irish go mainly to the United States, the vast majority of other British migrants to the Dominions and colonies.

Decisions of the Imperial Conference

A conference ⁽¹⁰⁾ on state-aided Empire settlement was held in London from 28 January to 4 February 1921 by representatives of the British Government and of the Governments of Canada, Australia, and New Zealand; Viscount Milner, representing the British Government, stated that the object of the conference was to advise upon a policy of oversea settlement which should tend to bring about the best distribution of the man-power of the Empire and so to develop and strengthen the whole Empire. He pointed out that oversea settlement should not be regarded as a means of dealing directly with abnormal unemployment in the United Kingdom at any given moment, but as a means of remedying fluctuations of trade by developing the country's best markets and of permanently minimising the risk of unemployment throughout the Empire.

(10) CONFERENCE OF PRIME MINISTERS AND REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, THE DOMINIONS, AND INDIA, held in June, July, and August 1921. *Summary of Proceedings and Documents.* (Cmd. 1474). London, H.M. Stationery Office. Aug. 1921.

The special attention of the conference was drawn to the successful results attending the Australian and New Zealand system of nominations for assisted passages of relatives or friends in the United Kingdom by settlers already established in those Dominions, as well as to the very satisfactory working of the Canadian system of settling and supervising state-aided and other suitable children from the United Kingdom.

Proposals were submitted to the conference by the chairman of the Oversea Settlement Committee, and were approved. They were to the effect that the British Government should co-operate with the overseas Governments in a comprehensive policy of Empire land settlement and Empire-directed migration extending over a period of years, and to this end should contribute up to a maximum of £2 millions in any year toward land settlement schemes, assisted passages, and such other kindred schemes as may commend themselves to the governments concerned. The assistance to land settlement is to take the form of advances to settlers up to a maximum of £300 to each settler, the advances to be made through the overseas Governments concerned or through specially approved private organisations, and repayments collected by them. The repayments will be devoted to further advances to new settlers. In so far as expenditure not recoverable in the form of advances may be involved in training or allowances during training, the British Government will share this with the overseas Government or private organisation concerned, the amount so spent being deducted from the amount available for loan purposes.

The British Government will normally assign about £1,000,000 to land settlement. In allocating this money as between different schemes it will be guided primarily by the merits of the schemes both from the point of view of the number of settlers they can deal with for a given British contribution, and still more from that of the arrangements for training, future prospects of the settler, social amenities (group settlements), etc., and, other things being equal, by the desire to afford all the Dominions an equal opportunity of developing their resources and strengthening their man-power.

The British Government will assign the balance of its contribution to assisted passages, including, if necessary, outfit and landing money allowances. As regards passages, it was suggested that one-third of the passage money should be given as a free grant, and one-third as an advance, the latter to be increased up to two-thirds in special cases where the governments concerned are agreed as to the desirability of the assistance being given and as to the prospects of repayment. The cost of the assistance so given should be divided equally between the British Government and that of the Dominion concerned, the latter undertaking to collect the advances on behalf of the British Government. Contributions to schemes of child emigration or settlement are to be wholly in the form of grants and not of loans. If any Dominion would prefer some other scheme instead of a joint contribution to assist passages, the British Government will consider the allocation to such scheme of the amount it would otherwise have contributed to assisted passages in respect of settlers proceeding to that Dominion.

In view of the commitments of His Majesty's Government to its ex-Service men up to the end of 1922, and of the arrangements already made by other governments for their own schemes of assisted passages, it is not contemplated that the general scheme for assisted passages referred to above should come into operation before the

middle of 1922 or the beginning of 1923. All settlers receiving assistance under any of the above schemes will be subject to selection and approval by the British Government and by the Government of the Dominion concerned. Preference will be given, as far as possible, to ex-Service men.

As a part of this scheme of co-operation, the Dominion Governments will make special arrangements for the reception, distribution, and initial supervision of British settlers, who should, as far as conditions permit, be given preferential treatment over foreign immigrants. The British Government, on its side, will undertake to make the necessary corresponding arrangements for furnishing information and advice and for carrying out any policy with regard to oversea settlement and emigration that may be agreed upon. The conference also passed resolutions to the effect that, in cases where money for expenses overseas is advanced to settlers from government funds, the money should be paid to the oversea Representative in the United Kingdom on the settler's account and transmitted overseas for payment to the settler on arrival, and that the bonus system, that is, the system of recruiting settlers by means of *per caput* bonus payments to third parties, should be abolished as from 1 July 1921. It was also decided that in future the expressions "emigration", "immigration", "emigrants", and "immigrants" should be confined to movements to and from countries outside the Empire, while for migration within the Empire, such expressions as "oversea settlement" and "oversea settlers" should be used.

The above proposals were submitted to the conference of Prime Ministers and representatives of the United Kingdom, the Dominions, and India, which was held in London in June, July, and August 1921. The conference of Prime Ministers approved the report. The South African representative wished, however, to make it clear that the limited field for white labour in South Africa would preclude co-operation with the Union Government on the lines contemplated by the other Dominions.

The conference also recommended to the Governments of the several Dominions that they should consider how far their existing legislation on the subject of land settlement, soldier settlement, and immigration may require any modification or expansion in order to secure effective co-operation, and should work out, for discussion with the Government of the United Kingdom, such proposals as may appear to them most practical and best suited to their interests and circumstances.

Australian Immigration Plans

In reply to a resolution of the New Settlers' Conference held in October at Melbourne, Mr. Hughes, Prime Minister of Australia, stated that, if the Government could secure the support of the people, the co-operation of the States, and the control of the land required, they would be prepared to give the country the lead in a big scheme. It might cost from fifty to a hundred million pounds, and large loans would be required, but Australia could finance that. Immigrants, Mr. Hughes said, should be employed primarily on development works and given an area in which to settle, uncoddled. He was unable to agree that only men with farming experience were desirable. Immigrants should also include young men of a robust, energetic type.

At the beginning of November, the scheme was discussed at a conference of State Premiers. The Premiers agreed to formulate concrete proposals indicating how much unoccupied land they were prepared to make suitable for settlement, and the extent of the employment they would guarantee on this and other work in order to give a definite assurance to prospective immigrants.

Emigration Debate in the House of Commons

An important debate on the subject of Empire settlement took place in the British House of Commons on 3 November, when the Government asked for and secured an additional £330,000 for this purpose for the fiscal year 1921-1922. Mr. J. R. Clynes, chairman of the Labour Party, spoke in favour of emigration, and said it was right that the state should assist, so that labour could be "shifted from the place where it cannot be used to the place where it can be used". It was the duty of the Government to see "that those who leave these shores and land in some remote part of the Empire are not deceived, are not, when they land in a remote country, left stranded, unaided, without that assistance and that general sense of help which should be continued until they are properly placed in a position to earn their daily bread". He pleaded earnestly, however, for labour, both in Great Britain and in the Dominions, to share in the supervision of the arrangements for emigration and immigration, and added that if that were brought about it would remove the opposition and suspicions of those who are the opponents of immigration in other countries.


Mr. E. Wood (Under-Secretary for the Colonies), referring to the protection of emigrants, said that with the consent and co-operation of the Dominions, the bonus system of payment for recruiting by results to third parties, had practically disappeared. He also mentioned the existence of the New Settlers' League in Australia, which, although unofficial, "works in the closest conjunction with the Government, and is intended to permeate and have representation all over Australia as an organisation with which the newcomers can get into touch, and be, as it were, a settlers' friend all over the Australian continent". There were three things necessary, Mr. Wood continued, if the policy of Empire migration was to be a success: (1) close co-operation between governments; (2) good organisation and machinery, including selection; (3) the cordial co-operation of organised labour. Regarding the latter point, he said he was sure the Oversea Settlement Committee would welcome the opportunity of strengthening the representation of official Labour on the committee.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF JAPANESE EMIGRATION

The Japanese Government has decided to give a subsidy of 100,000 yen to the Oversea Enterprise Joint Stock Company (*Kaigai Kogyo Kabushiki Kaisha*) for the purpose of encouraging emigration. The company carries on propaganda with a view to making known the conditions prevailing overseas, and assists emigrants in various ways, such as giving instruction during the voyage. The Department of Home Affairs has issued an Order to the police authorities of certain cities, towns, and villages to give all possible help to emigrant families intending to settle in the coffee plantations in Brazil, which is considered a desirable country of immigration.

ENCOURAGEMENT OF IMMIGRATION IN THE ARGENTINE

It is reported in the Argentine press that the Buenos Ayres Association of Labour (*Asociacion del Trabajo*), which is an employers' organisation⁽¹¹⁾, is proposing to send a delegation to Europe to enquire into the means of organising emigration to Argentina on systematic lines. It is stated that Italian emigrants are principally wanted. The proposal is that a company or syndicate should be formed with the object of attracting to the country a healthy population, which would be guaranteed industrial and agricultural employment, and also the possession of land divided into small agricultural holdings.



(11) The views of the International Building Trades Congress, held in Brussels about the middle of October, concerning certain problems of immigration are briefly referred to in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 4, Dec. 1921, p. 591.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

The Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the New York Ladies' Garment Industries ⁽¹⁾

THE Joint Board of Sanitary Control in the New York ladies' garment industries was set up in 1910. It consists of seven members, two of them being nominees of the manufacturers, two of the trade unions, and three representing the general public. It is empowered to establish standards of sanitary conditions in the industry, which standards the manufacturers and the unions are pledged to maintain. In 1921 it exercised its powers in 3,800 shops employing, according to season, between 65,000 and 85,000 men and women, in approximately equal numbers. As a working example of successful industrial self-control, it is considered to be unique, not only because of the co-operation of employers and employees improving the actual conditions under which work is carried on, but also because it recognises the importance of the general public in the determining of such conditions.

The garment industry by its nature lends itself to contracting out. In earlier days this practice, with its consequent sub-contracting and sub-sub-contracting, resulted in much of the work being done in the homes of the workers, and in small improvised workshops in lofts or sheds. In New York, owing to the large number of Russian-Jewish immigrants, many of whom were skilled tailors, and still more of whom were desirous of learning the trade, the labour force was plentiful, unorganised, and therefore cheap. Under these circumstances the New York garment industry in the last century became notorious for its "sweat shops". Dr. A. S. Daniel, speaking before the annual meeting of the National Consumers' League early in 1901, described a tenement which he said was typical of the thousands in which home work was being done on the East Side of New York.

The apartment consists of three rooms, two opening on an absolutely dark air-shaft, the other on a narrow yard; at midday only does any light from the outside penetrate this apartment, and then only the outer room,

(1) The substance of this article was furnished by Dr. George M. Price, Director of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control. See also JOINT BOARD OF SANITARY CONTROL OF THE CLOAK, SUIT AND SKIRT, AND DRESS AND WAIST INDUSTRIES: *Ten Years of Industrial Sanitary-Self Control*; Tenth Annual Report, by George M. PRICE, M. D. New York, Union Health Center Building, 131 East 17th Street. 1921. J. M. BUDISH and George SOULE: *The New Unionism in the Clothing Industry*. New York, Harcourt, Brace and Howe. 1920.

for a short time. At other times kerosene oil lamps or candles are used. Two families (consisting of eight persons) occupy this apartment... Their hours are as long as they can hold their heads up or they have any work to do... It requires two hours for one person to finish a pair of trousers, and by their combined efforts they earn 30 to 50 cents a day, or rather in twenty-four hours.

Dr. John H. Pryor, giving evidence before the Tenement House Commission on 16 November 1900, stated: "In New York City alone there are in the tenement houses constantly 20,000 consumptives." Dr. Hermann M. Biggs proved that the dust in such houses was infectious, and that experiments had shown that it produced tuberculosis in animals. Mrs. Frederick Nathan, President of the New York Consumers' League, on the same day stated: "The clothing industry is one of the most degraded, if not the most degraded, of all the industries".

A large number of clothing workshops were open to similar criticism. They were overcrowded, badly ventilated, badly illuminated, lacking everything but the most rudimentary conveniences, and almost completely unprotected against fire, a risk to which the industry is particularly subject.

In the struggle against low rates of pay, long hours, and insanitary workshops, the efforts of the workers were naturally directed almost exclusively to improvements in wages and hours. In the great strike of 1910, however, the insanitary conditions of the workshops were made a prominent feature of the newspaper agitation, and the real importance of factory sanitation as a problem of the industry was presented at the subsequent conferences between representative employers and the unions held under the chairmanship of Louis D. Brandeis⁽²⁾. At one of these conferences the attorney for the employers suggested the institution of a joint board of sanitary control. As a result of further discussions a number of general principles were enunciated. They may be summarised as follows:

That an industry is responsible for the conditions existing in its establishments.

That it is futile to expect improvement in industrial conditions by state legislation and enforcement.

That it is the duty of an industry to control, supervise, and improve the sanitary conditions of its establishments without depending upon outside agents.

That the general public is directly and vitally interested in the sanitary conditions existing in an industry.

That decent sanitary conditions of the workshops is a debt which manufacturers owe to the public and to the workers.

That an efficient and permanent improvement of conditions in industrial establishments can be brought about only by the efforts and through the co-operation of the employers and the workers, and by the assistance of the public; in other words, by industrial self-control.

As a consequence, the protocol laying down the terms of agreement contained an article which read as follows:

The parties hereby establish a Joint Board of Sanitary Control, to consist of seven (7) members, composed of two nominees of the manufacturers, two nominees of the unions, and three who are to represent the public. Said Board is empowered to establish standards of sanitary conditions to which the manufacturers and the unions shall

(2) Mr. Justice Louis D. Brandeis was appointed a Justice of the Supreme Court in 1916 by President Woodrow Wilson.

be committed, and the manufacturers and the unions obligate themselves to maintain such standards to the best of their ability and to the full extent of their power.

The best proof of the usefulness of the Board of Sanitary Control is that it continued to function with the consent and financial support of both unions and employers when the protocol was abrogated.

The activities of the Board, now in its eleventh year, are divided into four sections—sanitary, medical, fire-drill, and education. Its methods of work are interestingly original, and, as the results amply demonstrate, effective.

From the outset it was realised that the success of the Board would largely depend upon its educational activities. This education has been conducted through personal interviews by the inspectors, through sanitary certificates, through bulletins, journals, leaflets, and other propaganda, through conferences with employers and leaders of workers, through lectures, through the press, through exhibitions, and by every means available. To impress the workers themselves with their personal concern and responsibility in the matter, sanitary shop committees are formed. These consist of the shop chairman and some three or five members of the shop. It is their duty to see to the maintenance of sanitary conditions in their own workshops. To fit them for this work they are given special instruction in sanitation during a six weeks' course at the office of the Board.

The system of sanitary supervision inaugurated at the beginning has been adhered to throughout the last ten years. Every half-year a thorough inspection of the 3,866 workshops is made in respect of the safety measures and fire protection provided, and the sanitary conditions prevailing. The whole industry is then divided into four classes : Class A, those shops where no defects whatever are found; Class B, those where defects of minor consequence only exist; Class C, those where defects mainly in fire protection are discovered; Class D, shops with a large number of defects. The city is then divided into districts, and each district placed under the supervision of an inspector. The inspector's duty is to make repeated re-inspections of the shops in his district, visiting D shops every week if necessary, C every one or two weeks, and leaving the shops in B and A classes to be visited in his spare time—once a month, or as often as he may be able to reach them. At each inspection the inspector interviews the employer and the shop chairman, points out to them the defects which were noted in previous inspections and any new defects found, and urges them to remove those defects and thus advance the shop from Class D to C, and to B and A. At each inspection some defects are found to have been removed, so that after a time there remain a comparatively small number of shops in which some important defects have not as yet been removed ; to these the inspector devotes his whole attention.

At the general inspection in October 1920 there were found only the following percentage of shops with minor defects :—Lights unshaded, 2.71 per cent.; no first-aid kit, 4 per cent.; common cups used, 3.33 per cent.; common towels used, 2.19 per cent.; shops without dressing rooms, 0.46 per cent.; water-closet apartments improperly separated, 0.49 per cent.; water-closet apartments not lighted, 2.87 per cent.; water-closets dirty, 15.15 per cent.; shops with dirty walls, 10.13 per cent.; shops with dirty floors, 6.95 per cent.; shops with no receptacles for rubbish, 1.11 per cent.

In connection with this system of sanitary inspection the Board has set up a nursing and first-aid service which installs and maintains first-aid equipment in each shop and instructs the workers in the methods of first-aid. The Board likewise furnishes experts on light and ventilation to those who are in need of such advice.

Complementary to the campaign for sanitary workshops is the movement for awakening a "health consciousness" among the workers. Certain of the local unions of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union now own, manage, and finance a Union Health Centre, whose services are at the disposal of the 85,000 members of that union in New York City. The nucleus of this organisation was provided by the health, medical, and dental services instituted by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control. The aim of the Centre is to teach the worker the precepts of right living and the conservation of health, to train him in the knowledge of how to make and how to keep his shop and his home sanitary and hygienic, to carry on a constant propaganda for periodical physical examinations, for proper diagnosis and early treatment of ailments, and for a general prolongation of life. Further, the Centre seeks to supply the worker with the health information he desires, and to serve him in health matters in every manner possible.

It was found impossible to limit the medical activities of the Union Health Centre to preventive medicine alone, there being a distinct demand on the part of the workers for a therapeutic clinic. The average worker cannot afford the cost of modern scientific medical consultation and treatment, nor is he always willing, or able, to avail himself of the services given in charitable dispensaries and clinics. The local unions of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union have therefore arranged with a number of competent physicians to hold therapeutic clinics at the Centre. There is also a consulting board of prominent physicians.

A number of the local unions in New York City, representing a membership of about 35,000, have a tuberculosis benefit. They tax their members \$1 per year for this benefit, which consists of a cash payment of from \$300 to \$500, or treatment at a sanatorium for a period of between ten and twenty weeks. In 1917 the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, through its incorporated "Union Sanatorium Association", purchased a plot of 312 acres at Otisville, where it is proposed to erect a sanatorium for tuberculous members of the organisation.

An important function of the Board is the fire drill service. Previous to its activities in this direction fire protection was meagre in the extreme. In March 1911 its inadequacy was brought prominently before the public notice by the disastrous "Triangle Fire", in which 147 garment workers, mostly girls, perished.

In spite of the fact that there is a law in the State of New York that fire drills are to be instituted and conducted monthly in every shop with more than a certain number of workers, the law is hardly ever enforced except in the garment industry. The Joint Board of Sanitary Control, with the co-operation of the employers' associations and the labour organisations, has instituted and organised monthly drills in about 1,500 of the largest factories, in which 65 per cent. of the workers in the industry are found.

During the first investigation conducted by the Board in January and February 1911, covering 1,243 factories, it was found that there were 63 buildings without any fire escapes, 236 buildings with badly placed drop ladders or none, 150 in which openings to fire escapes

were obstructed, and many shops with minor fire defects. By the time of the fourth inspection in September 1912 the number of shops with no fire escapes was reduced from 63 to 19, those with no drop ladders from 236 to 21, and shops with doors opening inwards from 1,379 to 738.

Shop sanitation throughout the whole of industry has made great strides during the last decade; and the progress accomplished in the garment industry must in part be attributed to this general movement. Nevertheless, the fact remains that, starting ten years ago as the most backward industry as regards sanitary conditions, it is now among the foremost. The character of the industry has been entirely changed. The small, overcrowded, ill lighted, ill ventilated, unsafe, insanitary workshops with no fire protection have given place to modern sanitary workshops. The employers have realised that shop sanitation, fire protection, and safety measures generally are important factors in industrial efficiency, benefiting and safeguarding not only their employees but themselves. Among the workers the standard of health and of the self-respect which comes from better living and working conditions has risen greatly; while the industry as a whole has rid itself of the "sweat-shop" stigma, and may claim that "the sanitary conditions under the jurisdiction of the Joint Board of Sanitary Control are immeasurably better than in factories and workshops in other trades and industries in this city and elsewhere".

SOCIAL INSURANCE

Public Opinion on the new French Insurance Bill

IN undertaking a reform of so great a scope as that embodied in the Government Bill on Social Insurance⁽¹⁾, laid before the French Chamber of Deputies on 22 March 1921 by Mr. Daniel Vincent, Minister of Labour, it was obviously essential that the Legislature should consider social factors as well as economic and technical requirements. It was important to maintain, and indeed to develop, the organisations already set up by private initiative as part of the present system of insurance, to allow them a large measure of autonomy, and to facilitate the modifications necessary to adapt them for the work imposed on them by the application of compulsory insurance. In view of the effect of the modifications proposed, it was only natural that criticism should come, not only from persons interested in questions of social policy, but more particularly from the manufacturers and the mutual benefit societies who would be called upon to play a more important part in social welfare.

As soon as the final draft of the Bill was published, a certain uneasiness arose among the mutual benefit societies with regard to the task which it was proposed to lay upon them. Hence, through their Council, their national Federation, and their Departmental associations, they felt called upon to defend their principles and sought to have put into the Bill certain guarantees which they considered necessary. In industrial and commercial circles some alarm was also felt lest the imposition of additional burdens might have an unfavourable effect on national production. It was considered that the most important question was whether foreign employers would make the same concessions as those which were asked of French employers. Trade unions, on the other hand, welcomed the reform of the social insurance system, as this had long been one of their principal demands. They were therefore prepared to support the Government Bill, provided that it corresponded in its main outlines with their programme and with their conception of the guarantees required by the population at

(1) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 779 et seq.; *The French Government Bill on Social Insurance*.

large. The medical profession was also closely concerned in the problems raised by the Bill, as the system of family insurance which it proposes is intimately connected with the national organisation of public health. Inasmuch as the opinions of these various interested groups embody ideas current in most of the states of central and eastern Europe, they are of general interest. The main tendencies of these various groups are briefly analysed in the present article.

VIEWS OF THE MUTUAL BENEFIT SOCIETIES

Immediately after the Bill had been laid on the table of the Chamber of Deputies, the Council of Mutual Benefit Societies (*Conseil supérieur de la Mutualité*) was requested by the Minister of Hygiene and Social Welfare to give its opinion on the general principles of the Bill and the proposed methods of application. The Council accepted the principle of compulsory insurance, which the French mutual benefit societies had approved at the Orleans Congress, also the system of deduction of contributions from wages. The Council urged that the principal compulsory sickness and invalidity insurance organisations should be—subject to the necessary guarantees and conditions of supervision—mutual benefit associations freely set up by the insured persons, and that the Government should not set up district funds until the mutual benefit or trade union funds had had sufficient time to organise their own system. The Council also proposed the abolition or modification of insurance classes based on earnings in favour of uniform contributions and benefits.

The Federation of Workers' Mutual Benefit Societies (*La Fédération mutualiste du travail*), from which the Committee on Insurance and Social Welfare of the Chamber asked an opinion, also declared in favour of compulsory insurance and the deduction of contributions from wages. It did not, however, agree with the Council in the objections of the latter to the classification of insured persons, and it definitely supported the grading of contributions according to wages. Anxious as it was for the reforms contemplated the Federation was willing to accept the Bill as it stands and to be heard on amendments in due course. Before submitting its observations to the Committee, the Federation made the following statement:

As we favour the principles of the Bill and its main outlines, we particularly desire that the suggestions which we are about to make should not be regarded as indicating hostility, but as being intended to facilitate such modifications as the Government Bill requires to make it as acceptable to those concerned as possible. We therefore declare that, if it should be your intention to take a vote on the Bill without discussion or to ask for its application by legislative Decree (*décret-loi*), and to proceed immediately afterwards to the consideration of any necessary amendments, we would postpone our remarks until a sub-

sequent-date. We should be willing to take this course in view of our firm conviction of the absolute necessity of insuring the workers of the country against all social risks, such as sickness, invalidity, old age, and unemployment.

For various reasons, both practical and other, the Federation considered that the figure of 10,000 francs as the maximum limit of income for persons liable to compulsory insurance was too low, and desired to see it raised to 15,000 or even 20,000 francs, according to living conditions in the district. It called the attention of the Committee of the Chamber to the position of persons employed in large industrial centres who would be excluded from compulsory insurance because, owing to the high cost of living, their wage was slightly above the limit. The Federation made various proposals regarding invalidity and old age insurance and concluded by declaring its opposition to any features in the Bill which might be regarded as involving excessive state or bureaucratic control.

The National Federation of French Mutual Benefit Societies (*Fédération nationale de la Mutualité française*) has also been active. After the first criticisms of the Bill had been formulated, it made efforts to induce the various mutual benefit organisations to study the proposals, and enquiries were undertaken with a view to presenting to the general meeting of the Federation a report embodying the resolution and proposals of the associations of mutual benefit societies with regard to the organisations to which the execution of the proposed Act was to be entrusted. Members of societies in the Federation were asked to give their opinion on the Government Bill "from the point of view exclusively of the moral and material interests of mutual benefit organisations". Other items in a questionnaire which was circulated dealt with the part to be played by mutual benefit societies in the application of the proposed system. Without giving all the points covered by the report, it is enough to say that the members were practically unanimous in admitting the necessity for compulsory insurance; at the same time they did not always agree on methods of application and, in particular, on the proposed system of medical attendance.

To sum up, it would seem that the attitude of the mutual benefit societies is becoming more clearly defined. On the one hand, there is a large minority, consisting of the Departmental associations, which have declared in favour of the Bill. On the other hand, the Committee of the National Federation has formally declared its opposition to any reform which would deprive the mutual benefit societies of the dominance in the field of social insurance which they now enjoy. The Council of Mutual Benefit Societies is maintaining a certain liberty of action and appears not unwilling to compromise.

OPINION OF EMPLOYERS

The employers are, naturally, mainly preoccupied with the question of their participation in the financial burdens of insurance. It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that their criticisms are exclusively directed to this point; on the contrary, they are anxious to define their attitude toward the general principles of the Bill. The General Association of Commerce and Industry (*Syndicat général du Commerce et de l'Industrie*) has decided to make enquiries from all the employers' organisations which belong to it. The following questionnaire, together with a summary of the Bill to assist the members in replying, was issued :

(1) Are you in favour of compulsory insurance or of voluntary insurance subsidised by the state and the employers ?

(2) Are you in favour of including all kinds of social insurance (except accident and unemployment) in a single Act as the Bill proposes ?

(3) If the Bill is passed, do you think it should be extended to include insurance against accidents and occupational diseases ?

(4) Is the existing Act concerning pensions for workers and peasants generally applied in your organisation, and, if not, why not ?

(5) Are you in favour of the deduction of contributions from wages ?

(6) Are there employers' and trade union mutual benefit funds in your industry ?

(7) What is the number and size of such funds, for what risks do they provide, and what is their opinion on the Bill ?

(8) Would you prefer some other form of general insurance, such as insurance for all persons with incomes under a certain limit ?

At a meeting which took place on 10 November 1921 the results of the enquiry and the report of the vice-president were laid before the General Association. This report was definitely unfavourable to the Bill. In the first place, the principle of compulsory insurance was held to be "contrary to French ideas"; in the second place, the application of the proposed system would lay heavy additional burdens on commerce and industry, which were already weighed down by taxation. The Federation therefore declared itself opposed to the Bill. Similar opinions were expressed by an important provincial employers' organisation, the Commercial and Industrial League of North-Western France (*La Ligue commerciale et industrielle du Nord-Ouest*). The League asserted that the financial participation of the employers in insurance would mean nothing less than the ruin of French trade. Other employers' organisations, such as great federations of the building industry, have declared themselves in favour of compulsory insurance. At their annual general meeting, which took place on 24 May 1921, the textile manufacturers stated that the chief necessity was to ascertain whether the nations which compete with France would be willing to accept the same burdens as those which would be imposed on French industry by the new system.

OPINION OF THE WORKERS

The question of social insurance has for many years been included in the programme of the trade unions. Many trade unionists have studied this problem and have acquainted the workers with the technical obligations which form the basis of social insurance. The General Confederation of Labour (*Confédération Générale du Travail*) was asked by the Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on Hygiene and Social Welfare to state its opinion on the Bill, and therefore appointed a special committee, which approved the general principles embodied, but submitted the following suggestions.

Amendments proposed by the General Confederation of Labour

Admission

The extension of compulsory insurance to wage earners whose earnings do not exceed 20,000 francs per annum, instead of 10,000 francs, as proposed by the Government Bill.

Insured persons whose annual earnings exceed 10,000 francs to receive the same treatment as insured persons of the sixth class as regards both benefits and contributions.

The employers' contribution to be calculated in the same way.

The raising of the income limit to 20,000 francs to apply also to voluntary insurance.

Admission of wives of insured persons, who are not regarded as wage earners (housewives), to any insurance class which they may choose, with the right to devote the whole of their contributions to the old age pension.

Extension of the benefits of the Act to *nationale* of other countries, if they fulfil the necessary conditions.

Benefits and Objects of Insurance

Abolition of the waiting period of six months from the coming into force of the Act before medical attendance and benefits are allowed.

Increase of the sickness benefit for the two first wage classes (this would be made possible by a considerable increase in the number of insured persons in the sixth class, as a result of raising the maximum income limit for compulsory insurance).

Increase of all benefits for these classes, particularly the maternity allowance and funeral benefit.

Extension of the provision of drugs and medical attendance to persons in receipt of invalidity or old age pensions.

Payment by the state of all sickness contributions of unemployed persons in order to avoid interruption of the general insurance qualifications.

Pensions

Minimum old age pension to be increased to 1,200 francs, and maintained at this amount, in the first place during the transition period, and later for all insured persons.

Pensions to revert to the surviving husband or wife, whether insured or not, or to the children under 18.

The right to add a pension so reverting to an existing survivor's pension.

Extension of the minimum pension of 1,200 francs and of the provision of drugs and medical attendance to persons in receipt of pensions under the Act of 1910.

Organisation

Extension of the activity of the local sick funds (a considerable measure of autonomy making it possible to augment grants, benefits, and attendance, preventive measures, protection for orphans of insured persons, etc.). The official bureau should be merely administrative organisations.

Use to be made of the whole of the funds, except what is needed for current requirements and the reserves which the local funds consider necessary. Funds to be used for building houses, hospitals, and preventive establishments, or for any other purpose connected with public welfare.

Full opportunity to be allowed for the development of social hygiene and prophylactic measures.

Miscellaneous

Insured persons to be entitled to be represented by their trade union in all disputes.

All provisions and benefits for married persons to be applicable also to persons living openly as married couples.

Rights already acquired by particular classes of workers to be maintained in their entirety.

Existing pension funds to be allowed to remain, at the request of their members, even if they do not fulfil the conditions regarding the minimum number of members laid down in Clause 104.

Application of the Act to the Colonies.

At the Nineteenth Congress of the Socialist Party in Paris on 1 November 1921 the members unanimously passed a resolution in favour of the proposed Act, and decided to instruct their parliamentary representatives to accept its principles. They also requested their federations and branches, and all persons engaged in propaganda for the Party, to encourage the spread of knowledge on the question of social insurance, and to organise a propaganda campaign for carrying it into effect. The Extreme Left is hostile to the proposed system, and criticises the collection of contributions from workers.

ACADEMIC AND SCIENTIFIC OPINION

Those who have made an impartial study of the economic and social effects of the reform have declared themselves definitely favourable to it. For instance, the French Section of the International Association for Labour Legislation, of which Mr. Arthur Fontaine is President, adopted the following resolution, after making a careful study of the subject :

The French Section of the Association considers that France is in urgent need of general legislation on social insurance, based on the principles of compulsion and solidarity; that it is just that employers and wage earners should contribute to the expenses of insurance; that the state should reserve its financial assistance for persons in receipt of low wages and for workers who have family responsibilities; and that any social insurance system should be administered by autonomous funds, among which insured persons should be able to make a free choice.

The French Section, believing that the Government Bill is based on these principles, declares that it "supports it, and urgently requests Parliament to pass this reform, which is impatiently awaited by all the workers of France".

This account would not be complete without some mention of the opinion of those who have spent many years in working for the protection of public health through social insurance. Thus Mr. Boissard, Professor of Labour Legislation at Paris, who was requested by the Committee on Hygiene and Social Welfare of the Chamber of Deputies to study the technical organisation proposed by the Bill, regards social insurance as a necessary complement to wages. In his opinion, the Government Bill would bring about a considerable improvement in the living conditions of the workers and would thus tend to increase production. It would work a moral transformation of the system under which wage earners live and would encourage mutual help and a spirit of co-operation between the various classes of society. Mr. Boissard was firmly convinced that in its main outlines the Government Bill corresponds to the necessities of the situation. An attempt should, however, be made to include in the general organisation some provision for ex-Service men which would correspond to their special claims on society as a whole. He also hoped that mutual benefit societies would be given the place in the new organisation to which they were entitled by the results which their efforts and initiative had achieved. He was further anxious that the system of social insurance should advance and encourage industrial organisation.

Dr. Grinda, reporter to the Chamber on the Government Bill, stated that he regarded social insurance legislation, not only as a measure of thrift, but also as one of social hygiene. He asserted that, if the Bill came into force, within a few years France would have an extensive system of hospitals and curative establishments. Social insurance, he considered, not only provides the necessary funds for the campaign against disease, but also plays an important part in the hygienic education of the population. The system of insurance funds administered by employers' and workers' representatives as well as by representatives of the medical profession and the Government would result in the most fruitful co-operation between the various organisations entrusted with the execution of the Act. These organisations would do everything in their power to obtain the best results, and in time the prevention of disease would become their principal aim.

Professor Edouard Fuster, Secretary to the Permanent International Committee of Social Insurance and Director of the Bureau of Public Hygiene of Paris, regards social insurance as necessary for the preservation of the vitality of the nation. He attaches great importance to insurance against the risks of maternity, sickness, and invalidity. This would give insured persons and their families far more security than old age pensions and relief. As regards the relation between social insurance and the improvement of public health, Mr. Fuster considered that the reorganisation of the medical service should be linked with social insurance in order to obtain the best results.

The medical profession has raised no opposition to the proposed regulations for the organisation of medical and surgical attendance. A number of doctors, particularly in the provinces, have analysed the principles of the Bill and commented on it favourably. A conference of doctors of the Departments of Haut Rhin, Bas Rhin, and Moselle, which was held recently, declared, by 218 votes to 10, in favour of the maintenance and development of social insurance organisation.

The doctors of Alsace-Lorraine will no doubt give their colleagues the benefit of their special experience, but at the same time it would be rash to suppose that the opinion of doctors in the Departments corresponds exactly with that of the medical profession in the capital. It would appear, however, that the doctors of France are ready to make such concessions on points of detail as are necessary to protect and improve public health.

ACCIDENTS

Coal Mine Fatalities in the United States and the United Kingdom

THE United States and the United Kingdom are the two largest coal producers in the world, producing between them about 70 per cent. of the world's output. Two recent publications ⁽¹⁾ of their respective Governments deal with the fatal accidents among coal miners, and it is interesting to compare the accident statistics of the two countries.

The following table compares the principal figures as to output, workers, and accidents during the years 1913 to 1920.

TABLE I. COAL STATISTICS OF THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Year	Output in thousands of metric tons		Number of workers employed		Number of fatal accidents		Fatality rate per 1,000 workers	
	United States	United Kingdom	United States	United Kingdom	United States	United Kingdom	United States	United Kingdom
1913	507,300	292,104	747,644	1,127,890	2,785	1,753	3.73	1.55
1914	465,996	269,988	763,185	1,133,746	2,454	1,219	3.22	1.08
1915	482,412	257,316	734,008	953,642	2,269	1,297	3.09	1.36
1916	535,476	260,532	720,971	998,063	2,226	1,313	3.09	1.32
1917	591,408	252,528	757,317	1,021,340	2,696	1,370	3.56	1.34
1918	615,336	231,432	762,426	1,008,867	2,580	1,401	3.38	1.39
1919	493,884	233,496	765,000 ⁽¹⁾	1,191,313	2,317	1,118	3.03 ⁽¹⁾	0.94
1920	585,900	232,824	775,000 ⁽¹⁾	1,248,324	2,260	1,103	2.92 ⁽¹⁾	0.88

(1) Provisional figures.

The most noteworthy facts shown by the above table are that first, although the output of the United States is, on the average, more than double that of the United Kingdom, the number of workers employed is considerably less, the average number of coal miners in the United States being about three quarters of a million compared

(1) UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF MINES : *Coal Mine Fatalities in the United States*. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. (Technical paper No. 288). — BOARD OF TRADE OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, MINES DEPARTMENT : *Mines and Quarries. General Report with Statistics for the Year 1920*, by H. M. Chief Inspector of Mines. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1921.

with over a million in the United Kingdom (*); and secondly, the death rate from accidents per 1,000 workers in the United States is on an average about three times that in the United Kingdom.

In both countries a progressive improvement has been witnessed in recent years. In the United Kingdom the statistics go back to 1873; but in the United States it has not been possible to obtain statistics earlier than 1896. The following table shows the average death rate from accidents for decennial periods in the United Kingdom and for certain periods in the United States.

TABLE II. COAL MINE FATALITIES PER 1,000 WORKERS IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

United States		United Kingdom	
Period	Death rate per 1,000 workers	Period	Death rate per 1,000 workers
—	—	1873—1882	2.24
—	—	1883—1892	1.81
1894—1902	3.08	1893—1902	1.39
1903—1912	3.71	1903—1912	1.33
1913—1920	3.25	1913—1920	1.23

In the United Kingdom a progressive diminution has occurred in each decade since 1873. In the United States the diminution did not begin till much later. The mortality rate showed a tendency to increase up to 1909 and 1910 (when the rates were 3.96 and 3.89 respectively), but, as shown in table I, a general decline has been evident since that date.

FATALITY RATES BASED ON TIME WORKED

The above fatality rates, however, are not strictly comparable either between the two countries or between different years in the same country, owing to the fact that no account is taken of the actual days of employment during the year. The average number of days worked per year and of hours worked per day differs from time to time and place to place, and true mining hazards can be disclosed only by corrected fatality rates calculated on a basis of standard exposure to risk. In the American publication under review, accident rates are calculated on a basis of 300-day workers, and also on a basis of 2,000-hour workers. A "300-day worker" is one who works 10 hours per day for 300 days a year (or 3,000 hours). Hence rates worked out by these two methods are really based on the same unit, viz. "hour of work". The American publication, however, states that "accident rates are given on a basis of 300 days to the working year regardless of the number of hours constituting a day's work". For example, if the average number of workers is 600,000, the average number of days worked in the

(2) For the causes of this great difference in output see *International Labour Review*, Vol. I, No. 1, Jan. 1921, pp. 79-90: *The Coal Situation 1913 and 1919*.

year is 200, and the average number of hours per day is 8, then the number of "300-day workers" is apparently

$$\frac{600,000 \times 200}{300} = 400,000$$

and the number of 2,000 hour workers is

$$\frac{600,000 \times 200 \times 8}{2,000} = 480,000$$

The American fatality rates on the basis of "300-day workers" and "2,000-hour workers" are shown in the following table; figures for the years 1919 and 1920 are not yet available.

TABLE III. FATAL ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES 1913 TO 1918 BASED ON 300-DAY AND 2,000-HOUR WORKERS

Year	Number of 300-day workers	Number of 2,000-hour workers	Death rate per 1,000	
			300-day workers	2,000-hour workers
1913	593,131	—	4.70	—
1914	526,598	—	4.66	—
1915	511,598	669,639	4.44	3.39
1916	565,766	726,394	3.93	3.06
1917	634,666	787,932	4.25	3.42
1918	654,973	799,927	3.94	3.23

No such information is available for the United Kingdom, and it is therefore impossible to say how much of the difference in the accident rates per 1,000 workers is due to differences in the time worked in the mines of the two countries.

COMPARISON OF ACCIDENT RATES IN OTHER MINING INDUSTRIES

The following tables (iv and v) show the fatal accident rates per 1,000 workers employed in metal mines and quarries in the United States and the United Kingdom for purposes of comparison with those in coal mining.

TABLE IV. COMPARISON OF FATALITY RATES IN METAL MINES IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Year	United States			United Kingdom		
	Number of workers employed	Number of fatal accidents	Rate per 1,000 workers	Number of workers employed	Number of fatal accidents	Rate per 1,000 workers
1913	191,276	683	3.57	27,412	32	1.16
1914	158,115	559	3.54	23,709	24	1.01
1915	152,118	553	3.64	19,831	21	1.06
1916	204,683	697	3.41	19,455	23	1.18
1917	200,579	852	4.25	20,500	25	1.22
1918	182,606	646	3.54	20,821	19	0.91
1919	143,262	468	3.22	21,661	65	3.00 ⁽¹⁾
1920	—	—	—	21,323	27	1.22

(1) This high figures is due to one disastrous accident costing 31 lives.

TABLE V. COMPARISON OF FATALITY RATES IN QUARRIES IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM

Year	United States			United Kingdom		
	Number of workers employed	Number of fatal accidents	Rate per 1,000 workers	Number of workers employed	Number of fatal accidents	Rate per 1,000 workers
1913	106,278	183	1.72	80,909	85	1.05
1914	87,936	180	2.05	78,903	95	1.20
1915	100,740	148	1.47	62,127	74	1.19
1916	90,797	173	1.91	48,196	58	1.20
1917	82,290	131	1.59	43,631	56	1.28
1918	68,332	125	2.83	43,215	67	1.55
1919	75,505	123	1.63	57,076	46	0.81
1920	—	—	—	67,750	54	0.80

These figures show that in metal mines and quarries the fatality rate is higher in the United States than in the United Kingdom; in metal mines the excess is as great as in coal mines; in quarries the difference between the two is much less. The British fatality rates are of approximately the same magnitude in the three groups, averaging between 1.0 and 1.3 per 1,000 workers.

In the United States, the accident rates are calculated on a basis of "300-day workers". As metal mines in the United States are active, on an average, 60 days a year longer than coal mines, it is obvious that a comparison based on the number of workers employed is not a true one: Unfortunately, this basis is the only one which is available for the United Kingdom.

TABLE VI. FATALITY RATE PER THOUSAND 300-DAY WORKERS IN METAL MINES AND QUARRIES IN THE UNITED STATES

Year	Metal Mines	Quarries
1913	3.72	2.10
1914	3.92	2.64
1915	3.89	1.89
1916	3.62	2.26
1917	4.44	1.83
1918	3.57	2.11
1919	3.43	1.93

A comparison of the fatality rates in the United States as given in tables III and VI, which are more exactly comparable since they are calculated on a uniform basis of "300-day" workers, shows that coal mining is the most hazardous, the fatality rate per thousand 300-day workers averaging almost double the rate in quarries and ranging higher than the rate in metal mines, except in the year 1917.

CAUSES OF ACCIDENTS

Fatal accidents are classified by causes in both the United States and the United Kingdom. The classification is not exactly the same in the two countries, but sufficiently alike to enable comparisons to be made. The following table shows the figures for 1918, 1919, and 1920, the different causes being grouped so as to render the classification more comparable.

TABLE VII. COAL MINE FATALITIES IN THE UNITED STATES
AND THE UNITED KINGDOM CLASSIFIED BY CAUSES

Cause	United States						United Kingdom					
	1918		1919		1920		1918		1919		1920	
	No. killed	Per cent. of total	No. killed	Per cent. of total	No. killed	Per cent. of total	No. killed	Per cent. of total	No. killed	Per cent. of total	No. killed	Per cent. of total
<i>Underground</i>												
Falls of roof or face	1,294	50.2	1,100	47.5	1,127	49.9	685	48.9	589	52.7	554	49.3
Mine cars & locomotives	506	19.6	381	16.4	405	17.9	263	18.8	238	21.3	237	21.5
Gas & dust explosions	129	5.0	191	8.2	164	7.3	160	11.4	27	2.4	26	2.3
Explosives	135	5.2	206	8.9	127	5.6	18	1.3	24	2.2	22	2.0
Electricity	88	3.4	69	3.0	76	3.4	6	0.4	6	0.5	3	0.3
Mine fires	26	1.0	22	0.9	8	0.3	4	0.3	6	0.5	4	0.4
Miscellaneous	103	4.0	108	4.7	104	4.6	94	6.7	68	6.1	89	8.1
Total underground	2,281	88.4	2,077	89.6	2,011	89.0	1,230	87.8	958	85.7	925	83.9
<i>Shaft: total</i>	52	2.0	53	2.3	56	2.5	47	3.4	45	4.0	40	3.6
<i>Surface</i>												
Haulage	118	4.6	93	4.0	78	3.5	62	4.4	55	4.9	54	4.9
Machinery & boiler explosions	47	1.8	28	1.2	28	1.3	28	2.0	22	2.0	19	1.7
Miscellaneous	82	3.2	66	2.9	87	3.9	34	2.4	38	3.4	65	5.9
Total surface	217	9.6	187	8.1	193	8.5	124	8.8	115	10.3	138	12.5
Grand total	2,580	100.0	2,317	100.0	2,260	100.0	1,401	100.0	1,118	100.0	1,103	100.0

A comparison of the percentages shows a remarkable agreement in the incidence of different accidents. In both countries "falls of ground" account for about 50 per cent. of the accidents, and in both countries underground and shaft accidents together account for about 90 per cent. of all accidents—slightly over 90 per cent. in the United States, slightly under in the United Kingdom.

RELATIVE SEVERITY OF UNDERGROUND AND
ABOVE-GROUND ACCIDENTS

The above classification of accidents into above-ground and under-ground (including shaft) accidents enables a comparison to be made between the fatality rate among underground workers and that among surface workers. These rates are published in the British statistics, but in the case of the United States they have

been calculated from the data given in the publication under review. The results are shown in the following table :

TABLE VIII. FATALITY RATE FROM UNDERGROUND AND ABOVE-GROUND ACCIDENTS PER 1,000 PERSONS EMPLOYED

Year	United States		United Kingdom	
	Under-ground	Above-ground	Under-ground	Above-ground
1913	4.22	1.28	1.74	0.79
1914	3.58	1.34	1.19	0.61
1915	3.44	1.27	1.55	0.65
1916	3.51	1.15	1.47	0.73
1917	4.00	1.75	1.50	0.74
1918	3.90	1.50	1.61	0.58
1919	—	—	1.06	0.47
1920	—	—	0.97	0.54
Average ⁽¹⁾	3.77	1.38	1.38	0.64

(1) Six years' average for United States, eight years' average for United Kingdom.

The table shows that the progressive improvement in fatality rates has been common to both underground and surface workers in the United Kingdom, whereas in the United States there is no definite evidence of any permanent improvement in these years.

The table further shows that, taking underground and above-ground workers separately, the rate in the United States is a little over twice the British rate for surface workers, and nearly three times that for underground workers. It should be remembered, however, that, as pointed out above, the rate per 1,000 workers does not form an exact measure of fatality rates. Accident rates to be comparable must be computed on the basis of the number of hours the workers are exposed to the hazards of their employment. It is greatly to be desired that all accident rates be computed on the basis of the 300-day worker or, better yet, on the new standard unit basis adopted by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions and now in use in the United States and Canada. This standard method provides for the computation of accident frequency rates per 1,000,000 man-hours' exposure (total time worked) and of severity rates (i. e. rates expressing the amount of working time lost on account of accidents) on the basis of the number of days lost through accidents per 1,000 man-hours exposure ⁽²⁾.

(3) See the description of this method in the following article.

Frequency and Severity of Accidents in the Iron and Steel Industry of the United States 1907 to 1920

FOR the past ten or more years the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics has carried on an intensive study of accidents in the iron and steel industry of the United States. A preliminary analysis of these data for recent years has now been made by the Bureau (1). These accident statistics are of especial interest and value because of their completeness, their reliability, the scientific accuracy of the methods used in their compilation, and the thoroughness with which they are analysed and the results set forth.

The tables given below, with an introductory statement to make more clear the meaning of the figures, summarise accident statistics in the iron and steel industry of the United States. The Bureau of Labour Statistics has analysed the data to show both the frequency and the severity of accidents.

The frequency rate is well understood. Originally it was a statement of the number of accidents occurring in an industry or occupation in relation to the number of employees. This form of the rate took no account of the time element in accident exposure. An improved form of frequency rate gave consideration to the time during which a man was exposed to accident. In its first improved form the rate was a statement of the number of accidents in relation to the number of "full year" or 300-day workers, the base being 1,000 such 300-day workers. In order to arrive at the number of 300-day workers, the actual number of hours worked during the year was first computed. This gives the number of man-hours, i.e. the time worked by all employees in terms of the number of hours which would be required by one man to do the total amount of work. The number of full-time workers was then derived by dividing the number of man-hours by 3,000, or the number of hours put in by a full time worker, i.e. one who works 10 hours per day and 300 days per annum. The use of this method by the Bureau of Labour Statistics was criticised on the ground that it suggested

(1) UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS (hereinafter referred to as BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS): *Monthly Labour Review*, Vol. XIII, No. 3, Sept. 1921, pp. 1-6; *Accident Frequency Rates in the Iron and Steel Industry by Causes, 1913 to 1920*, by Lucian W. CHANEY; No. 4, Oct. 1921, pp. 174-176; *Accident Frequency and Severity Rates for the Iron and Steel Industry in its Principal Departments, 1907 to 1920*, by Lucian W. CHANEY.

Other publications of the Bureau of Labour Statistics referring to accidents and the safety movement in the steel industry of the United States are the following: *Report on Conditions of Employment in the Iron and Steel Industry in the United States*, Vol. IV, *Accidents and Accident Prevention*. 1913. *Safety Movement in the Iron and Steel Industry 1907 to 1917*; Bulletin No. 234. 1918. These are all published at Washington, Government Printing Office.

some judgment regarding the proper length of the working day and the working year. In order to avoid that misunderstanding, the Bureau dropped the standard of the 300-day worker and computed accidents in relation to the number of man-hours worked in a year. This is a frankly objective standard, which expresses accidents in relation to the actual hours of exposure to hazard. The rate may be expressed as so many accidents per 10,000, per 100,000, or per 1,000,000 man-hours; convenience will determine which basis to adopt. In its presentation the Bureau of Labour Statistics takes as the unit 1,000,000 man-hours.

An accident frequency rate, which takes account not only of the number of men exposed to hazard but also of the time worked, is obviously much more adequate than the mere statement that so many accidents occurred per 1,000 employees; the latter rate ignores the fact that the length of the working day differs in various plants, that establishments differ as to the number of days worked by the factory per year, and that hours per day vary from season to season and days per year vary from year to year with fluctuations in industry.

On the other hand, the accident frequency rate is manifestly inadequate to measure the true hazard of industry. In order to measure that hazard a new rate, called the severity rate, was first worked out and employed by the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics early in 1914 (*), and presented in accident tables and charts exhibited at the Panama-Pacific International Exhibition. The severity rate attempts to measure the time-loss resulting from accidents, by showing the number of days lost from work in relation to the number of hours of exposure to hazard. This method differs, however, from the frequency method, in that it assigns a different importance (weight) to the various kinds of accidents in keeping with the different time losses occasioned by them. The method of weighting now followed in the Bureau of Labour Statistics can be briefly described. Accidents giving rise to temporary disabilities followed by complete recovery are weighted according to the number of days lost from work, that is, the number of working days of incapacitation. Accidents resulting in fatalities or permanent total disability are weighted according to the working life expectancy of the injured person, which is determined roughly on the basis of general life expectancy at the average age at which fatal accidents or permanent total disabilities occur; i.e. these accidents are weighted according to the number of days' work lost to relatives of the killed or injured person and to the community by reason of the worker's death or permanent total disability. The same weight is given to accidents of both these classes. Accidents resulting in permanent partial disability should theoretically be weighted according to the percentage loss in earning power resulting from each specific permanent disability multiplied by the time lost on account of permanent total disability. Such a calculation being impossible with present available statistics, recourse was had at first to the scale of compensation for different types of permanent partial disability granted in one of the best State accident insurance

(2) BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Monthly Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 1, July 1916, pp. 6-17; *New Method of Computing Accident Rates*. Also *Accidents and Accident Prevention in Machine Building*, by Lucian W. CHANEY; Bulletin No. 256, pp. 16-25. 1920. Both published at Washington. Government Printing Office.

laws, the scale of compensation in the law having been reduced to days lost from work. Dr. Royal Meeker, then United States Commissioner of Labour Statistics, brought the question of the proper basis for rating the severity of injuries before the Committee on Statistics of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. The Committee, after careful study of all pertinent data, including existing tables rating permanent injuries in percentages of total disability, agreed upon the percentage ratings given in the following table.

TABLE I. SCALE OF TIME LOSSES FOR WEIGHTING INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT DISABILITIES

Nature of injury	Degree of disability as percent. of permanent total disability	Days lost
Death	100	6,000
Permanent total disability	100	6,000
Arm above elbow, dismemberment	75	4,500
Arm at or below elbow dismemberment	60	3,600
Hand, dismemberment	50	3,000
Thumb, any permanent disability of	10	600
Any one finger, any permanent disability of	5	300
Two fingers, any permanent disability of	12 ½	750
Three fingers, any permanent disability of	20	1,200
Four fingers, any permanent disability of	30	1,800
Thumb and one finger, any permanent disability of	20	1,200
Thumb and two fingers, any permanent disability of	25	1,500
Thumb and three fingers, any permanent disability of	33 ⅓	2,000
Thumb and four fingers, any permanent disability of	40	2,400
Leg above knee, dismemberment	75	4,500
Leg at or below knee, dismemberment	50	3,000
Foot, dismemberment	40	2,400
Great toe or any two or more toes, any permanent disability of	5	300
One toe, other than great toe, any permanent disability of	0	0
One eye, loss of sight	30	1,800
Both eyes, loss of sight	100	6,000
One ear, loss of hearing	10	600
Both ears, loss of hearing	50	3,000

The basic data concerning the relative importance of accidents having thus been established, the number of accidents of each kind as reported is multiplied by the assumed factor or number of days lost from work; these results are added, and the total is divided by the number of man-hours of work in thousands. The final result is the average number of days lost per annum per thousand man-hours of work or exposure to hazard, and is known as the accident severity rate.

Taking up first the question of frequency of accidents in the iron and steel industries of the United States, the study of the Bureau of Labour Statistics in question indicates "that the influence of accident prevention effort as thus far developed is felt, as far as frequency is concerned, with practical uniformity in all of the principal cause groups". From 1913 to 1920 the percentage of decline in accident frequency was as follows: all accident causes, 60 per cent.; machinery, 55 per cent.; vehicles, 52 per cent.; hot substances, 56 per cent.; handling, 61 per cent.; miscellaneous causes, 72 per cent.

(3) For an account of the work of the Committee on Statistics see BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS, INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF ACCIDENT BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS, Committee on Statistics and Compensation Insurance Cost: *Standardisation of Industrial Accident Statistics*; Bulletin No. 276. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1920.

Table II shows accident frequency rates by causes for each of the years 1913 to 1920.

TABLE II. ACCIDENT FREQUENCY RATES PER 1,000,000 HOURS' EXPOSURE FOR ACCIDENT CAUSES IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES, 1913 TO 1920, BY YEARS.

Accident causes	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Machinery	7.3	5.0	4.9	5.4	4.5	4.0	3.3	3.3
Working machines	3.9	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.0	1.8	1.4	1.5
Caught in	2.5	1.8	1.6	1.7	1.3	1.2	.9	1.0
Breakage	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1
Moving material in	1.2	.7	.	.8	.7	.5	.4	1.4
Cranes, etc.	3.4	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.5	2.2	1.9	1.9
Overhead	2.8	1.9	2.1	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.6	3.5
Locomotive	.3	.1	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2	.2
Other hoisting apparatus	.4	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1	.2
Vehicles	2.3	1.7	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.3	1.2	1.1
Hot substances	5.4	3.6	3.7	4.5	3.6	3.0	2.8	2.4
Electricity	.5	.4	.2	.4	.3	.3	.2	.3
Hot metal	3.5	2.1	2.3	3.0	2.4	2.1	2.0	1.8
Hot water, etc.	1.3	1.1	1.2	1.2	.8	.6	.6	.4
Falls of person	4.5	4.1	3.5	3.7	3.3	2.8	2.8	2.5
From ladders	.3	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1
From scaffolds	.2	.2	.2	.2	.3	.2	.2	.2
Into openings	.2	.1	.1	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1
Due to insecure footing	3.8	3.7	3.1	3.1	2.7	2.3	2.3	2.1
Falling material not otherwise specified	1.2	.7	.6	.6	.4	.3	.4	.2
Handling	26.7	19.4	20.6	21.5	15.7	12.8	11.7	10.4
Object dropped in handling	11.2	7.2	7.	8.4	6.1	5.5	5.0	4.4
Caught between object handled and some other object	3.4	2.6	2.6	3.1	2.1	1.8	1.7	1.3
Trucks	1.9	1.0	1.4	1.4	1.2	.9	.7	.6
Lifting	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.5	2.0	1.4	1.4	1.1
Flying particles from tools	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	1.3	.1
Sharp points and edges	3.8	3.4	3.9	3.1	2.2	1.5	1.4	1.5
Tools	3.7	2.6	2.6	2.9	2.0	1.7	4.1	1.4
Miscellaneous	10.9	7.7	6.7	6.7	5.2	4.6	.2	3.1
Asphyxiating gas	.2	.2	.1	.1	.1	.1	.3	.1
Flying objects not striking eye	.8	.6	.6	.5	.4	.5	.	.3
Flying objects striking eye	2.9	2.1	1.7	1.9	1.5	1.6	1.3	1.1
Heat	.9	.8	.4	.4	.1	.2	.1	.1
Others	6.0	4.0	3.8	3.8	3.0	2.2	2.2	1.5
Grand total	58.3	42.0	41.7	44.2	34.4	28.9	26.2	23.1
Number of workers	147,052	112,027	127,238	173,793	185,210	77,138	165,724	175,435

While the table indicates that there has been a falling off in the frequency of accidents in the industry in the last seven years, a study of the accident severity rate tells a somewhat different story. "In any large volume of data the controlling factor in the frequency rates is the number of minor injuries. This may be true to such an extent as completely to obscure the real and important considerations." This observation is illustrated clearly by the data presented in table III and in more detail in table IV. Table III shows in parallel columns the frequency and severity rates for the different departments of the steel industry for the years 1907 to 1920. To illustrate, in the case of the Bessemer department of the industry, the accident frequency rate declined from 89.8 per million hours'

exposure as the average for the five years 1910 to 1914, to 56.7 for the years 1915 to 1919, while the accident severity rate actually increased from 6.4 days lost per accident to 6.9 days for the same 5-year period. The same thing occurred in the electrical department, in the heavy rolling mills, and in yard work.

The two rates also tell entirely different stories as to the relative hazards of the different departments of the steel industry. From the point of view of frequency of accidents, the Bessemer department ranks first; from the point of view of severity it comes fourth; on the other hand, blast furnaces do not figure at all among the four departments ranking highest as respects frequency, but generally stand highest as respects severity. From the point of view of severity, the departments of the steel industry which have the heaviest score against them are the blast furnaces, open hearth, electrical, and Bessemer departments. These four departments rank among the first four for the years indicated in the table. On the other hand, from the point of view of frequency of occurrence of accidents there is found to be considerable diversity, the leading departments, for the years covered, being generally the Bessemer, fabricating, foundries, open hearth, and unclassified rolling mill departments, in the order named.

TABLE III. COMPARISON OF ACCIDENT FREQUENCY AND SEVERITY RATES IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES, BY DEPARTMENTS OF INDUSTRY, 1907 TO 1920.

	1907		1910-1914		1915-1919		1920 ¹	
	Fre- quency rate	Sever- ity rate	Fre- quency rate	Sever- ity rate	Fre- quency rate	Sever- ity rate	Fre- quency rate	Sever- ity rate
All depart- ments	80.8	7.2	59.2	4.1	41.6	3.6	36.8	2.7
Blast furnaces	101.3	16.0	62.3	7.0	39.0	6.1	32.6	4.3
Bessemer	134.0	5.4	89.8	6.4	57.7	6.9	46.3	3.5
Open hearths	104.5	14.4	75.0	6.6	50.5	6.5	38.4	4.4
Foundries	65.0	3.4	63.6	3.6	61.0	3.4	65.2	2.5
Heavy roll- ing mills	65.3	4.8	46.1	3.6	32.4	3.9	22.7	2.2
Plate mills	113.7	9.1	49.9	3.9	39.2	2.5	45.7	3.0
Sheet mills	44.8	4.1	51.1	2.6	32.7	1.5	31.1	1.8
Tube mills	96.4	3.1	40.5	2.2	22.4	1.8	15.3	1.4
Unclassified rolling mills	113.7	5.0	73.3	3.7	41.9	2.1	45.4	2.9
Fabricating shops	94.4	9.5	79.9	3.4	55.2	2.6	57.2	3.8
Wire drawing	77.6	4.3	65.7	3.2	45.8	2.6	34.6	2.8
Electrical department	62.7	4.2	47.1	6.3	40.3	7.2	38.9	4.4
Mechanical department	91.3	6.6	62.7	4.0	41.3	3.5	35.2	2.7
Yards	66.6	7.5	50.8	6.0	37.5	6.1	26.6	3.5

(1) Preliminary figures subject to correction.

TABLE IV. ACCIDENT RATES IN THE IRON AND STEEL INDUSTRY AND ITS PRINCIPAL DEPARTMENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1907 TO 1920.

Department of industry, and period.	Number of workers.	Number of cases.				Accident frequency rates (cases per 1,000,000 hours' exposure).				Accident severity rates (days lost per 1,000 hours' exposure).			
		Death	Perma- nent disa- bility,	Tempo- rary disa- bility.	Total.	Death	Perma- nent disa- bility.	Tempo- rary disa- bility	Total	Death	Perma- nent disa- bility.	Tempo- rary disa- bility.	Total
All departments:													
1907	27,632	61	106	6,530	6,697	0.7	1.3	78.8	80.8	4.4	1.7	1.1	7.2
1910 to 1914.	1,310,911	1,524	5,080	226,305	232,954	.4	1.3	57.5	59.2	2.3	1.1	.7	4.1
1915 to 1919.	1,545,706	1,731	4,469	186,532	192,732	.4	1.0	40.2	41.6	2.2	.8	.6	3.6
1920 ¹	339,029	247	890	36,317	37,454	.2	.9	35.6	36.8	1.5	.8	.4	2.7
Blast furnaces:													
1907	1,566	9	11	456	476	1.9	2.3	97.1	101.3	11.5	2.7	1.8	16.0
1910 to 1914.	126,582	324	366	22,578	23,268	.9	1.0	60.4	62.3	5.2	1.0	.8	7.0
1915 to 1919.	136,166	317	312	15,287	15,916	.8	.8	37.4	39.0	4.7	.9	.5	6.1
1920 ¹	28,166	41	50	2,659	2,750	.5	.6	31.5	32.6	2.9	1.0	.8	4.3
Bessemer:													
1907	967	1	5	383	389	.3	1.7	132.0	134.0	2.1	.9	2.4	5.4
1910 to 1914.	28,101	57	146	7,367	7,570	.7	1.7	87.4	89.8	4.0	1.1	1.3	6.4
1915 to 1919.	25,645	62	112	4,262	4,436	.8	1.5	55.4	57.7	4.8	1.1	1.0	6.9
1920 ¹	2,433	3	2	333	338	.4	.3	45.6	46.3	2.5	.3	.7	3.5
Open hearths:													
1907	2,987	14	14	908	936	1.6	1.6	101.3	104.5	9.3	4.0	1.1	14.4
1910 to 1914.	71,293	143	333	15,809	16,285	.7	1.5	72.8	75.0	4.0	1.6	1.0	6.6
1915 to 1919.	86,175	191	317	12,563	13,071	.7	1.2	48.6	50.5	4.4	1.2	.9	6.5
1920 ¹	20,579	32	57	2,287	2,374	.5	.9	37.0	38.4	3.1	.8	.5	4.4
Foundries:													
1907	939	1	3	179	183	.4	1.1	63.5	65.0	2.1	.3	1.0	3.4
1910 to 1914.	95,917	84	449	17,765	18,298	.3	1.6	61.7	63.6	1.8	1.1	.7	3.6
1915 to 1919.	92,746	84	277	16,604	16,965	.3	1.0	59.7	61.0	1.8	.9	.7	3.4
1920 ¹	27,092	12	76	5,214	5,302	.1	.9	64.2	65.2	.9	.9	.7	2.5
Heavy rolling mills:													
1907	4,556	8	10	874	892	.6	.7	64.0	65.3	3.5	.3	1.0	4.8
1910 to 1914.	67,663	74	261	9,007	9,342	.4	1.3	44.4	46.1	2.1	.9	.6	3.6
1915 to 1919.	75,166	91	275	6,950	7,316	.4	1.2	30.8	32.4	2.4	1.0	.5	2.9
1920 ¹	14,085	9	31	923	963	.2	.7	21.8	22.7	1.3	.6	.3	2.2
Plate mills:													
1907	1,915	4	12	637	653	.7	2.1	110.9	113.7	4.2	3.7	1.2	9.1
1910 to 1914.	27,711	19	105	3,129	3,253	.3	1.6	48.0	49.9	1.8	1.4	.7	3.9
1915 to 1919.	35,073	25	89	4,016	4,130	.2	.8	38.2	39.2	1.4	.6	.5	2.5
1920 ¹	7,650	6	22	1,019	1,047	.3	1.0	44.4	45.7	1.6	.9	.5	3.0
Sheet mills:													
1907	2,211	2	8	274	284	.3	1.2	43.3	44.8	1.2	1.9	.4	4.1
1910 to 1914.	128,423	88	308	19,262	19,658	.2	.9	50.0	51.1	1.4	.6	.6	3.6
1915 to 1919.	104,335	37	172	10,034	10,243	.1	.5	32.1	32.7	.7	.4	.4	1.5
1920 ¹	22,359	9	46	2,035	2,090	.1	.7	30.3	31.1	.8	.6	.4	1.8
Tube mills:													
1907	2,007	1	4	575	580	.2	.7	95.5	96.4	1.0	.6	1.5	3.1
1910 to 1914.	73,338	36	249	8,623	8,908	.2	1.1	39.2	40.5	1.0	.7	.5	2.2
1915 to 1919.	75,108	38	178	4,325	5,041	.2	.8	21.4	22.4	1.0	.5	.3	1.8
1920 ¹	18,004	6	38	781	825	.1	.7	14.5	15.3	.7	.4	.3	1.4
Unclassified rolling mills:													
1907	14,434	15	49	4,861	4,925	.3	1.1	112.3	113.7	2.1	1.6	1.3	5.0
1910 to 1914.	104,829	82	360	21,501	21,943	.3	1.2	71.8	73.3	1.7	1.1	.9	3.7
1915 to 1919.	102,696	53	218	12,644	12,915	.2	.7	41.0	41.9	1.0	.5	.6	2.1
1920 ¹	21,055	16	68	2,785	2,869	.3	1.1	44.1	45.4	1.5	.9	.5	2.9
Fabricating shops:													
1907	2,081	6	12	571	589	1.0	1.9	91.5	94.4	5.8	2.9	.8	9.5
1910 to 1914.	108,538	98	425	25,506	26,029	.3	1.3	78.3	79.9	1.7	.9	.8	3.4
1915 to 1919.	80,985	59	163	13,195	13,417	.2	.7	54.3	55.2	1.5	.5	.6	2.6
1920 ¹	12,563	12	62	2,083	2,157	.3	1.6	55.3	57.2	1.9	1.3	.6	3.8
Wire drawing:													
1907	10,370	5	84	2,323	2,412	.2	2.7	74.7	77.6	1.0	2.6	.7	4.3
1910 to 1914.	59,481	21	383	11,504	11,908	.1	2.1	63.5	65.7	.7	1.9	.6	3.2
1915 to 1919.	52,666	12	321	6,912	7,245	.1	2.0	43.7	45.8	.5	1.6	.5	2.6
1920 ¹	10,882	2	60	1,066	1,128	.1	1.8	32.7	34.6	.4	1.9	.5	2.8
Electrical department:													
1907	1,526	2	3	282	287	.4	.7	61.6	62.7	2.6	.9	.7	4.2
1910 to 1914.	14,921	33	48	1,957	2,038	.8	1.1	45.2	47.1	4.6	1.2	.5	6.3
1915 to 1919.	16,023	46	40	1,851	1,937	1.0	.8	38.5	40.3	5.7	1.0	.5	7.2
1920 ¹	2,039	4	2	232	238	.7	.3	37.9	38.9	3.9	.1	.4	4.4
Mechanical department:													
1908	1,619	4	7	430	441	.8	1.4	89.1	91.3	4.9	.6	1.1	6.6
1910 to 1914.	97,161	104	392	17,794	18,292	.4	1.3	61.0	62.7	2.1	1.1	.8	4.0
1915 to 1919.	154,846	154	492	18,556	19,202	.3	1.1	39.9	41.3	2.0	1.0	.5	3.5
1920 ¹	24,219	21	58	2,478	2,557	.3	.8	34.1	35.2	1.7	.6	.4	2.7
Yards:													
1907	2,618	5	10	509	524	.6	1.2	64.8	66.6	3.8	2.6	1.1	7.5
1910 to 1914.	55,932	112	243	8,112	8,467	.7	1.5	48.6	50.8	4.0	1.4	.6	6.0
1915 to 1919.	53,890	106	258	5,685	6,049	.7	1.6	35.2	37.5	3.9	1.6	.6	6.1
1920 ¹	8,080	8	25	614	647	.3	1.0	25.3	26.6	2.0	1.2	.3	3.5

GOVERNMENT REPORTS

FACTORY INSPECTION IN AUSTRIA IN 1919

The Report of the Austrian Industrial Inspectors on the work done in 1919¹ contains returns from the divisional inspectors and from the two special inspectors, dealing respectively with the building trade in Vienna (pp. 303-318) and inland navigation throughout the country (pp. 319-328). These are analysed and commented upon in a general report by the Chief Inspector (pp. LV-CXXXVI). In addition, the legislative enactments of 1919 affecting the work of the inspectors are listed, and the more important items reprinted (pp. XXI-LIII). A separate statement on each of the government tobacco factories is included, noting particularly the amount of illness among the workers (pp. 329-344). Two special reports are included, one by a woman inspector in the Vienna (Neustadt) district, on homework in the Britannia-metal industry of Berndorf (pp. 110-114), and the other by the Innsbruck inspector on the extent and possible utilisation of the water-power of the Austrian Tyrol (pp. 329-344). The whole mass of information is rendered easily accessible by means of a good index (pp. 355-382) and the free use of marginal headings in heavy type.

The work of 1919 was exceptionally heavy, in spite of the very serious falling off in production which resulted from the closing down of munitions works and the lack of supplies for the resumption of normal industrial activities. During the war there had been marked retrogression in the conditions of employment—safety measures were neglected, and protective appliances allowed to deteriorate and eventually become useless, while factory extensions were hastily erected and brought into use without the prescribed inspection and authorisation (p. VII). Thus, on resuming their normal system of visitation, the inspectors encountered in every factory and workshop an altogether abnormal number of contraventions of the laws relating to hygiene and safety. Owing to general economic conditions, these contraventions could not be dealt with merely by orders for the remedying of the defects; the possibilities of improvement, and the extent to which abuses must be condoned or makeshifts approved during the period of industrial reorganisation had to be considered in each instance. Thus a comparatively small number of visits represented a very large amount of work.

In addition to the task imposed upon the inspectors as a result of war conditions, a quantity of new work was assigned to them by the legislation of the reconstruction period. The various limitations of hours of work⁽²⁾ involved additional supervision and much

(1) BUNDESMINISTERIUM FÜR SOZIALE VERWALTUNG : *Bericht der Gewerbe-Inspektoren über ihre Amtstätigkeit im Jahre 1919*. CXXXVI + 362 pp., 4 illus. Vienna, Government Printing Office. 1920.

(2) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1919, Aus. 2 3, 6, 7, 8, 11, 12 (Referred to hereafter as *Legislative Series*).

assistance to employers and trade unions in the way of explaining and interpreting the new provisions. The Acts of December 1918, dealing with home work ⁽³⁾ and child labour ⁽⁴⁾, required the special attention of the women inspectors; while the newly established works councils ⁽⁵⁾ made use of their legal permission to apply to the inspectors for help and advice, and to accompany them on visits to the works. While the hope was expressed by the officials that these councils would give valuable help in the near future in connection with the administration of labour laws, their company during visits was found in 1919 to be a hindrance to quick work, as they were not well acquainted with the legislative provisions or trained to rapid observation (p. LXVII).

The Austrian industrial inspection staff in 1919 was small in relation to the field of operations assigned to it. There were 58 men and six women engaged in inspection work, including the Inland Navigation Inspector and the Vienna Building Inspector with his two assistants appointed from the ranks of the workmen (p. LV). This staff of 64 were responsible for supervising the employment of about a million persons engaged in industry and manufacture and nearly half a million in commerce and transport, distributed over an area of some 32,000 square miles ⁽⁶⁾. The industrial and manufacturing workers were not massed in large undertakings, but divided among about 350,000 establishments, more than one-third of which were located in Vienna. Over and above the heavy supervising duties and office work involved in dealing with this large area, the inspectors had the important and exacting duty of conciliation in industrial disputes (p. LVII), a task of which they were not relieved until 1920 ⁽⁷⁾. They were also required to attend certain committees, and invited to many more for the sake of their expert advice, e.g. the district industrial commissions established in connection with measures for the relief of unemployment (pp. LXVIII, CXXVIII). The Chief Inspector was called to the meetings of the Socialisation Commission (p. LXVIII), and also appointed a member of the advisory council on sickness insurance in the Ministry of Social Administration (p. XXIII).

Arrears of work from the war years, travelling difficulties, and the many demands upon the time of the inspectors, prevented their covering much ground during 1919, and revealed the urgent necessity for an improved and extended organisation. Even before the war it had been found that the growth of industry outstripped that of the inspection staff (p. VII). As a result of the experience of 1919, various divisional inspectors urged the importance of particular reforms in the administrative machinery, while the Chief Inspector recommended smaller areas, more special inspectors for particular trades, more women and workmen as assistants, more office staff, wider powers of prompt action, and above all a revision and

(3) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (Basle) : *Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 12.

(4) *Ibid.*, p. 19.

(5) *Legislative Series*, 1919, Aus. 9-10.

(6) The statistics of employment were extracted by the Chief Inspector from the census of 1910 for the areas left by the Treaty of Peace within the boundaries of the new Republic of Austria.

(7) An Act to establish conciliation boards was passed on 18 December 1919. (*Legislative Series* 1920, Aus. 22.)

codification of the laws relating to industrial inspection (pp. VII-VIII). A Bill for this purpose was drawn up by him as a result of the conference of inspectors in May 1919, and submitted to the State Department for Social Administration (*) (p. LXIX).

During 1919 only 9,000 industrial undertakings were inspected, 9,893 visits being paid. These were only 2.6 per cent. of the establishments of this kind subject to inspection, but included 48.7 per cent. of the factories proper, and covered one quarter of the persons employed in industry, averaging 25 persons to each establishment (p. LVI). Most of the employees were above 16 years of age, 152,848 (66.7 per cent.) being men and 66,052 (28.8 per cent.) women, while only 33 boys and 15 girls (0.02 per cent.) were under 14 years of age. Of those between 14 and 16, 7,552 were boys and 2,906 girls (about 3.3 per cent. and 1.2 per cent. respectively of the whole staff of the establishments inspected) (p. LVI). In most areas there was a noticeable decline during 1919 in the employment of women and young persons, due partly to the cessation of the munitions work in which they had been engaged and the return of the men whose places some of them had occupied, and partly to the prohibition of the night work of young persons by the Act of 14 May 1919 (*), which in practice excluded them from undertakings working on the alternating shift system (p. CIII). As regards the employment of women, the inspector for the Vienna No. 1 district states that results in industry during the war were good, and that there was in consequence some disinclination to replace women by men after the Armistice. In office work, on the contrary, they were replaced as a rule at the first opportunity, as they had generally displayed an almost entire lack of interest, energy, and initiative. This state of affairs was probably due, at least in part, to the fact that many of them were not sufficiently well educated for their work (p. 15).

A considerable proportion of the inspectors' time was occupied by an examination of working conditions in respect of hygiene and safety. As already mentioned, very serious deterioration had taken place during the war. Safety appliances, especially exhausts, had been worn out or broken, or had fallen into disrepair, and had not been renewed. New structures had been used without preliminary inspection; and the almost complete stoppage of building operations during the latter part of the war had led to the bringing into use as workplaces of old and unsuitable structures, even cellars, which had formerly been condemned. Ventilation was given up in many workrooms, that the deficiency of heating might be less severely felt (p. LXXXVIII). In some instances the air and floor space per worker were quite inadequate, owing to the large amount of space occupied by machinery and stores (pp. LXX-LXXXVIII). In Vienna No. 2 district, one establishment was so choked with apparatus and goods (being unable to procure larger premises) that there was little more than a square yard of floor space to each worker, and the only means of communication left open between the three stories and basement of the factory was an unenclosed spiral staircase (p. 27). Such overcrowding and blocking of gangways seriously increased danger to life in case of fire, the risk of which was much enhanced during the coal shortage by the adoption

(8) This Bill was introduced into the National Assembly in May 1921; the Act was passed on 14 July. (*Legislative Series*, 1921, Aus. 4-5.)

(9) *Ibid.*, 1919, Aus. 7.

of more inflammable substitutes. For want of proper storage-places, these substitutes were often kept in perilous situations. Casks of oil were found in the boiler-room of a briquette factory (p. LXXXVII), and calcium carbide (used in quantity for generating acetylene to replace coal-gas and electric lighting) was kept in large quantities without any precautions (p. LXXIX).

In spite of an even more serious lack of precautions than in 1918, there was a decline in the number of accidents notified during the year. Of these 21,471 were reported as having occurred in industrial undertakings, 132 being fatal. About half were in the metal and machinery trades. In the opinion of the Chief Inspector it is probable that more accidents occurred, but that, as usual, many escaped notification altogether; while the general practice of employers is to notify as fatal only those in which the worker is killed on the spot or dies before the notification is sent in (p. XCVI). In so far as there is a real decline in the number of accidents, as compared with previous years, it is attributed by the inspection staff to the restriction of production (many works were closed in 1919 for want of coal and raw materials, while the working day was shortened by law), and to reduced intensity of work, partly consequent upon the abandonment of piece-rates. It is noteworthy that in the Salzburg and Klagenfurt districts, where the wood trade expanded, there was an increase of accidents directly attributable to this industry (p. XCVI).

In connection with accidents, recommendations are made by several inspectors. The Chief Inspector condemns the general practice of referring accidents without enquiry to the worker's own fault, in cases where injury might have been averted by certain precautions; he points out that fatigue may render a worker *incapable* of proper care, and that in such case he cannot be held to be negligent (pp. XCVI-XCVII). The Innsbruck inspector desiderates the revision and extension of the regulations concerning safety, and further powers of action for inspectors in order to avoid the present slow and circuitous procedure through the agency of the local authorities. The Inspector for Vienna No. 2 district urges that no machine shall be put on the market without the attachment of its appropriate safety device (previously approved by experts and tested); and the Leoben inspector recommends the supply to undertakings of drawings and plans for simple protective appliances which ought to be in common use and which can be made on the premises. The last mentioned inspector has also drafted safety regulations for flying undertakings, in connection with an application for a concession in his district (pp. 100-101). The Inland Navigation Inspector has likewise drawn up new regulations, in agreement with the steamship companies, as a result of two collisions occurring on the Danube within a short period (pp. 321-324).

Cases of occupational diseases were fewer than usual in 1919, according to the Chief Inspector (statistics were not given). This was attributed partly to restriction of production and partly to the reduced hours of work (lessened fatigue counterbalancing the lowering of vitality due to privation). Several cases of lead poisoning were found, due to gross carelessness, e.g. an apprentice was found roasting potatoes on the edge of a lead cauldron dusty with lead oxide. The Klagenfurt inspector recommended that working overalls be provided *and washed* by the undertakings, both for the sake of health and to avert danger in cases where inflammable

substances are handled; in his district four men were killed through the explosion of the powder adhering to their garments.

The general health of workers was no better provided for than their safety. Lavatories, bathrooms, and cloakrooms were generally in bad condition, and sanitary accommodation often quite inadequate and very ill kept. In the overcrowded establishment referred to above, there were only two closets for 144 workers of both sexes, and these were situated in the basement (the building consisting of three stories above this). In consequence of the general shortage of housing, due to the high cost of building and repairing work, the lodgings provided by undertakings for their workers were frequently found to be both overcrowded and dilapidated. In some cases the adoption of a three-shift system in the works resulted in the development of a two-shift system for the workers' beds. In small-scale industries and the hotel trade the practice of living-in was being given up, as the rooms formerly assigned to apprentices and servants were wanted for other uses, while the provision of food for them became too expensive and burdensome (pp. XCII-XCIV).

There were few reported cases of employment contrary to the law—366 in all, or 0.16 per cent. of the persons employed. Of these 46 were instances of the employment of children under 14, one glass-works in the Graz district being responsible for eighteen such cases. Some of the remainder were instances of the employment of women and young persons in dangerous trades (in particular, excessively dusty occupations), but most were cases of illegal employment at night, generally in factories (pp. CIII-CVII). The Chief Inspector suggests that there might have been more cases of this kind if the Night Work Act (") had been introduced during a period of normal production (p. CVII).

The Eight Hour Day Act (") was likewise introduced with comparatively little difficulty in most industries, as lack of raw materials and fuel had caused general reduction of hours. The 44-hour week for women and young persons was a stumbling-block in undertakings where they were employed together with men, but an administrative Instruction of 12 February 1919 (") allowed a 48-hour week in such cases (p. CXII). The iron and steel industry had for some years been expecting the introduction of an 8-hour day, and was consequently prepared to make the change promptly, but other continuous industries found it impossible to make up a third shift on account of the shortage of skilled workers, and a longer day was therefore worked by agreement (pp. CXIII-CXIV). Some undertakings tried to evade the application of the Act, being assisted therein by the absence of any precise definition of the term "factory", which determined the scope of this as of other Acts (p. CXIV).

The provisions respecting breaks during work and holidays were not infrequently disregarded by the wish of the workers themselves. Even the midday break was often reduced to half an hour, in order that workers might get away from the factory early and supplement their earnings by outside work (p. 53). The compulsory granting of leave was found to work badly; employees were often glad to

(10) *Legislative Series*, 1919, Aus. 7.

(11) Act of 19 December 1918; INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (Basle): *Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 10; since replaced by a similar Act, dated 17 December 1919 (*Legislative Series*, 1920, Aus. 12).

(12) *Legislative Series*, 1919, Aus. 3.

commute their holiday for payment, and some took up employment elsewhere for the leave period. The establishment of holiday homes was considered in the Vienna No. 1 district as the only way of making it possible to use the holiday for physical recuperation (pp. CXXI-CXXII).

Special attention was paid to apprenticeship (pp. CVIII-CX), which had been adversely affected by the war. Several inspectors reported cases of an unduly large number of apprentices in proportion to workers, generally due to the fact that employers were bound by the articles to keep the former, while the latter were called up for military service. The position became so bad that in certain trades and areas it was found necessary to negotiate agreements for the suspension or limitation of the admission of apprentices. On the other hand, some industries in which prospects of earning were not particularly good were found to be in want of apprentices. Progress was made in the establishment of continuation schools, but attendance was not in general satisfactory. The workers opposed the evening and week-end classes at first arranged, and in some areas their opposition resulted in a transference of the classes to weekday afternoons. Want of fuel to heat the schools, and of materials and appliances for practical work, were reported from Innsbruck as hindrances to the activities of the schools.

Home industry (p. CXXVI) was inspected only during the latter half of the year, as the Act regulating it did not come into force until June. Lack of staff prevented sufficient attention from being given to it, but it was found that the Act was too often unknown to employers and workers, and consequently little observed. The special account, already mentioned, of women's home work as polishers in the Britannia-metal industry, supplied by the woman inspector of the Vienna (Neustadt) district, revealed fairly good conditions (pp. 110-114). The artificial flower trade of the Graz district, however, was in a bad state, most workrooms being very much overcrowded. This was due to the rapid expansion of the trade consequent upon the decline of the German and Italian output (p. 192).

In addition to the subjects mentioned above, the report deals briefly with several matters of interest in labour circles — the substitution of identity cards for the work-books to which the trade unions had objected for years (p. CXXII); the necessity for revising works rules everywhere in view of recent legislation; and the desirability of consultation with the inspectors in order to prevent the inclusion of illegal provisions in collective agreements (p. CXXIII). A certain number of contraventions of the law in respect of the payment of wages are referred to; in the Bregenz, Innsbruck, and Vienna No. 4 districts the inspectors report frequent illegal deductions for accident insurance contributions, made in ignorance of the Act of 21 August 1917.

The general report concludes with a survey of the economic position of the workers during 1919, pointing out the enormous rise in unemployment during the early part of the year, and its decline in consequence of the legislative provisions for the compulsory engagement of workers in industrial undertakings. As a result of this there were only 80,000 persons unemployed in December 1919, as compared with 186,000 in May. Of these 73,000 were concentrated in Vienna, where the normal winter unemployment is stated to be only about 15,000. Industry in general was decidedly slack, only one of the Styrian blast-furnaces and three of the 14

Siemens-Martin furnaces in the country being left alight on account of the coal shortage. Foreign trade in gold and silver ware flourished, owing to the depreciated currency. The timber trade and some of the industries using wood revived, since the raw materials were available within the country, and water-power could often be used. Much greater use than before the war, indeed, was made of water-power as a generator of electrical current; and a special appendix to the report (pp. 345-354) evaluates the resources of the Austrian Tyrol in this kind of power.

FACTORY INSPECTION IN BELGIUM

The two reports issued by the Belgian Labour Inspection Department since the beginning of the reconstruction period ⁽¹⁾ follow the pre-war method of compilation previously used in such reports ⁽²⁾. No general survey is made; the seven district reports are printed as received, with their seven independent sets of statistical tables—not strictly uniform in contents or arrangement. The subject index attached to each volume constitutes the only attempt to co-ordinate the various returns.

The major part of 1919 was spent in the reconstruction of industrial undertakings and in re-organising the inspection staff. Comparatively little routine work was performed by the inspectors until near the end of the year, after the Act relating to the employment of women and children ⁽³⁾ had come into operation; they were occupied in the assessment of war damages sustained by industrial and commercial establishments, and few undertakings were in operation during the first half of 1919. Such rapid progress, however, was made in the resumption of industrial activity, that by the end of the year over 16,000 visits had been paid, covering nearly 12,000 establishments employing 240,000 persons.

In November and December the inspection staff was increased by the appointment of several women inspectors, and of a large number of labour supervisors (*contrôleurs du travail*) under the Order of 20 September 1919 ⁽⁴⁾. To these were assigned all the duties not requiring special technical qualifications (e.g. enforcement of Sunday rest laws, provisions relating to the hours of employment for women, young persons, and children. the payment of wages, rules of employment, etc.), so that the inspectors with engineering qualifications might devote more attention to questions of hygiene and accident prevention. The whole staff thus re-inforced was double the pre-war staff—14 men inspectors and 8 assistant inspectors, 9 women inspectors and 25 labour supervisors in 1920, as

(1) BELGIUM. MINISTÈRE DE L'INDUSTRIE, DU TRAVAIL ET DU RAVITAILLEMENT; INSPECTION DU TRAVAIL ET DES ÉTABLISSEMENTS DANGEREUX OU INCOMMODES: *Rapports annuels de l'inspection du Travail, 20me et 21me année (1919 et 1920)*. 2 vols., 303+262 pp. Brussels, J. Lebègue & Co., and A. Dewit. 1920-1921. The nineteenth year of issue of the Labour Inspection Reports was 1913; but publication was suspended during the war years 1914-1918. In the text the Report for 1919 is quoted as "1919", and the Report for 1920 as "1920".

(2) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, p. 195.

(3) Act of 28 February 1919. This Act came into operation on 1 October 1919. Text in INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1919, Bel. 2.

(4) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1920, Bel. 7.

compared with 9 men inspectors, 12 assistants, 1 woman inspector, and 11 delegates (part-time) in 1913. This increased staff paid 44,000 visits to 31,000 establishments — twice as many as in 1913, though the population of the establishments visited was only one-sixth more than that of the places inspected in 1913 — 538,000 as against 456,000.

Many small workshops were brought under inspection on 1 October 1919, as the Act relating to the employment of women and children covered their employment everywhere except in family undertakings not regarded as dangerous to life or limb. Thus, while the field of inspection was extended, many difficulties of classification were removed. Women and children were in nearly the same proportion to the total number of persons employed in the establishments inspected as in 1913, namely, 24 per cent. Boys under 16 constituted only 3 per cent. of the total (16,194) and girls under 16 only 2.7 per cent. (14,846), as compared with 6½ per cent. and 5 per cent. in 1913, whereas the employment of girls over 16 and women had increased from 14 per cent. to 18½ per cent. (from 64,966 to 99,565). Most of the girls and women were employed in the textile and clothing trades, while the boys were about equally divided between textiles, metals, and glass.

Attempts to enforce the labour laws were on the whole little more successful than in 1913. All the inspectors report that the war has practically blotted out the work of the last twenty years. In 1919 they returned to find not merely that various well equipped establishments had been destroyed, but that those left standing had often seriously deteriorated, even though in use during the Occupation — guards having been removed from machines and fencing and stair-casings taken for fuel, ventilating apparatus having got out of order, and safety regulations being everywhere forgotten or disregarded. Nothing could be done during the first year beyond re-educating employers in hygiene and accident prevention, and acquainting them with the new provisions respecting women and children. By 1920 conditions were more nearly normal, and contraventions of the law were more frequently dealt with by prosecution. During that year proceedings were taken in 753 cases (103 in 1919), a large proportion being in connection with the employment of protected persons. The number of prosecutions was much below the number in 1913, and they were mostly in consequence of flagrant offences, for conditions in general were such that it was out of the question to deal severely with first or slight offences. In the circumstances the inspectors could not be accused of overburdening the courts with work; yet they received no more support than in 1913. Cases were frequently dismissed where the offence was patent, or dealt with by the imposition of ludicrously small fines. In the Namur district in 1919, for instance, the only case brought during the year was dismissed after the briefest consideration, the inspector not even being called — and this where a worker had met his death through contact with a moving belt (1919, p. 176). The Brussels inspectors complain of inadequate fines, e.g. 1 franc for the employment of a child of 14 in a wood-machining workshop, where even the presence of a child under 16 is prohibited and where the child in question lost two fingers by a circular saw (1920, pp. 7-8).

As usual the topic of the employment of women and children occupies a large proportion of the reports. On the whole, comparatively few children under 14 were found in employment in 1919;

employers were notified well in advance of the new age-limit⁽⁵⁾, and older workers were so plentiful that there was no excuse for taking younger ones. Even so there were several contraventions, one being specially noteworthy on account of the result of the prosecution. In the Courtrai district a child of 11 was found working in a brickfield, but the employer was acquitted on the plea (all too familiar to inspectors) that the child was only playing when he moved the bricks or prepared the clay (1919, pp. 102-103).

Many more children below the age-limit were employed in 1920. The inspectors state that in many cases ignorance of the law accounts for such employment, and that the children are dismissed when the employers' attention is called to the fact. The crystal and hollow glassware factories in the Hainault district are reported to have given up night work on account of the impossibility of employing children for auxiliary tasks. In the Namur district, however, one glass-works on three occasions sent off its children when told to do so, only to recall them when the inspector was safely out of the way (1920, p. 156). In the Courtrai district, where the textile industry is important, no less than 105 children under 14 were found in work-places where their employment was prohibited—a state of affairs attributed by the inspectors entirely to ignorance on the part of the parents and greed of gain on that of the employers, since there was no question of a shortage of labour (1920, p. 94). This view is supported by the Ghent inspectors (p. 78). In this district the courts had so far supported the inspectors as normally to impose the legal penalty, but this legal penalty was unfortunately not high enough to make the employment of children unprofitable.

Agriculture is not within the competence of the labour inspectors, but during 1920 they were asked by the Minister of Labour to express their views as to the regulation of child labour on the land, in connection with a case brought up by the Science and Art Department—the employment of 118 children in four gangs in field work, some being under 12, but most between 13 and 16 (1920, p. 79). The view generally expressed was that the employment of children in agriculture should be dealt with rather by strict enforcement of the school attendance law than by special regulations or by attempts to treat agriculture in exactly the same way as industry. The fact that the higher grades in the elementary schools were not yet organised in 1920 added somewhat to the difficulty of excluding children under 14 from work (1920, p. 79).

Few contraventions of the provisions respecting the employment of women are noted, other than infringements of the law involved in the working of two shifts between 5 a. m. and 9 p. m. (the legal limits for women's work being 6 a. m. to 10 p. m.). Owing to want of raw materials and to the slackness of industry in general during the greater part of the two years under consideration, hours of work were generally well below the legal maximum. The principal subject of complaint was absence or irregularity of the work-card which all children and all women under 21 are required to possess; a new form of card had been prescribed under the Act of 28 February 1919, and even at the end of 1920 many communes had not obtained stocks of it.

Hygiene and safety conditions were very far from satisfactory in 1919 and 1920, though most inspectors report willingness on the

(5) The pre-war age-limit had been 12.

part of the employers to remedy defects where possible, and frequent requests for advice. The guarding of machinery and the provision of artificial exhausts, indeed precautions of all kinds against accidents, had been neglected during the war. Repairs and renewals, however, were progressing fairly well, and employers and workers amending their ways, during the first two years of reconstruction. Much remains to be done; in particular, failure to protect transmission machinery is commented upon in every district. In the Courtrai district an employer was ordered to enclose a dangerous belt; he failed to comply with the order, and a worker was killed in consequence. The court imposed a fine of only 26 francs, and dismissed two other cases where workers were killed through the breaking of a defective scaffold-pole and a ladder-rung respectively (both previously damaged) (1920, pp. 98-99).

In spite of the bad conditions prevalent throughout industry in 1920, only some 57,000 accidents were notified in that year. It is fairly evident, from the proportion which all accidents notified bear to persons employed and to cases of incapacity for work lasting more than a week, that the returns are imperfect. Fatal accidents were nearly as numerous in 1920 as in 1913 (249 to 289). The Namur district alone showed a credible reduction in the total number of accidents; half of those notified in this area entailed less than seven days' disablement. The inspector attributes the decline to shorter hours, which meant that there was both less opportunity for accidents and also that the fatigue which is, in part, the cause of accidents was decreased; also to workers' unwillingness to stop work and lose relatively high earnings for trifles which would sometimes keep them away before the war (1920, pp. 162-3). In the Brussels district, as in Liège, the inspector expresses the view that serious accidents are more, and not less, numerous. He attributes them partly to want of skill (many young journeymen are now at work without having served more than a year or so of apprenticeship, owing to the war), and partly to the speeding-up consequent upon shorter hours and higher wages (1920, pp. 16-17). Both in Brussels and in Namur the inspectors call attention to the change in sources of danger as electricity replaces other types of motive power, and desiderate new and simplified safety regulations (1920, pp. 14, 160).

The administration of the Sunday rest law, the burden of which was transferred from inspectors to supervisors at the end of 1919, presented fewer difficulties than before the war. The employment of "extra" hands on Sunday, so much complained of in 1913, was stopped by an Act of 1914, except for the near relations and domestic servants of the employer, so that inspection was facilitated. Sunday work, other than that permitted under the general exceptions mentioned in the law, was extremely rare in industry, and growing less frequent in commerce, especially as the fashion of closing finally at noon spread among the large shops. A difficulty arose in the Courtrai district over the employees of various bottled beer dealers. Here there was a dispute as to the classification of the trade, which had been placed among the food trades by a decision of the Minister of Labour in 1906, and treated as ordinary commerce by another decision in 1913. The district court did not mend matters, for out of 14 cases during the summer of 1920 it gave two convictions and twelve acquittals, deciding in opposite senses in two similar cases on the same day (1920, p. 96).

As regards other matters under supervision, the works rules which employers are required to affix in all workplaces were found wanting almost everywhere, and out of date even where found, owing to changes in the law and in the terms of collective agreements. Comparatively little attention seemed to be paid by either workers or employers to the rules, except in the Liège district; there was no general appreciation of the fact that they stated the conditions of employment, and were the standard of reference in disputes. The clause relating to the compulsory payment at least fortnightly of wages of less than 5 francs a day was stigmatised by all the inspectors as utterly out of date, owing to the increase in money wages throughout the country. A good many cases of payment in public houses or foremen's shops were mentioned. The measurement of work was generally stated to be done satisfactorily, and there was practical unanimity as to the desirability of installing automatic pick-counters for all looms, when the question was circulated in 1919.

A great deal of work was done in connection with dangerous, unhealthy, and noxious undertakings, especially cinemas. Many of these were set up during the war and had therefore to be examined for the purpose of issuing the legal authorisation in 1919. Both new and old cinemas were often found to be in an unsatisfactory state—inadequate exits, gangways blocked by swing seats, operators' cabins not properly installed—and closing orders were frequent. Few complaints had to be dealt with in respect of noxious trades, but the Antwerp inspector suggests that there will probably be a very considerable increase in 1921, when the chemical works resume operations and once more pollute the watercourses with their waste (1920, p. 63). Water pollution is likely to attract special attention now, since the war years have given the inhabitants of the less disturbed areas an opportunity to judge of the attractions of clear streams (1919, p. 79).

The testing of gas-containers involved an enormous amount of work in 1919 and 1920—more than four times the pre-war annual task—owing to the great number of renewed testings which had fallen due since the beginning of the war. Towards the end of 1919 the test pressure was reduced from twice to one and a half times the actual working pressure, thus bringing the Belgian standard into conformity with those of France and Germany (the main sources of supply for the containers used in Belgium). The Liège inspector repeats his recommendation that all containers be tested, and not only those used for railway transport. In this connection it may be noted that the 1920 report contains a special study (pp. 234-248) on safety appliances for handling and storing inflammable liquids which have been adopted in Belgium. The compiler of the memorandum, one of the inspectors at headquarters, recommends the issue of new regulations compelling the use of safety appliances in all stores of inflammable liquids which are over a certain size and situated among or near agglomerations of buildings.

The chief woman inspector has drawn up a report on the re-organisation of apprenticeship in women's trades, which is concerned solely with lace making, the principal women's trade requiring a definite training. The report appears in two instalments; the first, consisting mainly of a geographical classification of the schools and workshops giving instruction in lacemaking in 1914, their size, nature, and position in 1919, appears in the Report for 1919 (pp. 225-297). The second part, expanding the general considerations and

recommendations indicated in Part I, is published in the Report for 1920 (pp. 249-256). Among the recommendations is one in favour of the regulation of all apprenticeship, irrespective of the nature of the place of employment, and another for a fixed scale of wages for apprentices. The first recommendation is intended more particularly to ensure access to, and supervision of, all workshops in charitable institutions and subsidised workshops for apprentices under the Technical Education Department, both groups of establishments being at present apt to infringe the labour laws and difficult to bring to book on account of doubts as to their classification.

MINING STATUTES OF PENNSYLVANIA

The United States Bureau of Mines has in recent years been engaged in collecting, codifying, and publishing Federal and State mining statutes, in the hope of promoting uniformity in mining legislation. California and Illinois having been dealt with, Pennsylvania has been selected as the third State for treatment, on account of the importance of its extractive industries. In the words of the author's introductory note, the work ⁽¹⁾ "is intended to include every legislative enactment of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania relating to the mining and mineral industries". The author gives as obvious reasons for setting out the entire body of mining laws that it is desirable to show the progress and advancement made and the changes through which the various enactments have passed; secondly, that no assumptions can be made as to what particular laws are in effect, but that this can be determined by the jurisdiction of the courts alone; thirdly, that it was at least necessary to set out all those Acts which had at any time been construed by a court. The method followed is to collect and group under appropriate separate titles both all complete Acts and all parts of other Acts referring to any one topic, "so that any given subject can be followed from the first to the last enactment, and each subject is thus made complete in a single collection". Abstracts of the decisions of all courts which have construed mining legislation are added to each Act or part of an Act.

The topic-headings under which the various enactments are classified are arranged in alphabetical order, and an index of subjects occupying 150 pages is appended. Tables of cases and a chronological list of the statutes dealt with (dating back to an Explosives Act of 1701) are also attached. The intention of the compiler is that the law relating to mines should be easily accessible and comprehensible to both mineowners and miners. The annotations, however, are at times somewhat obscure, though fairly free from technical terms. It is impossible to obtain a general idea of the system of authorities competent to deal with mining questions, except by research and compilation from various parts of the volume; and the text of particular Acts, if required as a whole, must similarly be collected from various headings. The index covers 150 pages of very small type, and presents an appearance of great complexity and at first sight of thoroughness, but a closer examination reveals grievous faults of omission. For instance, the important legislation

(1) UNITED STATES. DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF MINES: *Pennsylvania Mining Statutes*, annotated by J. W. THOMPSON; Bulletin 185 (Law Serial 21). XLVIII + 1221 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1920. \$1.

tabulated under "Miners' Wages" is not mentioned in the index under any of the headings "Wages", "Salaries", or "Compensation". The elaborate safety regulations tabulated under the heading "Mining Operations" are not referred to under either "Safety" or "Accidents". As for the Arbitration Act of 1893, the index fails to mention it under "Disputes", "Lockouts", "Strikes", or "Trade Disputes", and records it only under the heading "Arbitration", to which it was assigned in the body of the volume. These and other defects greatly reduce its value, and it may be questioned whether the compiling of the index was worth while, in view of the alphabetical arrangement of the topic-headings of the volume. Nevertheless, in spite of these obvious defects in the subject index and others in choice of headings for topics, for working reference in connection with the mining industry the volume should be extremely useful.

The tabulation of legislative provisions reveals the relatively late appearance of a central office to deal with mining affairs; it was not until 1897 that a Bureau of Mines was organised, consisting of three persons. Labour legislation in connection with mines is also of recent date, though less recent than centralisation. The earliest Acts in the collection (1701-1787) deal with the storage of explosives from the point of view of the safety of the general public and not that of the miner. Standardisation of weights and measures, introduced in 1788, is also intended in the first instance to protect the public. The legislation of the first half of the XIXth century deals mainly with grants to companies and the problems connected with the tenure and use of land. Apart from the protection of miners' claims for wages against the employer's estate, there is no special legislation to safeguard the workers' interests until 1873, when an Act is passed to authorise the appointment by the miners of a checkweighman. Women and children were first protected by an Act of 1885, which excluded girls and women altogether from mining work, even at the surface (except in offices); boys might be employed in connection with anthracite mines at 14 years of age below ground and at 12 years of age above ground, the age-limit for bituminous mines being two years lower in each case. The ages were gradually raised and the difference eliminated by special Acts; finally, the general Employment Act of 1915 excluded all boys under 16 from night work at mines, and limited their hours of employment to 9 hours daily and 51 hours weekly, while 18 was fixed as the age limit for particularly responsible or dangerous tasks.

Safety regulations appeared in various Acts of more or less limited application during the later seventies, and were elaborated and generalised during subsequent decades. It is noteworthy that the commissions appointed to revise the safety provisions in the mining laws consisted almost entirely of persons of practical experience, mostly working miners, with only a very small number of coal-owners (*). The notification by the employer of accidents (other than those resulting in *serious* injury or death) has been required only since 1913; thirty days are allowed for the fulfilment of this duty, which does not apply to accidents other than those to regular workers, or accidents causing less than two days' incapacity for work. Serious and fatal accidents, however, are reported weekly

(2) Cf. the Act of 27 Feb. 1891.

by the mine foreman to the inspector, independently of the employer's report. The liability of the employer to pay compensation, though dealt with in an elaborate Act, seems to be a matter of doubt when it is a question of his responsibility for the negligence of certified mine foremen and others whose duties are in any way prescribed or regulated by law.

Only one Act has been passed for the settlement of industrial disputes, that of 18 May 1893, empowering either party to a dispute, in the event of failure to arrive at a settlement by negotiation, to apply to the competent court of common pleas for the appointment of a board of arbitrators. The consent of the other party is not essential; the board has power to compel witnesses to appear, and its decision is final. The application of these provisions, however, depends on the conviction of the court of common pleas that the case involves "matters of sufficient importance to warrant the intervention of a board of arbitrators in order to preserve the public peace or promote the interests and harmony of labour and capital"—conditions which a court disapproving of interference in matters relating to employment would be reluctant to recognise in almost any conceivable circumstances. It appears, indeed, that no use has been made of these provisions, even in the great coal strike of 1902. Most labour disputes in Pennsylvania have been settled by conference and agreement between the parties, and down to 1906 only about 1 per cent. had been settled by arbitration of any kind whatever (*).



(3) UNITED STATES COMMISSIONER OF LABOUR: *Report on Strikes and Lock-outs, 1906*. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1906.

BOOK NOTES

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *The Ninth International Congress of Metal Workers* (Lucerne, 8 August 1921). Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 24. 12 pp. Geneva, 18 October 1921.

This number of the International Labour Office *Studies and Reports* gives an account of the Ninth International Congress of Metal Workers held at Lucerne on 8 August 1921, which was preceded by a meeting of the Executive Committee at Zurich on 6 August.

— *Mémoire sur l'intoxication saturnine dans l'industrie. Etudes et Documents*, Series F, No. 2. 22 pp. Geneva, 20 September 1921.

The International Labour Office has translated into French the *Memorandum on Industrial Lead Poisoning*, published by the Service of Factory Inspection of the Home Office. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1921. 3d. net.

— *The Use of White Lead in Painting*. Studies and Reports, Series F, No. 4. 16 pp. Geneva, 24 October 1921.

— *Prohibition of the Use of White Lead in Painting*. Studies and Reports, Series F, No. 5. 24 pp. Geneva, 24 October 1921.

These two memoranda were originally published in German, by the Düsseldorf Chamber of Commerce and by the Union of Painters, Varnishers Decorators, Colour Workers, and White-washers of Germany respectively, with reference to the inclusion of the prohibition of the use of white lead in painting on the agenda of the Third International Labour Conference. In view of the interest of the information given the International Labour Office has translated both memoranda, without accepting any responsibility, however, for the facts quoted or opinions expressed.

— *The International Protection of Women Workers*. Studies and Reports, Series I, No. 1. 11 pp. Geneva, 15 October 1921.

Gives an historical account of the international efforts made to protect women workers, from the Conference at Berlin, where in 1890 the question of the protection of women wage-earners was definitely raised for the first time as an international question, down to the Third International Labour Conference, which had on its agenda several questions very closely affecting women's employment.

— *First International Congress of Christian Land Workers' Unions* (Coblentz, 27-28 April 1921). Studies and Reports, Series K, No. 7. 9 pp. Geneva, 23 October 1921.

A report of the First International Congress of Christian Land Workers' Unions. The idea of such a Congress originated during the International Congress of Christian Trade Unions held at the Hague in June 1920. The statutes of the new International Federation of Christian Land Workers' Unions are given in an appendix.

CONGRÈS INTERNATIONAL DE LA PROTECTION DE L'ENFANCE (DEUXIÈME), BRUXELLES, 1921 (SECOND INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDREN, BRUSSELS, 1921).

Tome I. Rapports sur les questions mises à l'ordre du jour du Congrès. (Vol. I. Reports on the Questions on the Agenda of the Congress.) 756 pp.

Tome I. Rapports sur l'ensemble des mesures prises pour la protection de l'enfance dans différents pays. (Vol. II. Reports on Measures taken for the Protection of Children in various Countries.) 534 pp. Brussels, L'Impr. de l'Office de publicité. 1921.

The first of these two volumes contains the reports presented on the various questions which were on the agenda of the Second International Congress for the Protection of Children, held at Brussels from 18 to 21 July 1921. The reports, of which there are a large number, are classified under the following heads: moral protection of children and children's courts; abnormal children; infant hygiene and infant welfare; war orphans; the creation of an international office for the protection of children.

The second volume, intended as "a preliminary basis for the research work to be carried out by the International Office for the Protection of Children", consists of a series of reports on legislation for the protection of children in these countries which have sent a general report for this purpose to the Secretariat. It is a valuable source of information on the measures adopted by these countries "taking into due account the national legislation, customs, and character of each country".

INSTITUT INTERNATIONAL D'AGRICULTURE: *Annuaire international de législation agricole. 1920, Xème année.* (Texte en français, introduction et index en anglais.) (INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE: *International Year Book of Agricultural Legislation, 1920, 10th year.* Text in French, introduction and index in English.) 862 pp. Rome, Printing Office of the International Institute of Agriculture. 1921. 30 francs.

This year book gives a complete account of changes in agricultural legislation in various countries during 1920, more especially of laws whose purpose was to increase production or to settle disputes between proprietors and workers. The topics dealt with by the legislation here reprinted or referred to include agricultural and commercial statistics, agricultural organisation and education, agricultural co-operation, insurance and credit, rural property and land settlement, relations between capital and labour in agriculture (legislation as to farm leases, agricultural labour exchange, legislation for the protection of labourers, legislation as to rural housing, legislation on agricultural chambers and on emigration and immigration), finally, rural hygiene and the policing of the fields. There is also a chronological index by countries and an alphabetical subject index.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

FRANCE

MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL : *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Nos 7-8-9. Juill.-Août-Sept. 1921. (MINISTRY OF LABOUR : *Bulletin of the Ministry of Labour* ⁽¹⁾, Nos. 7-8-9. July-August-September 1921. 176 pp. Paris, Berger-Levrault. 1921. 3 fr. 75.

This number of the *Bulletin of the Ministry of Labour* gives statistical information on strikes in April, May, and June 1921; the index numbers calculated by the Cost of Living Committees (*cont.*); and collective agreements in 1920. It also surveys the work of the joint industrial councils, and prints a report by Mr. Gauthier, Chief of the Regional Employment Bureau of Paris, on the vocational guidance work of the joint labour exchanges. Other articles are on the fluctuations of wages since the war, on working-class housing and the continuation from a former number of some remarks on the use of leisure resulting from the 8-hour day. In addition the section dealing with the international labour movement contains a report of the Eighth Session of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office and an exposé of the situation on 1 August 1921 from the point of view of the measures taken for the ratification of the Washington and Genoa Conventions.

OFFICE DE STATISTIQUE D'ALSACE ET DE LORRAINE : *Comptes rendus statistiques : L'Alsace et la Lorraine économiques* (Fascicule No. 4, numéro spécial). (STATISTICAL OFFICE OF ALSACE AND LORRAINE : *Statistical Reports : The Economic Situation in Alsace and Lorraine*; Part 4, special number). 118 pp. Strasbourg, Impr. strasbourgeoise, 15, rue des Juifs. 1921.

Before re-starting the publication of their Statistical Year Book, the Statistical Office of Alsace and Lorraine has in this brochure brought up to date the most important statistical data about population, agriculture, and industry in the two provinces. The first half of the chapter dealing with industry is based upon information obtained at the last industrial census on 12 June 1907; it deals with the distribution of the population at present employed in various branches of industry, commerce, and transport, the number and types of industrial undertakings, and the changes in the grouping of the industrial population which can be traced from one census to another. The second half of the chapter gives short special accounts and additional information on the principal industries, dealing more especially with the amount and value of their outputs.

UNITED KINGDOM

BOARD OF EDUCATION : *Humanism in the Continuation School*. Educational Pamphlet No. 43. 136 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1921.

In this pamphlet the author calls for more attention to the "cultural" as opposed to the purely vocational subjects in the continuation schools established under the Education Act of 1918. "It is not technical instruction we stand in need of, so much as an informed humanism, which welcomes and understands the results of technical achievement." The writer sketches the possibilities of developing useful and intelligent citizenship by teaching social and industrial history and geography with a local application and fostering a love of literature by the use of a well-chosen library. Outline suggestions for teachers are followed by a list of books for the use of teachers and pupils in continuation schools.

1) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No 1, Oct. 1921, p. 199.

UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR. BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *National War Labour Board; a history of its Formation and Activities, together with its Awards and Documents of Importance in the Report of its Development.* Compiled by Margaret GADSBY. Bulletin No. 287. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

The National War Labour Board was one of the principal arbitration agencies employed by the United States Government during the war for the settlement of war time labour disputes. It was composed of an equal number of representatives of employers and employees, each of which groups appointed a chairman representative of the public interest.

The Bureau of Labour Statistics states:

"The National War Labour Board served as an industrial supreme court for the period of the war. The principal object in its creation was the removal of the causes of interrupted production by providing a means by which parties to controversies might continue their industrial efforts in the knowledge that their differences would be adjudicated fairly and honestly on the basis of principles formulated by both sides and guaranteeing fundamental justice to both sides. To a great extent this object was realised. The Board played a large part in the stabilisation of industrial relationships to the end that war production of the country was not only maintained, but increased to the maximum in the history of the country. Furthermore, it did much to educate employers, employees, and the public in regard to some of the fundamental aspects of industrial relationships.

— CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *Physical Standard for Working Children.* Preliminary report of the Committee appointed by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labour to formulate standards of normal development and sound health for the use of physicians in examining children entering employment, and children at work. 24 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. Bureau Publication No. 79.

The Committee whose report is herewith published was composed entirely of physicians, with the exception of the Secretary, who was the Director of the Industrial Division of the Children's Bureau. The report lays down a general definition of the minimum standard of physical fitness for children entering employment. It elaborates each of the points to be considered in making physical examination, and outlines the methods of administration required. A suggested form of "Record of physical examination for employment certificate", together with "Instructions to physicians for filling in records of physical examinations of children applying for employment certificates", has been drawn up by the Committee.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR. BUREAU OF EDUCATION: *State Laws relating to Education enacted in 1918 and 1919.* Bulletin No. 30, 1920, compiled by W. R. HOOD. 231 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 40 cents.

This Bulletin brings up to date the information contained in two previous Bulletins, No. 47 of 1915 and No. 23 of 1918. It contains a survey of all educational legislation, classified in detail according to subject, with frequent cross-references and an index. The purpose of these "digests" of school laws is, in addition to providing an index of all educational legislation in the American States, to summarise this legislation in such a manner as to show its main provisions and purposes, and to encourage the tendency already observed to enact educational legislation on more uniform lines tending towards the same ends.

NEW-YORK

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *Special Bulletin No. 107. New York Labour Laws Enacted in 1921.* 68 pp. Albany, J.B. Lyon Co. 1921.

This Bulletin presents, among other matter, the recommendations of the Governor of New York State for re-organisation of the Department of Labour and for prompt payment of workmen's compensation, and the texts of twenty nine labour chapters of the laws of 1921.

OREGON

BUREAU OF LABOUR: *Handy reference to Labour Laws and Supreme Court Decisions of the State of Oregon.* 60 pp. 1921.

The preface to this brochure states that its intention is not to make every man his own lawyer, but rather to furnish reliable information to wage earners as to their legal rights, duties, and obligations. The position of workers under employers' liability, workmen's compensation, women's and child labour, and the rulings of the Industrial Welfare Commission are among the more important subjects on which explanations are given and references supplied.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

BAILEY, W. Milne: *Towards a Postal Guild.* 12 pp. London, The Labour Publishing Co. 1921.

This brochure starts from the fact that the Union of Post Office Workers has adopted as one of its aims the formation of a national guild to conduct the entire postal, telegraphic, and telephonic service. The author points out that, in the case of the post office, "while the post office worker is not necessarily the best person to say what the postal services and charges should be, he is the only person who really knows what is the best way of carrying on those services". Mr. Bailey surveys the present organisation of postal workers in Great Britain and considers that the first and most obvious step in the direction of progress is to organise industrial unionism. In conclusion, he remarks that a survey of the whole field gives an encouraging impression.

BRUNET, RENÉ: *La Société des Nations et la France (France and the League of Nations)*. 286 pp. Paris, Libr. de la Société du Recueil Sirey. 1921. 7 fr. 50.

Mr. René Brunet, Professor of Law at the University of Caen, states in his preface that the object of his book is "to explain to those who do not know what the League of Nations is and what it has accomplished". He reviews and criticises the constitution of the League, the results obtained up to July 1921, its general features, its future, the means it possesses of safeguarding peace, and finally analyses "the mission which may accrue to France in the League of Nations". Turning to the International Labour Office, the author explains its internal policy, sets forth its "specially important position" among the "technical organisations the constitution of which has been or is being accomplished", and refers to the work of the Washington and Genoa Conferences. His conclusion is that the League of Nations, after some necessary changes, "will be capable of rendering those services which will perhaps not fall very far short of what the working classes contemplated in their dreams during the calamities of the war", but on condition "that the governments renounce that attitude of mistrust and, indeed, of opposition, which until now has been far too apparent".

COMITÉ CENTRAL DES ARMATEURS DE FRANCE : *Recueil des lois et règlements concernant la marine marchande française* (CENTRAL COMMITTEE OF FRENCH SHIPOWNERS : *Laws and Regulations affecting the French Mercantile Marine*). 1182+36 pp. Paris, Impr. Chaix, 20, rue Bergère. 1921. 120 francs.

The Central Committee of French Shipowners has just published this collection of laws and regulations on all matters affecting the French merchant marine, such as navigation, crews, customs and fiscal legislation, maritime trade, and the regulation of seamen's labour. The earlier editions of 1904 and 1907 have been completely remodelled and considerably enlarged by the addition of a large number of documents which have been issued since 1907. The new edition contains the texts of all Acts, Orders, Regulations, Decrees, Instructions, Circulars, and administrative decisions affecting merchant and fishing vessels, which were previously scattered through various official publications. Among them are a certain number of documents which were hitherto only to be found in the archives of government Departments. Two indexes are given, one chronological, the other analytical and alphabetical according to subject. The book constitutes almost a maritime labour code, and will be invaluable, not only to jurists, officials, and economists who may be concerned with maritime questions, but also to all who are subject to the provisions of the laws and regulations affecting the French merchant marine, such as shipowners, ship-brokers, consignees, underwriters, and shipbuilders.

COTTER, Arundel : *United States Steel*. 312 pp. New York and Toronto, Doubleday Page & Co. 1921.

This is an account of the steel industry in the United States. Its special subject is the United States Steel Corporation, its formation, its methods, the chief incidents in its history, and the outstanding personalities connected with it. In a chapter called "Humanising Industry" a general description is given of the welfare work carried on by the Corporation.

DEBES, Inge : *Uthbyttedeling ; 1. Utlandet (Profit-sharing ; I. Abroad)*. Utarbeidet efter opdrag fra Arbejderkommission av 1918. viii+417 pp. Kristiania, Steenske Forlag. 1921.

This work was published in 1918; it contains very complete and exact information, going back into the history of the subject on profit-sharing in countries other than Denmark, principally in England, France, and the United States. The ever-increasing importance of the question is well brought out. The concluding chapter deals with legislation on profit-sharing.

DOUGLAS, Paul H. . *American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education*. Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University. Whole Number 216. 348 pp. New York, Longmans, Green & Co. 1921.

This book, after a brief history of apprenticeship and of its development and decay in America, discusses the educational requirements of modern industry, and the usefulness of modern substitutes for apprenticeship. It concludes with a review of the social aspects of the question, including a chapter on the attitude of labour and capital towards industrial education, and, gathering together the threads of the discussion, outlines a possible programme for future policy. Numerous references to other works dealing with the subject are given; also a selected bibliography covering the whole field in the United States.

DU GAST (Mme): *Status of Workers in Morocco*. Report submitted to the Labour Minister. 200 pp. Paris, Imprimerie Nationale. 1921.

This work gives a summary of the situation of organised industrial and commercial workers and seamen in Morocco. The author states that the idea of mutual aid has to a certain extent spread amongst these organisations, which even provide for whole or part payment of wages to victims of industrial accidents. Wages and working conditions are regulated by common law; but there are no provisions applicable to landworkers, who are still in a state of semi-serfdom. There is an emigration movement in Morocco. Moslems emigrate especially to Algeria and Tunis, where they hire themselves out either as agricultural labourers or as servants. The Jews emigrate to South America, principally to Brazil. Immigration, European workers only, is little developed.

DUNCAN, Joseph F.: *Agriculture and the Community*. 119 pp. Stirling, The Scottish Farm Servants Union. 1921.

This book by the General Secretary of the Scottish Farm Servants Union sets out to trace, from the farmworkers point of view, "the causes which have operated to bring the agricultural industry to the position we find it in to-day, and to discuss a policy by which the community will be able to make the industry contribute its proper share to the public welfare". In his discussion on current policies the author deals with guaranteed prices, of which he disapproves as an artificial attempt to bolster up an industry that is not making adequate use of its productive forces; he approves of the demand for security of tenure so long as the system of tenant farming is continued, and declares that within the farming industry itself there is no important movement for occupying ownership or an increased number of small holdings. He advocates a "national policy" towards the land: nationalisation, the granting of adequate powers to the Ministry of Agriculture in England and Wales and to the Board of Agriculture in Scotland to maintain a proper standard of farming, and the setting up of local administrative committees to arrange for the management and cultivation of land.

FABRICANTS DE CÉRUSE D'EUROPE : *Interdiction de l'emploi de la céruse. Réponse au questionnaire du Bureau International du Travail*. (MANUFACTURERS OF WHITE LEAD IN EUROPE : *Prohibition of the Use of White Lead. Reply to the questionnaire of the International Labour Office*.) 91 pp. Saint-Dizier, Impr. Brilliard. 1921.

In this brochure, published in connection with the inclusion of the prohibition of the use of white lead in painting on the agenda of the Third International Labour Conference, the manufacturers of white lead in Europe criticise the memorandum and the questionnaire on white lead published by the International Labour Office. They bring forward arguments against prohibition of the use of white lead in painting; and declare a policy of regulation to be "the only efficacious method of combating the danger of lead poisoning".

FÉDÉRATION FRANÇAISE DES TRAVAILLEURS DU LIVRE : *Rapport sur la gestion du Comité fédéral* (FEDERATION OF THE WORKERS IN THE FRENCH BOOK TRADE : *Report on the Management of the Federal Committee*). 19 pp. Paris, Impr. Nouvelle. 1921.

This pamphlet briefly summarises the activities of the Federal Committee of Workers in the French book trade from 1 October 1920 to 30 September 1921. It includes, among other items of interest, an instructive account of the fluctuations of wages between the dates mentioned, also of the opposition to proposed wage-cuts, as well as a table of the wages of the different sections of the Federation in 1920 and at the present moment.

HALDANE, R. B. (VISCOUNT HALDANE OF CLOAN) : *The problem of Nationalisation*; with an introduction by R. H. TAWNEY and Harold J. LASKI. 48 pp. London, Allen & Unwin, and Labour Publishing Co. 1921. 1s.

"The Problem of Nationalisation" is a reprint of Lord Haldane's evidence before the Royal Commission on Coal Mines in March 1919, and forms a valuable contribution to the literature of the science of administration. Many of the suggestions contained in it were drawn from Lord Haldane's experience at the War Office in 1905-1912. The writers of the introduction definitely express themselves in favour of nationalisation, thereby going somewhat further than Lord Haldane, and emphasise the importance of psychological factors in the control of industry.

KNIGHT, Frank H. : *Risk, Uncertainty and Profit*. 381 pp. Boston and New York, Houghton, Mifflin Co. 1921.

This book is described by the author as a study in "pure theory". It aims at presenting a fuller and more careful examination of the rôle of the *entrepreneur*, the recognised central figure of business enterprise, and of the forces which fix the remuneration of his special function.

LAWSON, F. M. : *Industrial Control ; the Application to Industry of Direction, Control, and Light*. 130 pp. London, Pitman & Sons. 1920. 8s.6d.

"Industrial Control" is an account of the application to various types of manufacturing industry of the comparatively new system of Exposed Records of work on order, in progress, or completed, and of the gain in efficiency, output, and co-operation between management and staff which may result from it. A large number of diagrams and photographs are given of record boards which are actually installed in several different English firms, with a fairly detailed account of the working of the system in one or two typical cases. The reader will find a certain amount of useful information about a subject on which not much has yet been written.

LEROY, Maxime : *Les techniques nouvelles du syndicalisme (New Methods in Trade Unionism)*. 210 pp. Paris, Bibliothèque d'information sociale, Garnier frères. 1921.

In this work, which is characterised by vigorous and substantial thinking, Mr. Maxime Leroy gives a scientific analysis of the growth of trade unionist principles and action, the importance of which "increases with the increase of industrial production". He shows how modern trade unionism, "open to all the living and creative influences of industrial production and scientific or artistic intelligence" and animated by a positive and constructive spirit, is economic, rather than political in character; the conception of the producer is supplanting that of the citizen and the idea of labour that of sovereignty. Trade unionism, in the author's opinion, advocates not a "rapid conquest of power", but "a slow infiltration of proletarian life into bourgeois society, until it more or less completely replaces that society"; for example, the General Confederation of Labour, acting through the Economic Council of Labour, is openly preparing practical rules, and practical legislation for reconstruction of society. In fact, the working class is endeavouring through its élite "to conquer its masters by superior methods of discipline and work". In this way the author brings out the tendencies and principles, the formulae and methods which underlie the present efforts of the proletariat to unite, on behalf of labour and for the benefit of its class, "the right to enjoy social benefits and the obligation to perform useful work".

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD: *Bulletin No. 1. Industrial-Economic Conditions in the United States*. 18 pp. New York, National Industrial Conference Board, 10 East Thirty-Ninth Street. 1921.

The National Industrial Conference Board was organised in 1916, and consists of thirty national and State associations representing more than sixty thousand manufacturers who normally employ between seven and eight million men and women. This Bulletin, the first of a series on industrial and economic subjects, deals with general conditions in the United States, and with the numerical strength of the labour supply, wage changes, fluctuations in the cost of living, hours of work, and relations between employers and employed.

REYNIER, Elie: *La soie en Vivarais (Silk in Vivarais)*. 246 pp. On sale by the author, Professor at the Normal School of Privas (Ardèche). 1921. 20 francs.

A very interesting study in economic history and geography. This local monograph gives a precise and well-informed account of the development of the silk industry in Vivarais, under the influence of very peculiar climatic, social, and historical conditions. The vicissitudes and transformations of this industry in the course of centuries are first described and followed by a chapter on the life of the workers, properly so-called. Their housing conditions, working hours, wages, and sanitary conditions about the middle of the XIXth century are illustrated. The author then summarises the principal legal provisions for the protection of the worker, discusses their application in the Ardèche, gives a general review of the movement among the operatives towards united action, and analyses their intellectual and moral outlook.

SERWY, Willy: *Le travail de nuit dans les boulangeries et les pâtisseries. (Night-work in Bakeries and Pastrycooks' Establishments)*. 63 pp. Brussels, Office coopératif belge. 1921.

After describing the regulations governing night-work in bakeries in various countries, the author discusses the legal, practical, and economic results of the application to bakeries and pastrycooks' establishments of the provisions prohibiting night-work, contained in the Act establishing the 8-hour day. The text of the Act is reproduced as an appendix.

SOCIÉTÉ SUISSE DES COMMERÇANTS: *Les sociétés de commerçants propagatrices de l'instruction professionnelle*. Extrait d'une conférence de Ed. SCHINDLER. (SWISS TRADERS' SOCIETY: *Traders' Societies for the Encouragement of Commercial Education*. Extract from a lecture by Ed. SCHINDLER.) 22 pp. Zurich, Société suisse des commerçants, 18, Pelikanstrasse. 1921. 30 centimes.

✠ An account of the policy followed by the Swiss Traders' Society on commercial education.

STONE, Gilbert: *A History of Labour*. 402 pp. London, George G. Harrap & Co., Ltd. 1921.

This book consists of a series of historical illustrations, not without interest, in support of the author's contention that industrial progress is only to be attained by evolutionary, and not by revolutionary, methods.

TAYLOR, G. R. Stirling: *Guild Politics*. 136 pp. London, Cecil Palmer. 1921.

This book consists for the most part of a large number of generalisations with reference to the problem of setting up a form of guild socialism in Great Britain. In addition, the author proffers a considerable amount of advice to the Labour Party, to which he looks for the realisation of the guild state. The recommendations generally are of the nature of libertarian socialism, guild socialism, and, to a slight extent, the proposals put forward by Major C. H. Douglas and the *New Age*.

TROMBERT, Albert: *La participation aux bénéfices; publication de la Société pour l'étude pratique de la participation du personnel dans les bénéfices. (Profit Sharing; Publication of the Society for the Encouragement of Workers' Profit-Sharing Schemes)*. 114 pp. Paris, libr. Chaix. 1921.

In this clear and exact survey, the author reviews the growth of various profit-sharing schemes; he gives a general analysis of the characteristics and scope of this method of remuneration, together with an account and discussion of some schemes already at work in France and in several other countries and of their practical results. The different systems adopted in these schemes as to rates, methods of distributing and of appropriating shares—tending towards collective or individual profit-sharing—are briefly discussed. The management of profits is also dealt with, and, in conclusion, a general review of results is given, illustrated by detailed examples.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

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 roméed 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
Inclusive Subscription	500	500	750	12/0/0	650	150	300	300	50

Except for the inclusive subscription postage is extra.

Rates will be quoted for other countries on application.

Attention may be drawn to the fact that these rates have been fixed in such a way as to give considerable advantage to those who pay the inclusive subscription. Not only do these subscribers pay less than the sum of the individual subscriptions, but in addition they receive all the non-periodical publications. The Special Reports of the Office will undoubtedly have considerable importance.

Orders and subscriptions of whatever kind should be sent, together with remittance, to the International Labour Office, to whose order cheques should be drawn.