



INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Trade Union Organisations

The industrial depression continues to be the chief topic of discussion in all trade union assemblies. In Italy the Government, at the instigation of the General Confederation of Labour, has instituted an enquiry into the chief factors involved in reductions of wages. The committee of enquiry includes representatives both of employers and of workers together with experts appointed by the Government. The demand for the enquiry arose out of the controversy over the proposed wage reductions. In the United Kingdom the trade unions are feeling the strain of the depression both in funds and membership.

Questions of organisation have also come to the fore in various countries, chiefly in the form of the discussion of relations between different national or international federations. Further advances in the organisation of the Christian trade union movement are also to be observed.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

A conference of **Christian transport workers' unions**, attended by representatives from Belgium, Germany, and the Netherlands, was held on 18 October at Aix-la-Chapelle to discuss labour conditions for workers employed in Rhine navigation. The conference agreed that Christian unions of transport workers in countries concerned in traffic on the Rhine should work in the closest co-operation. A resolution was passed calling attention to the variation in hours of work and wages in the different districts bordering on the Rhine. This was stated to be due primarily to the financial situation, and measures for the stabilisation of the exchanges were called for. The secretariat was instructed to consider and take the necessary action on this and other questions discussed by the conference.

Certain delegates of the women's Christian trade unions who attended the recent session of the International Congress of Working Women at Geneva (1) have issued a declaration that all women affiliated to the International Federation of Christian Workers intend to withdraw from the International Congress. This is due to the clause embodied in the constitution of the new International Federation of Working Women which excludes unions on a sectarian basis and those affiliated to Moscow.

The **International Federation of Christian Unions of Metal Workers** was formally constituted at a congress at Turin from 6 to 9 November. Preliminary conferences with this in view have been held

(1) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 68.

since June 1920, and as far back as 1912 an international agreement was concluded between certain Christian metal workers' unions for the protection of the rights of members who moved from one country to another. After the adoption of the constitution and the choice of Duisburg (Germany) as headquarters of the Federation, the 1912 agreement was renewed and confirmed. Resolutions were passed protesting against attempts to reduce wages, demanding the extension of social insurance legislation, and affirming the necessity for the representation of the working classes in the social and economic organisations of all countries. The resolution on the economic crisis, after referring to the instability of the exchanges, the loss of purchasing power among the workers and unemployment, concluded :

Individual countries cannot remedy these evils by independent action. For this reason, the congress asks the governments and representatives of the people in all countries to co-operate in the necessary measures for the restoration of economic stability in all civilised countries. The congress urges workers' organisations in all countries to appeal to their respective governments and parliaments, and hopes for the support of the International Labour Office in order that their efforts may be crowned with success.

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The **Canadian Federation of Labour** held its thirteenth annual convention at Montreal from 12 to 14 September. The convention, which was attended by 20 delegates from about ten unions, represented organisations outside the "international" unions and the Trades and Labour Congress (2). A resolution was passed congratulating the Canadian Brotherhood of Railway Employees on their expulsion from the Trades and Labour Congress (3), and authorising the executive board to approach the Brotherhood with a view to affiliation to the Federation of Labour. A protest was registered against the system by which the Alberta miners pay their subscriptions to the United Mine Workers of America through the mineowners (4). The executive was also instructed to establish relations with the British and other national trade union organisations. Motions were passed asking the Government to recognise the Federation in constituting commissions and other public bodies and protesting against the further amalgamation of banking establishments. The convention asked its constituent unions to give their moral and financial support to the Toronto Press Assistants' Union then engaged in a struggle against the "open shop". It was agreed that the annual report, constitution, and bye-laws of the Federation should be printed both in French and English.

The **Confederation of Catholic Workers of Canada** was established at the fourth convention of National and Catholic Unions held from 24 to 28 September at Hull, Quebec. About two hundred delegates were present representing 89 unions with an aggregate membership of about 45,000. The principles of the new Confederation were left to be decided by the religious authorities, but the principle of strikes and the payment of strike benefits was adopted. The headquarters of the Confederation will be at Quebec. The status of women within the unions gave rise to considerable discussion. It was eventually referred to a committee of three chaplains, who were to report on the general

(2) *Ibid.* Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 85-87.

(3) *Ibid.* Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, pp. 40-41.

(4) *Ibid.* p. 41.

trade union organisation of women and the particular question of the representation of women at conferences. The question of unemployment was naturally one of those most fully discussed. The convention called for remedial measures by the Government, "not only immediate necessary work, but useful public work"; the extension of housing schemes and colonisation centres, further investment in industry, and the temporary stoppage of immigration were also mentioned as means of alleviating the crisis. It was pointed out that members of the Catholic unions should cease the practice of working full time while other members were out of work, and that co-operation, instead of hostility, between the manufacturers and the labour unions would do much to make the depression less acute. The abolition of private employment bureaux was also demanded. In connection with the strike policy of the Confederation, it may be noted that a resolution was passed stating that firemen, policemen, and waterworks employees, as public servants, had not the right to strike, but that equally the municipalities had no right to force a lock-out. A large number of resolutions were considered and passed, dealing with conditions in particular trades, and the desirability of appointing provincial and municipal fair-wage boards and officers. The convention asked that certain Catholic festivals should again be recognised as public holidays, and that, in view of the fact that French and English are equally official languages in Canada, the postage stamps of the Dominion should be "neutral" in design and wording.

In France, the **Federation of State Maritime Employees** (*Fédération des travailleurs de la Marine de l'Etat*), met in congress at Paris from 24 to 28 October. The congress considered the question of pensions and called attention to the fact that few, if any, improvements had been made in the system since the last congress met. It called for the application of the Acts increasing pensions for especially long service and providing for workers not mobilised, but employed in factories, who were injured or invalided. Amendments in the Doumer-Lugol pension scheme were considered and forwarded to the Alliance of Workers in the Public Services (*Cartel des services publics*), with a view to action in Parliament. The Labour Department of the Ministry of Marine was severely criticised for ignoring the findings of the local committees on cost of living in the determination of wages and otherwise opposing the interests of the workers. The reorganisation of the Department and the representation of organised labour therein was demanded. The congress also declared in favour of the reconstitution of the cost of living committees on a joint basis and the establishment of national, rather than local, wage-scales. The discussion of trade union policy resulted in the adoption of the "majority" resolution by 4,404 votes to 2,007 (5).

In Italy, the **General Confederation of State Employees** (*Confederazione generale dei dipendenti dello stato*), held its congress at Rome from 31 October to 2 November. The chief subject of discussion was the policy of the Confederation and, in particular, its relations with the General Confederation of Labour. By a unanimous resolution the congress declared that the policy of the Confederation would in future be entirely guided by the principle of the class war; while

(5) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, pp. 50-54.

continuing to unite all civil servants' organisations, whether affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour or not, it will conduct a campaign of preparation and amalgamation, so that a full congress of all organisations belonging to the Confederation, which is to meet at the beginning of 1922, may be able to decide on the question of affiliation (6).

The **National Union of Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Workers** (*Unione nazionale postelegrafonica*), a Catholic organisation, met in congress at Rome on 31 October. It renewed its allegiance to the Italian Confederation of Workers (*Confederazione italiana dei lavora-*

(6) The following information regarding trade union organisation among Government servants may be of interest in this connection.

* *Organisations of Employees in Public Departments*

General Confederation of State Employees (*Confederazione generale dei dipendenti dello stato*); membership about 1,000; not at present affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour.

Union of Federations of State Employees (*Unione federazioni impiegati statali*); membership 7,000; affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour.

Federation of Trade Unions of Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Workers (*Federazione dei sindacati postelegrafonici*); membership 42,500; affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour, the Postal International, and the Amsterdam International.

National Union of Postal, Telegraph, and Telephone Workers (*Unione nazionale postelegrafonica*) (Catholic); membership 7,900; affiliated with the Italian Confederation of Workers (Catholic).

National Union of Non-Manual Employees of the State and Public Bodies (*Unione nazionale degli impiegati statali ed enti pubblici*); membership 6,900; affiliated with the Italian Confederation of Workers.

Italian Confederation of Economic Trade Unions (*Confederazione italiana dei sindacati economici*); an organisation of recent date arising out of the *fascisti* movement, covering a certain number of non-manual workers in the railway and postal services.

Organisations of Workers in State Industrial Establishments

Italian Federation of Workers in State Establishments (*Federazione italiana dipendenti delle aziende statali*); membership 36,458; affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour; covers manual and non-manual workers in the government tobacco and salt factories, arsenals, mint, printing offices, etc.

Italian Union of Workers in State Industries (*Sindacato italiano dipendenti industrie statali*); membership 7,500; affiliated with the Italian Confederation of Workers.

National Union of Non-Manual Employees in State Monopolies (*Sindacato nazionale impiegati monopoli industriali*); membership 450.

Union of Italian Railwaymen (*Sindacato Ferrovieri Italiani*); membership 150,000; an independent organisation.

Trade Union Association of Railwaymen (*Associazione sindacale ferrovieri*); affiliated with the Italian Confederation of Workers.

Organisations of Members of Law Courts

National Association of Members of Italian Law Courts (*Associazione nazionale fra i magistrati italiani*); membership 4,000; non-political in constitution and aim.

Organisations of Teachers

Union of Italian Teachers (*Unione magistrale italiana*); membership 48,900; working agreement with the General Confederation of Labour.

Association of Teachers (*Associazione magistrale "Nicolo Tommaseo"*); membership 27,000.

Italian Teachers' Trade Union (*Sindacato magistrale italiano*); affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour.

tori) (Catholic), and proposed the formation of a "white" postal International. In answer to criticisms of the postal services, the congress demanded greater autonomy and decentralisation for the system and management on business lines. Another resolution suggested the management of the services by the workers on co-operative lines.

The National Council of the **General Confederation of Labour** (*Confederazione Generale del Lavoro*) met at Verona on 7 November to consider the question of trade union discipline. The Communist resolution was defeated by a very large majority and the executive committee was authorised to enforce necessary disciplinary measures.

On 12 October the General Confederation of Labour requested the Government to undertake an enquiry into the cost of raw materials, profits, the cost of living, and other factors which have to be taken into consideration when dealing with proposed wage reductions. On 20 October the Government instituted a commission to conduct this enquiry consisting of eight delegates of the General Confederation of Italian Industry (*Confederazione dell'industria italiana*), eight trade union delegates, and eight experts appointed by the Government. The functions of the commission were defined as follows :

To examine the state of industry in relation to general market conditions (the exchanges, the financial situation, exports and imports, prices, and cost of living) and the cost of the various factors in production, instituting at the same time a comparison with competitive foreign markets. The Commission should also indicate measures which should be taken to facilitate the resumption of production in Italy.

At its meeting on 3 December at Rome, the National Council of the General Confederation of Labour appointed five delegates, this being its quota of representation on the Commission of Enquiry. The Council directed the executive committee to draw up a scheme for a national institute for physical training and sports for young workers. It also considered the Bill for the registration of trade unions and passed a resolution calling for the nationalisation of water power, this largely in view of the present droughts in Southern Italy. The Council stated its readiness to assist in every way with the preparation for the International Trade Union Congress to be held at Rome in April (7).

The National Council of the **Italian Union of Labour** (*Unione italiana del lavoro*) on 15 November at Parma declared that the government enquiry into industrial conditions would not lead to a solution of the problem of wage reductions, which was the chief subject of discussion by the Council. General instructions were given to the executive committee to take steps with a view to a national general strike in order to prevent wage reductions, and to the protection of the interests of the unemployed.

The **Finnish Federation of Trade Unions** (*Suomen Amattijärjestö*), as was noted in an earlier number of the Review (8), decided last spring to withdraw from any international organisation for the time being. In October 1921 a conference was held at Helsingfors, at which the Finnish Saw Mill, Transport, Factory and General Workers' Union

(7) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 67.

(8) *Ibid.* Vol. I, No. 3, March 1921, p. 18.

(*Sahatiollisuusliityöväen, Kuljetusliityöntekijäin, Tehdas-ja Sekaliyöväen Liitto, Suomen*) was formed by the amalgamation of three unions. The new union, which will have a membership of about 22,000, decided after long discussion, by 127 votes to 46, to join the Moscow Trade Union International, and further to request the Finnish Federation of Trade Unions to take another ballot on this question. The executive committee of the Federation has therefore decided to take this ballot before the end of February 1922.

In **New South Wales** a conference was held on 4 October at Sydney, attended by 110 delegates from 54 trade unions, to consider the formation of the "Organised Workers' Group of New South Wales". The object of this group is to establish more effective control by the trade unions of the political Labour Party. Its methods are to be the organisation of the workers in one central group for direct political action as well as the political organisation of the workers so grouped, with a view to the overthrow of capitalist government.

A demarcation dispute between the Shipping Officers' Federation, New South Wales division, and the Australian Clerical Association, New South Wales branch, was decided on 10 August by a judgment delivered by the Industrial Registrar in the Court of Industrial Arbitration. The Shipping Officers' Federation, which asked for registration as an industrial union, claims to cater for the "up town" employees of shipping companies, etc., but the Industrial Registrar refused registration, stating that the Clerical Association was entitled and able to look after the employees in question.

The British **National Federation of Law Clerks** met in conference at Manchester on 30 October. It devoted most of its time to discussion of the unfavourable conditions of employment of law clerks, the need for combination to improve these, and the barriers which at present prevent clerks from entering the legal profession. The question of affiliation to the National Federation of Professional, Technical, Administrative, and Supervisory Workers (9) was deferred until the next conference.

The British trade unions are finding that the industrial depression is involving an enormous strain on their funds and membership. The Amalgamated Engineering Union reports that its balance in June 1921 was only a little over half of its balance in December 1920. Benefits had been paid equivalent to £4 7s. 3½d. per paying member, while arrears had increased to the figure of 9s. 4½d. per paying member. On the other hand, the Assistant Secretary of the Trades Union Congress stated, in an interview in October, that the unions as a whole were standing the strain remarkably well.

Representatives of the electricians' trade unions in Norway, Sweden, and Denmark met in conference at Stockholm during November. Previous agreements (10) for mutual support were confirmed and extended; the unions, in fact, are to consider themselves as forming one organisation.

(9) *Ibid.* Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 43.

(10) *Ibid.* Vol. I, No. 3, March 1921, p. 52.

The **General Confederation of Japanese Workers** (*Nihon Rodo Sodomei*), previously known as the *Yuai Kai*, held its tenth annual congress in Tokyo from 1 to 3 October. A proposal to include the principle of a general strike in the programme of the Confederation was rejected. It was also decided to delete from the programme the demand for the introduction of universal adult male suffrage. The question of the recognition of the right of collective bargaining for trade unions was withdrawn from the agenda after an animated discussion. The name *Yuai Kai* means literally "friendly society", and the congress considered that this title was no longer applicable and likely to give an erroneous impression. It was for this reason that the title of the Confederation was altered. After a report on the disputes in Osaka and a decision to publish a new periodical, a resolution in favour of disarmament was carried.

The **Industrial and Commercial Workers' Union of South Africa**, an organisation of coloured workers, held a conference from 22 to 28 October. In his opening speech, the president of the Union pointed out the benefits of further organisation of coloured workers and the co-ordination of their efforts towards industrial and social progress. He advocated amalgamation of small unions into one big union, based on practical methods. It was decided that the Union should not as yet link itself with any political party, though the central committee was instructed to consider the question further. Resolutions were passed protesting against the increase of working hours in ports and on the railways and the importation of indentured labour. Active measures were to be taken in order to secure legislation on the latter point.

Employers' Organisations

THE most important recent discussions by employers' organisations have been on the industrial depression and the introduction of the 8-hour day. Other questions discussed—usually in relation to the industrial depression—were wage reduction and labour cost, and the minimum wage. The legal status of unions with regard to collective agreements, apprenticeship, family allowances, and unemployment were also under consideration.

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

A general meeting of the **Central Industrial Committee of Belgium** (*Comité central industriel de Belgique*) was held on 26 October 1921. The report given by the *Bulletin* of the Committee for 2 November 1921, which is summarised below, gives no further details as to the decisions of the meeting or action taken.

The application of the 8-hour day Act and the difficulties to which it gives rise in most industries were discussed. A report of the discussions on this subject by the Superior Council of Industry and Commerce and the Superior Council of Labour was made to the meeting, these bodies having been consulted by the Minister in conformity with Section 14 of the Act. Correspondence with the Minister of Finance concerning the working of the system of reparations in kind was reported to the meeting. The general question of reparations in kind was then discussed; it was considered of great importance and some interesting suggestions were made, which were to be further discussed in November.

The meeting reaffirmed its previous attitude regarding the necessity of distributing supplies in kind to victims of the war zone, in conformity both with the Treaty of Versailles and the Belgian Act on war reparations, while at the same time protesting against the institution of a kind of commercial office, working in the name of the State, and conferring the same advantages on those who had not suffered from the war.

The meeting concluded with a statement of the work accomplished by Germany since the Armistice in the sphere of the scientific organisation of industry.

The general meeting of the **General Association of French Foundry Masters** (*Syndicat général des fondeurs de France*) was held in Paris on 23 November. This organisation was formerly called the General Association of French Iron Foundry Masters (*Syndicat général des fondeurs en fer de France*). As steel, copper and other metal foundry masters have joined the organisation, it has become necessary to amend its constitution and title, a separate section being formed for each branch of foundry work.

Among the questions discussed was that of apprenticeship. The meeting unanimously adopted a report emphasising the importance to foundry masters of the training of apprentices, and urging the need for encouraging the development of vocational education, particularly on a regional basis.

At its sitting of 23 November the **Paris Chamber of Commerce** discussed the question of family allowances and the Bill introduced in the Chamber of 24 February 1920 by Mr. Bokanowski, Deputy, proposing to make it compulsory for employers to belong to a compensation fund for securing a family allowance to wage-earners. The Chamber passed the following resolution:

The Paris Chamber of Commerce considering

That Mr. Bokanowski's Bill is premature in the principles involved, and dangerous in the practical details of its application, and only likely to be of use if the compensation funds develop on lines alien to their original conception, and if experience proves, contrary to all expectation, that they give rise to abuses which call for regulation,

Recommends

That Mr. Bokanowski's bill be rejected by Parliament,

That all legitimate methods of propaganda be adopted in order to enlighten employers who do not yet belong to compensation funds, in regard to their object and method of operation, and to induce such employers to take their proper share in this social duty by becoming members of such funds.

The Committee on Social Policy of the **German Industrial and Commercial Congress** (*Deutscher Industrie- und Handelstag*) during its Session of 7, 8 and 9 November at Berlin, among other business, dealt with the recent bills on unemployment exchanges (1) and the regulation of collective agreements. With reference to the employment exchange bill the Committee made the following declaration :

The Committee on Social Policy of the German Industrial and Commercial Congress views the proposed Employment Exchange Bill with serious apprehension. It involves the creation of new bureaucratic machinery whose costliness is a grave matter in view of the present national distress. Legislation on employment exchanges can only be accepted on certain conditions, viz. that the Act should not apply to non-manual workers, that it should not touch on existing or future private exchanges, that it should not introduce compulsory notification and use of exchanges, that the right to advertise in newspapers should be maintained, and that the exchanges should refrain from exercising any influence on the level of wages. The representatives of commerce and industry must urge that the legitimate demands of employers shall receive as much attention as those of the workers.

With regard to the proposed bill for the regulation of collective agreements, the Committee considered that such legislation should only be made in connection with the general question of the regulation of the legal position of labour. It recommended that apprentices be expressly excluded from the application of the law and also proposed the deletion of certain provisions defining associations of workers capable of making agreements. The employers' proposal aims at the recognition of the so-called "company" or establishment unions as capable of making agreements. The clauses to be deleted are as follows :

(1) That associations of workers are only to be considered capable of entering into agreements if :

(a) they do not make their membership dependent on belonging to a particular establishment ;

(b) they do not accept employers as members ;

(c) they keep independent watch over the interests of their members.

(2) That agreements deviating from the statutory form shall be considered effective if they involve an improvement in the condition of workers and if they are not expressly excluded from the collective agreement.

The fifth annual general meeting of the **Federation of British Industries** was held in London 23 November and was followed by a special general meeting. Sir Peter Rylands, president of the Federation, in his retiring presidential address, referred to the useful work being done by the **National Alliance of Employers and Employed**. He stated that the Federation does not take any active part in labour matters but the members are vitally concerned with all matters of policy which may affect industry. Accordingly they have from the outset given a great deal of sympathetic help and encouragement to the National Alliance, whose main object is not the settlement of trade disputes or the settlement of any question of difficulty that arises between employers and their men, but the creation of a favourable atmosphere and a better understanding between the leaders on both sides.

(1) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 49, for a criticism of the Employment Exchange Bill by the Federation of German Employers' Associations.

At the conclusion of formal business Sir Peter Rylands addressed the meeting on the subject of trade depression and German reparations. Referring to the imperative necessity of reviving industry he said that there was no question but that the reduction of costs and the lowering of prices all round would do more than anything else to effect this. It was a problem that the manufacturers had to face, and he hoped that they might voice their opinion on the point without prejudice. He knew that it was invidious to be harping on the necessity of reducing labour costs, but it was necessary for them to make the nation realise that it was only by hard work and by more productivity, and productivity of all kinds of goods which could actually be disposed of, that a standard of living even as high as it was before the war could be maintained. The men must realise that if the worst come to the worst and they were unable to sell their products in competition with the world, further reduction of prices would be imperative. If necessary, longer hours would have to be worked where they could be worked with advantage. They were up against economic difficulties which could not be gainsaid, and which they must accept or the consequences would be fatal.

The fifth annual report of the Federation of British Industries states that 532 new members joined in the course of the year ending 30 June 1921, as against 323 for the previous year, bringing the membership up to a total of 1,754, of which 185 were trade associations.

The report states that the work of collecting information on all questions dealing with labour matters has been continued. In particular, a special study has been made of the changes in wages and conditions in the different industries, and of important developments in labour policy which have taken place both at home and abroad. Memoranda on subjects of particular interest have been prepared for the use of committees and special investigations undertaken at the request of members. As a result of the investigations of the department a special memorandum on the Future of Wages and Prices was issued in December 1920, to which the Parliamentary Committee of the Trades Union Congress issued a public reply.

The Joint Liaison Committee of the Federation of British Industries with the **National Federation of Employers' Organisations** has held a number of meetings to discuss subjects involving labour as well as commercial considerations. Among the more important subjects discussed were the following : unemployment insurance ; workmen's compensation insurance ; the future of trade boards ; the payment of young employees at continuation schools ; the Women, Young Persons, and Children Employment Act ; and the relation of wages to the cost of living index numbers. Close co-operation with the National Alliance of Employers and Employed (referred to by the retiring president) has been maintained throughout the year. The report states that the relationship with the National Alliance has proved of mutual advantage, and important developments have resulted through the facilities so offered for obtaining the views and co-operation of representative trade unionists. The National Alliance has established 36 area committees during the year, and is operating 65 additional areas. In some districts educational work is carried out by expert lecturers who are also trade unionists. It is reported that the meetings have been well received by both employers and workers, and a general improvement in their mutual relations and in output has resulted. In other districts the Alliance conducts classes dealing with economics and industrial history, and the Alliance study circles are becoming increasingly popular, espe-

cially in the mining centres. Classes for students are sometimes held in conjunction with the workers' educational centre or local university. The students, who are nominated by the Alliance and by trade union branches in equal numbers, are trained in public speaking on condition that they place their services at the disposal of the Alliance for a certain period. The aim of all its activities is industrial peace based on a knowledge of economics and of industrial conditions, and on elimination of class antagonism. It is believed that the frequent discussions on important social and industrial problems and the joint action taken are having a far-reaching effect on the relationship of the bodies represented.

The **Belfast Chamber of Commerce** has issued a memorandum on Trade Boards summarising the chief objections of employers (2) to the present methods of operation of the Boards. It states that the Trade Boards Act of 1909 was enacted for the purpose of limiting the evil of "sweating" which admittedly then prevailed in certain industries. Up to 1918 the Act was applied to only five industries. By the amending Act of that year control of the application of the Trade Board system was taken from Parliament and placed in the hands of the Ministry of Labour. Since then some 54 Trade Boards were set up. The Belfast Chamber of Commerce, bearing in mind the report that the Ministry of Labour had in contemplation the establishment of 170 additional Boards, considers that "autocratic application of the Acts since 1918 has been attended with consequences prejudicial to trade and prejudicial to industrial concord". Among the chief objections made are that the Acts have resulted in the estrangement of employer and employed; the fixing of a minimum time rate which, it is stated, in practice has become a standardisation of a maximum rate and so inequitably benefits the inefficient worker at the expense of the highly efficient; and that the method prescribed by the Acts for the payment of piece workers is wholly antagonistic to the principle of payment by results. It is further stated that the working of the Acts has restricted the employment of competent operatives, limited and discouraged the employment of less competent operatives, prohibited employment in many instances, and deprived employees of continuous employment on agreed terms, thereby increasing the number of casual workers. The Chamber also thinks that the Trade Boards have not stimulated any increased zeal on the part of the operatives who "look upon the wage conditions regulated by the Boards as something totally independent of their own exertions and worth", and that there is no justification for the statement of the Ministry of Labour that consequent on the extension of the Trade Board system industrial disputes have decreased.

The following are among the amendments suggested: a return to the principle of the 1909 Act, confining the interference of the Trade Board to trades in which the rate of wages prevailing is exceptionally low as compared with that of other employments; withdrawal of Trade Board Acts from such trades as possess adequate machinery for the regulation of wages; removal from the Minister of Labour of authority to establish a trade board without parliamentary sanction; and restriction of Trade Board Acts to trades and industries wherein less than a certain percentage of the employers and employees are organised.

(2) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 51.

The **Bombay Mill Owners' Association**, Bombay, India, in reply to a request of the Government of India concerning the proposed Indian Factories Act, states that while in agreement with the principle of a weekly holiday as embodied in the Bill, they are strongly opposed to having a compulsory stoppage on all Sundays, as this would involve, with the usual Indian holidays that are granted to the hands, a complete closing down of the mills for about 14 days a year on an average more than at present. Looking at the question from the point of view of the workpeople also, this would mean a reduction in their wages of over half a month's pay per annum.

With regard to the fixing of the maximum number of hours of work per day at 12, the Association point out that one of the concessions granted to the mill operatives in Bombay last year, when they were on strike, was that no mills would be worked for more than 10 hours a day. The provision in the Bill would in their opinion, upset this arrangement, and probably lead to further trouble with the operatives if some of the mills were to work for more than 10 hours a day, even though they were limited to 60 hours a week, while the majority adhered to the 10 hour day.

The **Ahmedabad Mill Owners' Association** has expressed disapproval of the idea, of including establishments without mechanical power employing not less than 10 persons in the definition of "factory". They consider that the definition would become so wide as to be applicable to small groups of persons engaged in industry, who would find it very difficult to carry on their regular work smoothly. Moreover, it is thought that undue harassment and undesirable trouble caused by the inspecting staff are likely to hinder the progress of minor industries, which are already run under serious difficulties.

In common with the Bombay Mill Owners' Association, they are against the idea of fixing a compulsory holiday at the end of 60 hours' work.

Regarding the minimum and maximum age of children, which, under the new arrangements, are raised from 9 to 12 and from 14 to 15 respectively, they express the opinion that the minimum age should be raised to 10 years only, and that a sudden change from 9 to 12 would not be suitable under present circumstances.

The annual congress of the **South African Associated Chambers of Commerce** was held at Pretoria from 18 to 21 October. Mr. A. E. Fichardt stated that the total number of whites employed in the Union was 39,000, and others 270,000, a total of 309,000 of whom 208,000 were employed in the gold mines. He said that there was no doubt that labour was a large factor in the success or otherwise of the working of the mines. The payment of standard wages, and the accompanying efficiency, were of material importance in deciding whether or not it was possible to continue work in certain low grade mines. This fact had been more and more recognised by the leaders of the men, but whether or not these views were held by labour as a whole he was not prepared to say. He expressed the opinion that of late there had been a tendency to restrict the output of labour, while at the same time requests were made for shorter hours and higher wages. There was every probability that until these matters were placed upon a more satisfactory basis by the men themselves the gold mining industry must suffer, especially as the price of gold gradually reached its normal level. As the price of gold fell so must the cost of mining be correspondingly reduced,

and if the poorer mines were to be kept going until they were normally worked out it would be necessary for labour to realise that increased efficiency was the main factor in deciding the issue and preventing unemployment.

In connection with the general question of unemployment the following resolution was adopted after some discussion :

This congress extends its sympathetic consideration to the report of the Unemployment Commission, and is of opinion that the Commission's recommendations would be best met by (a) employing poor whites on irrigation schemes and ultimately settling the best class on land made available by such schemes ; (b) raising a special loan for railway extension and employing as many men as possible on work of this nature ; (c) providing funds for Central Housing Boards to facilitate the erection of houses ; and trusts that early effect be given to these proposals with the object of arriving at a practical settlement of this question.

In the four northern countries, **Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland**, interest has for some time centred on the question of wage reductions and, to a lesser extent, hours of work. At a meeting of leading employers in these four countries, held at Helsingfors from 27 to 29 August (3), it was agreed that an immediate all-round wage reduction was imperative. During September and October numerous employers' organisations gave notice of the termination of agreements at the end of the year or on February 1922. Some 230,000 workers in all are affected by these agreements. The wage reductions suggested vary considerably—from 17 to 35 per cent. for dockers, and 25 per cent. for workers in the joinery trade, to more than 50 per cent. in the wood pulp industry. In several of these new agreements it is proposed that the regulations other than those affecting wages be retained intact. In certain trades, however, this is not the case. Thus in their proposals for the new agreement in the mechanical engineering industry the employers' organisation (*Sveriges Verkstadsförening*) suggests the addition of the following clause : "during the period of operation of this agreement the workers' organisation shall not make or support any demands for increase in wages". This particular agreement, moreover, excludes the provision for a guaranteed hourly wage on piece work. It is also laid down that "the ordinary working hours are fixed by the employer", whereas formerly they were fixed in each establishment by agreement. In a number of new agreements proposed the usual provision granting 4 to 6 days' holiday has been omitted. This is notably the case in the proposed agreement for the mechanical engineering trade already referred to. A reduction in overtime payment is also contemplated in agreements for the mechanical engineering, shoe, tanning, joinery, book-binding, match and other industries.

At a general meeting of the **Federation of Danish Employers** (*Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening*) held at Copenhagen from 12 to 13 October, the president of the Federation stated that at a meeting of the Executive held on 13 September it had been decided to announce to all affiliated organisations that the present agreements should be discontinued. By a national agreement arrived at during the great dispute last spring wages in Denmark are at present regulated in accordance with the rise and fall of the official index number of the cost of living. This had entailed a reduction of approximately 17 per cent., but the president

(3) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 2, Nov. 1921, p. 73.

stated that this was insufficient if industry was to be enabled to continue. It was desirable therefore that all agreements should be allowed to expire at the end of the year. He stated that the Federation was opposed to any general agreement for the whole of industry. At the same time he drew attention to the necessity of a careful examination of the principle of minimum wages which, although good in itself, had nevertheless been included in many agreements without sufficient justification.

As a result of a discussion on the question of the 8-hour day the following resolution was adopted :

The general meeting affirms that the agreement of 17 May 1919 concerning the introduction of an 8-hour day concluded first with the Danish Confederation of Trade Unions and later with the organisations not affiliated to the Confederation, may be considered as a result of developments consequent on the war. The Employers' Federation was not in any degree convinced that the reform was either reasonable or expedient, but under pressure agreed not to oppose the experiment of the introduction of the 8-hour day. During the time which has elapsed since the agreement came into force serious inconvenience has been experienced owing to the application of the 8-hour day, especially on account of the fact that the very general form of the agreement does not permit of its adaptation to the claims of practical life. The Danish workers have even shown themselves averse to remedying this inconvenience by voluntary agreement. They have, for instance, refused to consider the claims which the employers had been obliged to put forward regarding overtime and the payment for overtime in order to obviate the inconvenience caused by the strict application of the 8-hour day. The result is that conditions in Denmark are even more difficult than in those countries where the 8-hour day is enforced by law, as such laws in themselves, unlike the agreement of 17 May 1919, permit of a series of exceptions and concessions. Taking this into consideration the general meeting of the Employers' Federation declares that the introduction of the 8-hour day and the consequent reduction in efficiency have decreased Denmark's power of competition and have greatly added to the burdens of its industrial life. The general meeting, therefore, requests the representative Council of the Federation to take such steps as may be found necessary, in order that those industries which are obliged to make other arrangements regarding working hours may be given a free hand in their negotiations with the workers' organisations, or may even cancel the agreement of 17 May 1919, should this prove necessary.

The general meeting considers this all the more necessary as the representative Council of the Confederation of Trade Unions, in a resolution passed on 27 September, endeavours to give the public and the authorities the impression that the enforcement by law of the 8-hour day is the natural result of the voluntary agreement concluded between the Confederation and the employers.

In Norway, by a series of awards made by the Arbitration Court now no longer in existence, minimum wages, affecting the greater part of Norwegian industry, continue in force up to 31 March 1922. The employers' organisations generally were very unfavourably disposed towards these awards and it is considered probable that grave disputes will arise when the "agreements" established by the Arbitration Courts expire. Besides the question of wages the fortnight's holiday on full pay instituted by these awards will also certainly be brought into question.

In Finland the question of most interest to employers at the present moment is the revision of the 8-hour Act. In the autumn of 1920 a petition was sent to the Government demanding greater freedom from the strict limitation of working hours. This demand was raised again at a

meeting (4) of representatives of Finnish industry and commerce at Helsingfors in September last, when the Government was asked to take steps in that direction "in order to prevent the general impoverishment of the country". Mr. Palmgren, president of the Employers' Federation (*Arbetsgivarnas i Finland Central förbund..Suomen Työnantajain Keskustieto*), recently moved a motion in Parliament to the effect that the present daily limit of 8 hours for industrial workers (other than those engaged in transport work, for which there is no daily maximum) should be increased to 9. This motion was rejected in committee on the grounds that the government proposal dealing with the same question, and suggesting a maximum of 8½ hours, would shortly be introduced.

A **Joint Northern General Secretariat** has recently been set up by the Employers' Federations of the four northern countries (5). The Secretariat will have its seat at Brussels, and its activities date from 1 January 1922. Its objects are to maintain relations between the four northern Employers' Federations and the International Organisation of Industrial Employers (the headquarters of which are also at Brussels), and to keep in touch with the International Labour Office, and collaborate with the northern delegations to the International Labour Conference.

Judge E. H. Gary, chairman of the Board of Directors of the United States Steel Corporation, speaking at the 20th annual meeting of the **American Iron and Steel Institute**, held in New York on 18 November 1921, stated that in his opinion the delay in complete restoration of sound and satisfactory economic development and activity in the United States was "largely due to high costs—high cost of living, high cost of production and transportation, and high cost of owning and earning money or its equivalent". He considered that many so-called middlemen were more at fault concerning these matters than any others; they did not seem to have kept pace with the majority of business men in reducing prices, and many had not lowered their selling prices in proportion to the reductions which had been made to them in their purchases. After quoting some figures exemplifying this, Judge Gary went on to say that high prices had been more or less influenced by labour rates, but that :

labour, which has been free to act in accordance with its own sense of propriety and justice, has been fair and considerate in view of living expenses. Where labour is directly under control of leaders not connected with nor interested in the results of the work in question, the rates in many instances are unreasonable and unjust. This relates particularly to trades which in a measure control building operations and affect rentals.

But the wages paid are only a part of the story. The failure to render an hour's work for an hour's pay is even worse. The skill or energy or effort to accomplish is not one half what it was formerly, so that the rates now paid are actually quadrupled instead of being doubled. The rules formulated by unions, under which the work is done, place limits upon production, as many employers and others know by bitter experience. The wonder is that so large a part of the public, which to a great extent suffers the consequences, apparently fails to appreciate these important facts pertaining to production.

(4) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 47.

(5) *Arbeidsgiveren*, 2 Dec. 1921. Published by the Danish Employers' Federation, Copenhagen.

He finally asserted that further adjustment and wage reductions were necessary so as to place every branch of industry on a just and reasonable parity.

The **Citizens' Committee to enforce the Landis Award**, Chicago, Illinois, was formed at a meeting held on 3 October, attended by representatives of the principal commercial, industrial, financial, and civic associations of Chicago. The Committee, which has now been put on a definite footing as a permanent organisation, includes some 150 of the business leaders of the city. Judge K. M. Landis, who had been chosen by the building trades contractors and unions of Chicago to arbitrate in a dispute on labour cost in operations which had been in progress since 1 May, made his award on the question on 7 September. This award provided for reductions in wages averaging about 12½ per cent., and ruled against a number of practices hindering construction work. The objects of the new organisation, as stated by the chairman of the Committee, are :

to eliminate the vicious and wasteful practices due to restrictive clauses and agreements between contractor and trade union ; conspiracies between contractors and material men ; monopolistic control in certain trades ; and other causes. Building costs have been advanced 20 per cent. through graft, extortion, combinations, conspiracies, and restrictions. The Committee is making no fight on trade unions as such. Those unions which have accepted the Landis award, and are working under it, will have the support of the Committee in their action ; those crafts which withdraw from the award, or refuse to accept its conditions, automatically place themselves beyond the support of the public ; those contractors who have entered into agreements with the unions outside of the award deserve neither the consideration nor the support of the public.

According to the *American Lumberman* of 19 November 1921, the "open shop", so far as the carpenters and the other crafts that have refused to accept or have violated the Landis award are concerned, is an established fact. It is further stated that the 85 per cent. of the contractors who have observed the award will be fully protected in every way ; the remaining 15 per cent. are to be brought into line, or put out of business.

The **Merchants' Association of New York** has sent a resolution to the Chairman of the Lockwood Committee (a State Legislative Committee enquiring into the building situation in New York), requesting the Committee to take action in the matter of reducing costs in the building industry in that city, so as to bring them to the level of costs in other cities. "Wages", it states, "constitute the largest single item in the cost of building, amounting to from 35 to 50 per cent. of the total. Variations in this item, therefore, vitally affect the prosperity of the industry". The Committee is asked to try to further negotiations between the Building Trades Council and the Building Trades Employers' Association, to show them that it is to their common interest to reduce wages, and also to abolish certain existing rules and practices designed to restrict the output of individual workmen.

PRODUCTION AND PRICES ⁽¹⁾

Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

TABLE I given below corresponds to table II published under the same heading in previous numbers of the *International Labour Review*. The table of index numbers "as published" will in future only appear twice a year, in January and June. The index number for China has therefore been transferred to the remaining table, in spite of its base being 1919. The new Belgian index number has also been added. It differs from the former one, and an improved method of calculation has been adopted for it. The prices are obtained from the most important traders and manufacturers in the country, and from the larger trade groups of employers; they are prices actually current for a period of a fortnight and consist of 209 quotations for various qualities of 131 products of all kinds. The geometric mean and the "chain system" are used; the prices are weighted with the number of entries (including different qualities of the same substance) in each group. The base is April 1914 = 100.

For purposes of comparison the index numbers have whenever possible been shifted to a common base, namely 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 I are only approximate.

(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

Countries	South Africa	Germany		Australia (Melbourne)	Belgium	Canada	China (Shanghai)	Denmark	Egypt (Cairo)	United States			France	India (Calcutta)	Italy	Japan	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom			Sweden	Switzerland
Sources	Official	Official	Frankfurter Zeitung (d)	Official (a)	Official	Official (c)	Official (a)	Finans-tiden-de (d)	Official	Bureau of Labor Statistics (a)	Federal Reserve Board (a)	Dun (d)	Official (b)	Official (b)	Bachi (b) (h)	Bank of Tokio (a)	Okonomisk Revue (g)	Official (c)	Official	Fiedorowicz	Official (a)	Economist (b)	Statist (b)	Svensk Handels-tidning (c)	Neue Zürcher Zeitung (i) (d)
Number of commodities	488	38	77	92	209	272	447	33	24	324	88	200	45	75	76	56	92	440	53	—	250	44	45	47	74
Base period	1910	1913	January 1920	1901-1910	April 1914	1890-1899	Sept. 1919	July 1912 July 1914	Jan. 1913 July 1914	1913	1913	—	1901-1910	July 1914	1904-1905	1900	Dec. 1913 June 1914	1909-1913	1901-1910	1913	1913	1901-1905	1867-1877	1913-1914	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)	(24)	(25)	(26)
Annual average																									
1913	100	400	*	400	*	400	o	400	400	100	100	400	400	*	400	400	*	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	*
1914	97	405	400	406	400	400	*	*	400	u	404	402	400	95	96	400	404	404	405	406	*	99	98	146	100
1915	407	442	*	447	409	409	*	438	402	404	u	404	440	442	433	97	459	423	445	218	*	423	127	445	
1916	423	453	*	438	434	434	o	464	424	424	*	423	488	425	200	417	233	434	222	364	*	464	160	485	
1917	444	479	*	453	475	475	o	228	469	476	o	469	262	442	306	449	344	451	286	4091	o	204	206	244	
1918	453	217	*	478	203	203	o	293	207	496	o	490	339	478	409	496	345	475	392	4509	o	225	226	339	
1919	465	445	*	489	246	400	400	294	226	242	206	494	356	200	366	240	322	478	297	2437	o	235	242	330	
1920	223	4485	4549	228	*	246	406	382	299	243	233	205	509	204	924	268	377	242	284	42895	344	283	295	347	
1921	—	4363	4528	245	o	256	408	385	283	262	250	209	496	209	604	240	—	219	206	42427	324	293	300	363	
July	*	4446	4560	247	*	244	406	394	279	250	234	205	504	209	625	225	417	219	288	44418	320	288	298	365	
Aug.	*	4405	4582	241	*	241	406	398	299	242	226	196	526	208	656	234	425	220	287	44210	318	284	293	362	
Sept.	223	4462	4647	225	o	234	404	403	300	225	208	188	502	206	659	226	419	222	283	16709	309	267	282	346	
Oct.	*	4509	4658	248	o	225	405	374	287	207	190	175	464	194	670	221	403	218	260	26434	293	245	263	331	
Nov.	*	4437	4603	206	o	244	405	344	238	189	173	464	434	180	655	206	377	218	233	20396	269	220	244	299	
Dec.	488	4439	4473	205	*	208	404	290	214	478	463	454	407	478	642	204	344	216	213	33286	254	209	230	267	
1922	*	4376	4449	204	*	499	107	280	496	467	454	454	376	474	643	495	319	240	497	40236	230	492	245	250	
Jan.	*	4338	4440	185	*	494	408	270	482	462	450	444	360	483	604	494	342	208	488	42484	245	489	209	237	
Feb.	466	4326	4428	179	o	487	408	257	484	454	443	438	347	483	584	490	297	205	476	40756	209	483	200	229	
Mar.	*	4308	4387	174	o	483	440	251	479	451	442	437	329	484	547	494	294	204	482	42325	205	482	494	218	
Apr.	*	4366	4463	170	o	479	414	253	466	448	439	432	325	478	509	492	294	200	482	47903	202	479	483	248	
May	450	4428	4723	167	347	476	409	254	464	448	444	435	330	483	529	497	300	200	476	60756	498	478	486	244	
June	*	4917	4798	—	—	474	449	224	466	452	443	434	331	484	542	499	297	197	480	71856	494	479	482	198	
July	*	2067	4993	—	—	472	—	202	470	452	443	434	344	—	580	297	287	—	480	94088	494	483	476	182	
Aug.	438	2460	2687	—	—	469	—	486	—	450	—	435	331	—	599	219	286	—	169	114976	484	470	463	175	
Sept.	—	3416	3283	—	—	—	—	188	—	449	—	—	332	—	—	—	276	—	—	—	476	466	464	174	
Oct.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Nov.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	

Monthly figures relate to (a) the monthly average; (b) the end of the month; (c) the 15th of the month; (d) the 1st of the following month; (e) no figures have been published for 1913, the base; 1914=100; (f) no figures have been published for 1913, base: September 1919=100; (g) the figures for 1915 relate to December in each year; (h) for 1913 to 1920, former index with 44 commodities only; from 1920 a revised index with 70 commodities; (i) for 1920, the figure relates to January.

The sign * signifies «no figures published»; the sign — «figures not available».

In order to make the movement of the wholesale price index numbers stand out more clearly, the monthly fluctuations expressed in "points" are given in the following table. The most recent available index number is also given, for purposes of comparison; it corresponds to the last month for which an increase or decrease is recorded.

Some countries included in table I have necessarily been omitted from table II, either because the available data are incomplete or not up to date, as for Belgium, Australia, India, and New Zealand, or because their index numbers do not agree with the general plan of the table, as for China, the index number for which has 1919 for base.

TABLE II. FLUCTUATIONS OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES,
FROM APRIL TO NOVEMBER 1921

(Base : 1913 = 100)

Country	Increase or decrease on the preceding month expressed in 'points'								Latest available index no. (Base 1913 = 100)
	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	
South Africa ⁽¹⁾	- 7	- 5	- 5	- 5	- 4	- 4	- 4	»	138
Canada	- 4	- 7	- 4	- 3	- 2	- 2	- 3	»	169
Denmark ⁽²⁾	-13	- 3	- 1	+ 1	-30	-22	-18	+ 2	188
Norway ⁽³⁾	-15	+ 3	0	+ 6	- 3	-10	- 1	-10	276
Netherlands	-12	+ 6	0	- 6	+ 4	0	-11	»	169
United Kingdom:									
Official	- 6	- 4	- 3	- 4	- 4	- 3	- 7	- 8	176
Economist	- 6	- 1	- 4	- 1	+ 1	+ 4	-13	- 4	166
Statist	- 9	- 9	- 8	+ 3	- 4	- 6	-13	- 2	161
Sweden	- 8	-11	0	- 7	-13	-16	- 7	- 1	174
Switzerland ^{(2),(3)}	-22	- 2	- 8	- 2	+ 4	+ 4	- 2	- 4	178
United States :									
Bur. of Labor									
Statistics	- 8	- 3	- 3	0	+ 4	0	- 2	- 1	149
Fed. Res. Board	- 7	- 1	- 3	+ 2	+ 2	0	»	»	143
Dun ⁽²⁾	- 6	- 1	- 5	+ 3	- 1	0	+ 1	»	135
Bradstreet	- 6	- 2	+ 2	+ 3	0	+ 1	+ 2	»	123
Egypt	- 1	- 2	-13	- 2	+ 2	+10	»	»	176
France	-13	-18	- 4	+ 5	+ 1	+13	-13	+ 4	334
Italy	-20	+17	-88	+11	+22	+38	+19	»	599
Japan	- 1	+ 1	+ 1	+ 5	+ 2	+ 8	+12	»	219
Germany :									
Official	-11	-17	+57	+50	+492	+150	+393	+934	3416
Frankfurter									
Zeitung ^{(2),(3)}	+18	-41	+76	+260	+75	+195	+694	+597	3283
Poland	-1725	+1569	+5578	+12853	+1110	+2232	+20388	»	114976

⁽¹⁾ The index number is quarterly; the quarterly fluctuations have been divided by 3 in order to get monthly fluctuations, which are therefore only approximate.

⁽²⁾ The fluctuations are calculated for the index number of the 1st of the month following the month in question.

⁽³⁾ The index number for which the fluctuations are calculated has 1914 = 400 as base.

The countries in the table have been arranged in four classes according to the way in which their index numbers have been moving in the last six months. These classes are as follows :

(1) Countries where the index number has a general tendency to

fall, in spite of temporary fluctuations in recent months; the present level is definitely lower than that of last spring. This class includes the United Kingdom, the Scandinavian countries (Norway, Sweden, and Denmark), the Netherlands, and Switzerland, in Europe, and South Africa and Canada outside Europe. In all of these the rise during the summer was due mainly to food, the price of which rose perceptibly during that period, whilst industrial products were still falling. The new fall is almost quite general. ⁽²⁾

(2) Countries where the index number, with some fluctuations, has remained at about the same level as in the spring of 1921. At present this class consists of the United States, where the various index numbers published all show this type of movement.

(3) Countries where the index number has a tendency in recent months to rise, after a perceptible drop in 1920 and the first half of 1921. This class includes France and Italy, in Europe, and Egypt and Japan outside Europe. The increase is, however, comparatively slight, the largest monthly percentages being in all cases less than 10 per cent.

(4) Countries where the rise in the index number is particularly strongly marked, the monthly percentage increases ranging from 20 to 30 per cent. during recent months. This class includes Germany and Poland. There is undoubtedly a very close connection between this rise in prices and the very unfavourable monetary situation of these two countries. It may further be noted that while the two German index numbers fell to some extent in 1920 and 1921 the Polish index number has risen almost without interruption; and also that the increase in Germany in recent months, while considerably more than in any of the countries mentioned above, is still far below that in Poland, where the index number has passed all known records.

This classification is of course purely provisional and is liable to modification on the addition of figures of later date or for other countries.

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SOUTH AFRICA	<i>Monthly Bulletin of Statistics</i> of the League of Nations. No. 11 1921.
GERMANY	<i>Wirtschaft und Statistik</i> , Aug. and Nov. 1921. <i>Frankfurter Zeitung</i> , 6 Nov. and 16 Dec. 1921. Communication from the <i>Statistisches Reichsamt</i> .
AUSTRALIA	<i>Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics</i> , Dec. 1920 and June 1921. <i>Bulletin de l'Institut international de statistique</i> , The Hague, August 1921.
BELGIUM	<i>Revue du Travail</i> , Nov. 1921.
CANADA	<i>Labour Gazette of Canada</i> , Jan. and Nov. 1921.
CHINA	<i>The Statist</i> , 10 Dec. 1921.
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(2) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, pp. 81-91.

FRANCE	<i>Bulletin de la Statistique générale de France</i> , Oct. 1920 and, Oct. 1921. Communication from the <i>Statistique générale de France</i> ,
INDIA	<i>Federal Reserve Bulletin</i> , Jan. and Nov. 1921.
ITALY	<i>L'Economista</i> , 9 Oct. 1921. <i>Statist</i> , 10 Dec. 1921.
JAPAN	<i>Chugai Shogyo and Jiji</i> , 18 Jan. 1921. <i>Statist</i> , 10 Dec. 1921.
NORWAY	<i>Oekonomisk Revue</i> , 2 Feb. 1921. <i>Svensk Handelstidning</i> , 6 Oct. 1921. <i>Statist</i> , 10 Dec. 1921.
NEW ZEALAND	<i>Monthly Abstract of Statistics</i> , Jan. and Oct. 1921. <i>Prices: an Enquiry into Prices in New Zealand, 1891-1919</i> . Wellington, 1920.
POLAND	<i>Statist</i> , 10 Dec. 1921.
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SWEDEN	<i>Svensk Handelstidning</i> Dec. 1921.
SWITZERLAND	<i>Neue Zürcher Zeitung</i> , 18 Dec. 1921.

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

PREVIOUS numbers of the *International Labour Review* contained a series of articles entitled "Fluctuations in Retail Prices and in the Cost of Living", which gave from month to month the most important data on the fluctuations of the cost of living and retail prices. These data were given for each country separately, and only a limited space at the beginning of the article was devoted to a general survey and tables showing the international movement. The plan of the article has now been slightly modified so as to show the international aspect rather more clearly. International tables of index numbers have been compiled, not only of the cost of living (table I), but also of the various groups which go to make up the general index numbers—food, clothing, heating, lighting and rent (tables II, III, IV, V). No international table is given for the "miscellaneous" group, which is frequently included in the cost of living index numbers; the items included in the group are too varied to permit of comparison between different countries. In some cases, for instance, the group includes only one or two items of laundry prices, while in others there are a whole series of articles such as household goods and furniture,

TABLE I. COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (6 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 towns) (a)	Canada (60 t.)	Den- mark (100 towns)	United States (51 towns)	Finland (20 towns)	France (Paris) (a)
		(47 towns)	(Berlin)								
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
<i>July</i>											
1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
1915	403	*	*	408	*	*	97	446	405	*	*
1916	406	*	*	416	*	*	402	436	418	*	*
1917	414	*	*	443	*	*	430	455	442	*	*
1918	418	*	*	448	*	*	446	482	474	*	*
1919	426	*	*	420	*	*	455	241	477	*	238
1920	459	842	4425	453	*	453	190	262	217	941	341
<i>1920</i>											
Aug.	458	795	4069	*	*	463	488	*	*	994	*
Sept.	458	777	4038	164	*	471	486	*	*	1030	363
Oct.	161	843	4104	*	*	477	487	*	*	1063	*
Nov.	161	872	4097	*	*	476	485	*	*	1083	*
Dec.	455	916	4446	460	*	468	484	*	200	1103	370
<i>1921</i>											
Jan.	453	944	4422	*	*	450	475	264	*	1065	*
Feb.	449	904	4090	*	*	438	468	*	*	1013	*
Mar.	447	904	4035	458	8100	444	465	*	*	1027	338
Apr.	444	894	976	*	*	399	464	*	*	1008	*
May	441	880	990	*	*	389	453	*	180	1012	*
June	436	896	4080	449	9800	384	452	*	*	1054	307
July	433	963	4425	—	*	379	455	237	*	1439	*
Aug.	430	1045	4177	—	*	384	458	—	*	1475	*
Sept.	430	1062	4212	—	20500	386	455	—	177	1205	295
Oct.	—	1146	4340	—	—	391	452	—	—	—	—
Nov.	—	1397	1767	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Aus- tralia (6 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 t.) (a)	Canada (60 t.)	Den- mark (100 towns)	United States (51 t.)	Finland (20 t.)	France (a)	
		(47 towns)	(Berlin)								(Paris)	(320 t.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
<i>July</i>												
1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
1915	407	*	*	418	*	*	405	428	98	*	420	423
1916	414	*	*	430	*	*	414	446	109	*	429	442
1917	424	*	*	422	*	*	457	466	143	*	483	484
1918	425	*	*	432	*	*	475	487	164	*	206	244
1919	436	*	*	446	*	*	486	212	186	*	264	289
1920	197	4456	4377	479	*	459	227	253	215	982	373	388
<i>1920</i>												
Aug.	496	4049	4337	*	*	496	521	*	203	1089	373	*
Sept.	495	4032	4235	196	*	504	245	*	199	1434	407	388
Oct.	197	4129	4408	*	*	523	243	*	194	1472	420	*
Nov.	496	4184	4388	*	*	513	206	*	189	1206	428	*
Dec.	488	4272	4490	488	*	511	200	*	175	1233	424	450
<i>1921</i>												
Jan.	472	4265	4439	*	*	493	490	276	169	1474	440	*
Feb.	465	4194	4357	*	*	482	478	*	155	1407	382	*
Mar.	460	4488	4346	484	8100	434	472	*	154	1437	358	429
Apr.	456	4474	4235	*	*	447	465	*	149	1407	320	*
May	452	4452	4244	*	*	407	450	*	142	1417	317	*
June	444	4475	4449	468	9800	449	448	*	144	1447	342	363
July	439	4274	4541	—	*	440	454	236	145	1278	306	*
Aug.	434	4399	4592	—	*	427	459	—	152	1324	347	*
Sept.	433	4448	4653	—	10700	423	455	—	150	1359	329	350
Oct.	—	4532	4796	—	—	434	449	—	150	—	331	—
Nov.	—	1914	2227	—	—	—	—	—	149	—	326	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(a) For these countries only, the index numbers in tables I and II are entirely distinct.
The sign * signifies "no figures published".
The sign — signifies "figures not available".

TABLE I (cont.). COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

India	Italy		Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom	Sweden	Switzerland	Date
(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(30 towns)	(35 towns)	(Amsterdam)	(Warsaw)	(630 towns)	(40 t.)	(23 towns)	
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(2)
100	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	July
*	99	*	447	407	*	*	425	*	419	1914
*	146	*	446	441	*	*	448	439	440	1915
*	146	*	490	449	442	*	480	466	480	1916
*	197	286	253	427	483	*	203	249	229	1917
*	205	280	275	432	495	*	208	257	261	1918
489	343	444	302	449	247	*	255	270	253	1919
										1920
494	316	449	*	*	*	*	261	*	253	1920
492	325	470	331	456	223	*	264	281	262	Aug.
493	348	489	*	*	*	*	276	*	258	Sept.
486	369	544	*	*	*	*	269	*	249	Oct.
481	378	535	335	461	*	41173	265	274	243	Nov.
										Dec.
										1921
469	374	574	*	*	*	44084	254	*	237	Jan.
462	379	566	*	*	*	47024	244	*	234	Feb.
460	384	568	304	460	*	47974	233	249	234	Mar.
460	444	578	*	*	*	47244	228	*	212	Apr.
467	396	578	*	*	*	47909	249	*	240	May
473	390	506	302	457	*	20270	249	236	244	June
477	387	494	*	*	*	25709	222	*	209	July
480	394	501	*	*	*	30407	220	*	206	Aug.
485	400	520	296	456	*	39817	210	231	200	Sept.
483	445	535	—	—	*	—	203	—	498	Oct.
482	423	544	—	—	*	—	499	—	—	Nov.
—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	Dec.

TABLE II (cont.). FOOD INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

India	Italy		Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Date
(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(30 towns)	(35 towns)	(Amsterdam)	(Warsaw)	(630 towns)	(40 t.)	(23 towns)	(30 towns)	
(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)
400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	July
*	95	*	423	442	444	*	432	*	419	*	1914
*	144	154	453	449	447	*	464	452	444	*	1915
*	137	210	203	427	446	*	204	480	479	*	1916
*	203	324	274	439	475	*	240	258	222	*	1917
*	206	304	290	444	496	*	209	318	250	*	1918
*	348	445	319	467	240	*	262	287	239	*	1919
											1920
190	322	454	333	474	242	*	267	*	239	*	Aug.
193	324	468	336	473	247	*	270	298	248	*	Sept.
193	340	480	340	477	219	*	291	*	246	*	Oct.
485	364	545	342	476	244	*	282	*	235	*	Nov.
478	375	535	342	479	202	49613	278	286	230	*	Dec.
											1921
463	367	574	334	478	493	25440	263	*	224	1643	Jan.
456	376	564	308	475	494	34827	249	*	224	4494	Feb.
454	386	582	299	469	493	32883	238	247	291	4423	Mar.
454	432	598	300	469	487	31744	232	*	241	4450	Apr.
462	424	598	292	468	484	32640	248	*	208	4456	May
469	409	523	290	466	480	35393	220	234	243	4445	June
474	402	506	295	464	480	45655	226	*	207	4346	July
477	417	518	297	463	479	53400	225	*	204	4362	Aug.
483	430	545	290	464	479	60728	210	228	498	4474	Sept.
480	464	564	288	456	468	—	200	*	496	—	Oct.
479	459	570	281	452	454	—	495	240	—	—	Nov.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dec.

(a) For these countries only, the index numbers in tables I and II are entirely distinct.
The sign * signifies "no figures published".
The sign — signifies "figures not available".

TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

Date	Germany (Berlin)	Austria (Vienna)	Denmark (400 towns)	United-States (32 towns)	Finland (20 towns)	France (Paris)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	•	•	110	105	•	•
» 1916	•	•	160	120	•	•
» 1917	•	•	190	149	•	•
» 1918	•	•	260	205	•	•
» 1919	•	•	310	215	•	296
» 1920	1316	•	355	288	1049	485
Sept. 1920	1197	•	*	*	1100	518
Dec. »	1197	•	292	259	1126	445
March 1921	1077	15400	*	•	1031	398
June »	1077	18500	248	223	1032	353
Sept. »	1197	38400	*	192	1030	318
Dec. »	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany (Berlin)	Austria (Vienna)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 t.)	United States (32 t.)	Finland (20 t.)	France (Paris)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	100	•	•	97	130	101	•	•
» 1916	111	•	•	99	175	108	•	•
» 1917	115	•	•	126	220	124	•	•
» 1918	128	•	•	148	275	148	•	•
» 1919	131	•	•	156	292	146	•	164
» 1920	155	1158	•	193	563	172	1232	296
Sept. 1920	—	1158	*	207	*	*	1374	349
Dec. »	—	1211	*	220	578	195	1443	349
Mar. 1921	176	1211	5000	208	*	•	1266	319
June »	—	1316	5300	196	40	182	1283	308
Sept. »	—	1368	10700	190	*	181	1264	307
Dec. »	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

Date	South Africa (9 t.)	Germany (Berlin)	Australia (6 t.)	Austria (Vienna)	Canada (60 t.)	Denmark (100 t.)	United States (32 t.)	Finland (20 t.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	97	•	94	•	85	100	102	•
» 1916	96	•	94	•	84	102	102	•
» 1917	97	•	95	•	90	105	100	•
» 1918	105	•	99	•	100	108	109	•
» 1919	110	•	105	•	109	113	114	•
» 1920	116	164	115	•	132	130	135	335
Sept. 1920	—	164	117	*	134	*	*	374
Dec. »	—	164	120	*	137	130	151	389
Mar. 1921	116	164	120	200	138	*	*	418
June »	—	164	121	380	141	141	159	535
Sept. »	—	182	—	600	143	*	160	596
Dec. »	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

The sign * signifies « no figures published ».
The sign — signifies « figures not available ».

TABLE III (cont.). CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 towns)	United Kingdom (97 towns)	Sweden (40 towns)	Date	
	(Rome)	(Milan)					
(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
100	100	100	100	100	100	July	1914
•	—	•	107	125	*	»	1915
•	—	•	157	155	160	»	1916
•	—	•	205	200	210	»	1917
•	261	284	304	310	285	»	1918
•	—	221	388	360	310	»	1919
299	466	651	336	430	390	»	1920
299	—	746	345	430	390	Sept.	1920
284	621	782	348	390	355	Dec.	»
239	576	696	308	325	295	Mar.	1921
263	445	532	292	290	270	June	»
268	—	534	280	265	250	Sept.	»
—	—	—	—	—	—	Dec.	»

TABLE IV (cont.). HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 t.)	New Zealand (4 towns)	United Kingdom (30 t.)	Sweden (40 t.)	Switzerland (23 towns)	Date	
	(Rome)	(Milan)							
(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July	1914
•	—	•	134	102	—	*	115	»	1915
•	—	•	204	108	—	168	129	»	1916
•	—	•	348	123	—	240	182	»	1917
•	160	220	476	136	—	286	312	»	1918
•	—	220	316	145	—	326	372	»	1919
151	178	611	477	177	230	372	387	»	1920
151	—	687	601	182	240	400	398	Sept.	1920
184	225	886	568	192	240	380	365	Dec.	»
176	279	1054	388	194	240	316	357	Mar.	1921
177	245	899	366	193	260	264	220	June	»
176	—	899	337	200	238	231	221	Sept.	»
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dec.	»

TABLE V (cont.). RENT INDEX NUMBERS
(Base reduced to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 t.)	New Zealand (25 t.)	United Kingdom	Sweden (40 t.)	Date	
		(Rome)	(Milan)						
(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July	1914
•	•	—	•	103	101	—	*	»	1915
•	•	—	•	106	100	—	108	»	1916
•	•	—	•	109	102	—	112	»	1917
•	•	100	100	110	104	—	112	»	1918
100	•	100	100	123	107	—	120	»	1919
100	165	100	108	147	116	118	130	»	1920
100	165	—	108	155	117	139	155	Sept.	1920
100	165	143	139	155	117	142	155	Dec.	»
100	165	143	139	161	121	144	155	Mar.	1921
110	165	157	139	161	121	145	155	June	»
121	165	—	139	166	129	152	163	Sept.	»
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Dec.	»

The sign * signifies "no figures published".
The sign — signifies "figures not available".

newspapers, tobacco, tram fares, taxes, subscriptions, and many others.

As before, the index numbers have as far as possible been reduced to a common base with July 1914 = 100. The maxima reached in each country are printed in heavy type. Notes to the five tables, giving additional details which could not be included in the column headings, are given further on.

The extra space given to the international tables has involved a corresponding reduction in the notes on different countries which appeared in previous articles. These notes will still contain, however, either further information on the cost of living which could not be given in the tables, or a more detailed investigation for some particular country. The list of sources is still given at the end of the article.

The very fact that the new form of presentation suggests that the index numbers are completely comparable internationally makes it all the more necessary to insist on caution in using them for such comparisons. Not only are there differences in the number and kind of articles included and the number of markets from which prices are taken, but there are also many differences of method, especially in the systems of weighting used.

INTERNATIONAL MOVEMENT OF RETAIL PRICES

The comparison of the general cost of living index numbers cannot be carried very far. In general since the end of 1920 most of the index numbers have been falling very definitely after the rise which had been going on since 1914. There are only a few exceptions. In Germany, Austria, Finland and Poland the index numbers are still rising, due undoubtedly to the unsatisfactory state of the currency in those countries. After an occasional temporary drop the percentage increases in these four countries continue. Italy might be grouped with them to some extent, although the general increase in prices there is much less strongly marked.

There are considerable difference in the movements of prices for the different groups of commodities. For the four central and eastern European countries the rise is very nearly general. In other countries the rise is particularly marked for clothing, less so for fuel and lighting. For foodstuffs, the fall was very distinct at the beginning of 1921, but was checked to some extent during the summer months, when there was even a slight rise which has not yet disappeared in some countries. Rents are still rising slowly.

The food index numbers follow about the same course as do the general cost of living indexes. There is, however, a certain peculiarity in the movement during the last half year which has already received some attention in previous articles. The general fall recorded everywhere (except in the four central and eastern European countries) since the second half of 1920 was suspended during the summer. In most countries the check was only temporary, and the fall seems to have begun again after a few months. This was so in 10 countries out of the 15 under discussion: South Africa, Canada, the United States, France, India (Bombay), Norway, New Zealand, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and Switzerland. In Belgium and Italy prices are still rising, so much so in Italy in fact that the Rome index number almost places it in the same group as Germany, Austria, Finland, and Poland, the last of the available figures for which represent the highest point yet reached.

These results stand out very clearly in table VI, which gives the movement of the index numbers in "points". The countries are arranged in three groups:

(1) Countries where the index number has fallen without interruption or has only shown a temporary increase during the summer;

(2) Countries where the index number fell definitely at the end of 1920 and the beginning of 1921 and has been rising during recent months, but has not yet reached its previous maximum;

(3) Countries where the index number is definitely rising on the whole, in spite of a temporary fall at the beginning of 1921, the most recent figure being the highest yet reached.

This classification is, of course, only provisional, and will probably be slightly modified when figures for recent months are available for all the countries in question.

TABLE VI. CHANGES IN FOOD INDEX NUMBERS IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES FROM APRIL TO NOVEMBER 1921

Country	Increase or decrease on the preceding month expressed in « points »								Latest available index no. (Base: July 1914 = 100)
	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	
<i>Group I</i>									
South Africa	- 4	- 4	- 8	- 5	- 5	- 1	»	»	133
Canada	- 7	-15	- 2	+ 6	+ 5	- 4	- 6	»	149
United States	- 5	- 7	- 1	+ 9	+ 7	- 2	0	- 1	149
France (Paris)	-30	-11	- 5	- 6	+11	+12	+ 2	- 5	326
India (Bombay)	- 1	+ 9	+ 7	+ 5	+ 3	+ 6	- 3	- 1	179
Norway	+ 1	- 8	- 2	+ 5	+ 2	- 7	- 2	- 7	281
New Zealand	0	- 1	- 2	- 2	- 1	- 2	- 5	- 4	152
Netherlands (Amsterdam)	- 6	- 6	- 4	0	- 1	0	-11	-14	154
United Kingdom ¹	- 6	-14	+ 2	+ 6	- 1	-15	-10	- 5	195
Switzerland ¹	- 7	- 3	+ 5	- 6	- 3	- 6	- 2	»	196
<i>Group II</i>									
Belgium	-17	-10	+12	- 9	+17	- 4	+11	»	434
Italy (Milan)	+16	0	-75	-17	+12	+27	+16	+ 9	570
<i>Group III</i>									
Germany (official)	-17	-19	+23	+99	+125	+19	+114	+382	1914
Finland	-30	+10	+29	+132	+46	+76	»	»	1400
Italy (Rome)	+16	-11	-12	- 7	+15	+13	+23	+ 6	459
Poland	-1172	+929	+2753	+10262	+7445	+7628	»	»	60728

(¹) The changes in the index numbers are calculated, not for the month named, but for the first of the following month,

With regard to the other groups of commodities, the tables only contain figures for each quarter. Nevertheless, some interesting deductions can be made.

The index numbers for the clothing group in all countries for which data are available have reached maxima which are definitely higher than those of the index numbers of any other group. The fall which has been going on has been fairly steady and has been only slightly interrupted during recent months. Germany, Austria, Finland, and

Italy are not included in this generalisation. For these countries the clothing index number has been rising during recent months, though it has not yet reached the maximum of 1920. Data for this last comparison are not available in the case of Austria. Generally speaking, the fall began rather sooner than it did for food, but without exception has been much more rapid; in fact, for all countries the clothing index number is at present at a level which is much closer to that of food than it was when at its maximum.

The index numbers for the heating and lighting group are quite different. The maxima are sometimes higher and sometimes lower than those for food. The fall is practically general, and began after the first quarter of 1921 (in some countries at the end of 1920), so that it is a little behind that of food. It should further be noted that the index numbers for Bombay and New Zealand, as well as those of Germany, Austria, Finland, and Italy are still rising, or have at least shown no change during the last two quarters.

The movement of the rent index numbers is quite definite. There is a general rise, slow but increasing, dating from 1918 and 1919. The maxima without exception are considerably below those of the other groups, the increase being often considerably less than half that for the other articles. The explanation is to be found not only in the fact that rents always lag behind the general movement of prices, but also in the numerous attempts of legislators everywhere to protect tenants against a rapid rise in rents.

NOTES ON TABLES I TO V

The following notes contain only a very brief explanation of the methods used in the different countries for calculating cost of living index numbers. Fuller details will be given in a subsequent article.

All index numbers are averages of a number of prices. In order that the price of each article may contribute to the final result an amount proportionate to the relative importance of the article in question, an arithmetical process called "weighting" is adopted; i.e. the prices are multiplied by "weights", and the sum of the products is divided by the sum of the weights.

The following methods are used for determining the weight to be assigned to each article.

(a) "Standard budget" method: the weights are based on the results of an enquiry made on a certain number of families.

(b) "Theoretical budget" method: the weights are estimates based on partial information, or on different theoretical considerations; for food, the nutritive value in calories is sometimes taken.

(c) "Aggregate expenditure" method: the weights are based on the total consumption of the town or country in question, as determined by statistics of production, imports and exports.

In general, the weights are fixed once for all. The index numbers then show the variations in the expenditure necessary to maintain a definite standard of living. In some cases, however, the weights are modified from time to time, in order to take into account changes in consumption. This is especially the case when the theoretical budget is used.

The number of articles included in the different groups varies from country to country. In the following notes, the number of articles included is given in brackets.

South Africa

Office of Census and Statistics. Groups included in the budget: food (17), heating and lighting, and rent. Until December 1919 the system of weighting was that of the standard budget based on an enquiry made in 1910. Since 1920

the aggregate expenditure method has been adopted, based on the period 1917 to 1919. In spite of this change of method, the Office of Census and Statistics considers that the two sets of data are comparable.

From 1914 to 1919 the index numbers refer to yearly averages; from July 1920 to monthly averages. The rent index number from 1914 to 1917 refers to the yearly average; from 1918 to 1920, to August; and in 1921, to February. Original base: 1910=1000.

Germany

(a) Official index number (tables I and II): *Statistisches Reichsamt*. Groups included in the budget: food (13), heating and lighting (2), and rent. System of weighting: theoretical budget. Until January 1921, 39 towns only; from February 1921, 47 towns. The monthly food index numbers refer to the 15th of the month. Original base: average of October 1913, January, April, and June 1914=100.

(b) Berlin, *Kuczynski's* index number (tables I to V). Groups included in the budget: food (about 15), clothing (2), heating and lighting (2), rent, and miscellaneous. The index numbers have been calculated for this article from the original data giving the minimum cost of subsistence for a working class family of four persons in Berlin.

System of weighting: for food, a theoretical budget is fixed each month, based on market prices and available supplies, so as to ensure a sufficient number of calories at a minimum price; both the number of items and the weights are variable. For the other groups a fixed theoretical budget is taken. Clothing includes 2 items only. The expenditure on the "miscellaneous" group is taken as 30 per cent. (25 per cent. before July 1920) of the sum fixed each month for food. Original base: August 1913 to July 1914=100.

Australia

Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. Only 2 distinct groups are included: rent, and food (46). The latter group, however, includes not only 41 items of food, but also 2 of lighting and 3 of laundry. The system of weighting is that of total pre-war consumption, estimated with great accuracy. The index numbers have been calculated for this article from the data giving the purchasing power of money in the various groups of commodities. The figures refer to the quarterly average for the cost of living and to the monthly average for food. Original base: 1911=1000.

Austria (Vienna)

Statistische Zentralkommission. Groups included in the budget: food (about 26 items), clothing (11), heating and lighting (3), rent, miscellaneous (7). The index numbers show the fluctuations in the minimum cost of subsistence for a family of 4 persons in Vienna. The method of weighting used for the food group is based on a theoretical budget fixed each month according to market prices and supplies, so as to ensure a sufficient number of calories at a minimum price. For the other groups an invariable theoretical budget is used. Original base: July 1914=100.

Belgium

Ministère de l'Industrie, du Travail et du Ravitaillement. Two quite distinct index numbers. Table I: index number including 56 items: food (34), clothing (12), heating and lighting (5), household articles (5). No separate index number is published for the various groups. The general index number is not weighted and does not include rent. Table II: index number including 22 items of food, weighted according to a standard budget based on the enquiry of the Solvay Institute of Sociology on 602 households with an income of less than 5 francs a day in 1910. Unlike most other countries, this weighted food index

is therefore not included in the index number (unweighted) of table I, though the latter contains 34 items of food. For both index numbers the monthly figures refer to the 15th of the month. Original base : April 1914=100.

Canada

Department of Labour. Groups included in the budget : food (29), heating and lighting (5), rent, and 1 household article (starch). System of weighting : theoretical pre-war budget. The index numbers have been calculated for these tables from the published data giving the cost of living in dollars. The monthly index numbers in the tables refer to the 15th of the month until the end of 1920, and from January 1921 to the 1st of the month following the month in question. Original base : July 1914=100.

Denmark

Statistiske Departement. Groups included in the budget : food, clothing (including laundry), heating, lighting, rent, taxes and subscriptions, and miscellaneous. The system of weighting is that of the standard budget, fixed for a normal family of 5 persons spending 2,000 kr. a year in 1914 according to the enquiry made in 1909.

The half-yearly index numbers are based on two quarterly statements for food, heating and lighting, and clothing, and a half-yearly statement for the other groups. From 1914 to 1920, the figures refer to Copenhagen only ; from 1920, to the provincial towns and about 100 thickly populated rural communes. Original base : July 1914=100.

United States

Bureau of Labour Statistics. The cost of living index number is unusually complete and satisfactory. It includes the following groups : food (22 items until December 1920, 43 from January 1921), clothing (24 items for winter only, 38 for summer only, 43 for the year as a whole, i.e. 77 or 91 according to season), heating and lighting (6), rent (various categories), furniture and household articles (25), and miscellaneous (19 items, including taxes and subscriptions, medical and travelling expenses, amusements, etc.). The system of weighting is that of the standard budget, based on an enquiry made in 1917-1918 on more than 12,000 working class families in all parts of the United States.

The system of determining prices has reached a high degree of perfection. For the food group, prices are reported from 51 towns on the 15th of each month. The index numbers for the other groups cover 18 towns down to 1917 and 32 afterwards.

No figures having been published for July 1914, the original base (1913=100) has been retained in the tables for the general index number of Table I, and for the group index numbers, except that for food. Until 1918 the index numbers refer to December ; in 1919 and 1920 to June ; in 1921 to May and December. The food index number has, however, been reduced to the base of July 1914, as in most other countries, and the figures given in the table correspond for the months in question. Original base : 1913=100.

Finland

Socialministeriet och Socialstyrelsen. Groups included in the budget : food (14), clothing (2), heating and lighting (1 item, wood, rent, tobacco, and a daily paper. System of weighting : standard budget (based on the enquiry made by Miss Vera Hjelt in 1908-1909) for a normal family with a yearly income of 1600-2000 Finnish crowns in 1914. Original base : July 1914=100.

France

(1) The cost of living index number calculated by the *Commission régionale d'Etudes relatives au coût de la vie à Paris* includes the following groups : food (calculated by the *Statistique générale de France*), clothing, heating and lighting, rent, and miscellaneous. Original base : first half of 1914=100.

(2) For food (table II) the *Statistique générale de France* calculates one index number for Paris (included in the calculations for the cost of living in Paris) and another index number for towns other than Paris with more than 10,000 inhabitants. This latter index is quarterly, and the figures for 1914 to 1920 given in the table refer to the third quarter of the year. The base has been shifted to the third quarter of 1914=100. The two index numbers include 11 items of food together with two of heating and lighting, viz. oil and methylated spirit.

The weighting of the cost of living index number, like that for food, is based on a theoretical budget.

India (Bombay)

Labour Office of Bombay. Groups included in the budget: food (17), clothing (3), heating and lighting (3), and rent. System of weighting: average total consumption of the whole of India during the 5 years before the war. Original base: July 1914=100.

Italy (Rome and Milan)

Municipal Statistical Offices. Groups included in the budget: food, clothing, heating and lighting, rent, and miscellaneous. The system of weighting adopted for both index numbers, with some slight differences between them, is that of the pre-war budget. Original base: First half of 1914=100.

Since the Milan Statistical Congress of 1920, most Italian towns, including Rome and Milan, have compiled new index numbers based on theoretical budgets with July 1920=100 as base.

Norway

Statistiske Centralbyra. Groups included in the budget: food (55), clothing, heating and lighting, rent, taxes, and miscellaneous. The weighting is that of a standard budget (based on the enquiry made in 1912-1913 by the Statistical Office of Christiania) for a working class family of 4 persons with an income of about 1500 kr. in 1914. Monthly index numbers are calculated for food and heating only; they are quarterly for the other groups. In all the tables the figures from 1914 to 1919 refer to June. Original base: July 1914=100.

New Zealand

Census and Statistics Office. Groups included in the budget: food (59 items, including 3 of laundry, and tobacco), heating and lighting (7), and rent. The weighting is based on the total consumption of the 4 principal towns for the period 1909 to 1913. The index numbers for food and rent cover 25 towns; those for heating and lighting only cover the 4 principal towns. The index numbers are published quarterly and refer to the average of the quarter. Original base: 1909 to 1913=1000.

The food index number in table II differs from that included in the general index number of table I with regard to the period covered. It is published monthly instead of quarterly and relates to the period of six months ending with the month in question. The system of weighting is the same in both cases. Original base: 1909 to 1913=1000.

Netherlands

Amsterdam Statistical Office. The cost of living and food index numbers for Amsterdam are entirely distinct.

(a) The cost of living index number in table I covers food, clothing, heating and lighting, rent, taxes and subscriptions, laundry, upkeep of furniture, travelling expenses, amusements, etc. It is very complete, and in addition it takes changes in consumption into account. With this latter purpose it is based on a series of special enquiries made at each date in question on

about 30 working class families. The results obtained are afterwards combined with the data of the standard budget calculated in 1911. This process was interrupted in September 1920. The figures given here refer to the original base 1910-1911, no data having been published for 1914.

(b) The food index number of table II is weighted according to a pre-war standard budget. The base was originally 1913, but the necessary calculations have been made in order to change it to 1914. The figures from 1914 to 1919 refer to the average for the year.

Poland (Warsaw)

Central Statistical Office of the Polish Republic. Groups included in the budget: food (16), clothing (7), heating and lighting (2-3), rent, miscellaneous (7, including cleaning, travelling expenses, education, amusements, etc.). The system of weighting is that of a theoretical budget for a working class family of 4 persons at Warsaw.

Index numbers for the separate groups, except food, have not yet been published. Original base: January 1914=100.

United Kingdom

Ministry of Labour. Groups included in the budget: food (20), clothing (8, including suits and overcoats, underwear, textiles, boots and shoes), heating and lighting (5), rent, miscellaneous (8, including household articles and cleaning materials, travelling expenses, newspapers, tobacco, etc.). The food index number covers 630 towns; that for clothing 97; those for the other groups, a large number of towns.

The system of weighting is that of the standard budget. For food, it is based on an enquiry made in 1904 by the Board of Trade on 1944 working class families of 5 or 6 persons; for rent, on a special enquiry made in 1912; for the other groups the weights are estimates. The percentage increases in the prices of the various articles are weighted in each group and the group index numbers are again weighted in order to give the general index number. The various group index numbers, except that for food, are only given as approximations. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the first of the month following the month in question. From 1914 to 1919 the clothing index number refers to June. Original base: July 1914=100.

Sweden

Socialstyrelsen. Groups included in the budget: food (50), clothing (20), heating and lighting (5), rent, taxes, and miscellaneous (furniture, subscriptions, travelling and medical expenses). The weighting is that of a standard budget (based on an enquiry made in 1913-1914 on 1350 households) for a working class family of 4 persons with a yearly income of 2,000 kr. in 1914. In the tables the 1916 index number refers to December, that for 1917 to September. The monthly figures refer to the 1st of the month following the month in question. Original base: July 1914=100.

Switzerland

Union des Sociétés coopératives. Only two groups are included in the general cost of living index numbers: food (37), and heating and lighting (1, together with soap, which is included in this group). The system of weighting is that of the standard budget based on the enquiry made in 1912 by the Secrétariat ouvrier suisse on 785 households. The prices of the different articles are ascertained with remarkable accuracy by the help of the co-operative societies of the country, and are weighted with the number of members of each society in order to calculate an average price.

The figures in the tables for 1914 to 1919 refer to the whole country, and to June in each year. From 1920 onwards the monthly index numbers refer to the first of the month following the month in question, and cover 23 towns only. Original base: June 1914=100.

Czecho-Slovakia

Statistical Office of the Czecho-Slovak Republic. No cost of living index number is as yet published. It is true that the food index number includes not only food (21), but also wood, coal, oil, and soap, but it is not weighted. The index number for clothing (15) includes several textiles in addition to boots and shoes and hats. The average prices in different towns of the various articles are weighted with the population of the town in question, in order to obtain an average price for the whole country. Original base : July 1914=100.

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EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of Unemployment

IN one country only, that is, Germany, do official statistics on unemployment among trade union members show a continuous improvement during the year 1921. In a number of countries signs of improvement from the time when unemployment was at its height in the spring and early summer became evident during the third quarter of the year, notably in Belgium, the Netherlands, Canada, and Massachusetts (United States), and to a small extent in Norway and Denmark. In the case of Massachusetts and Denmark, however, this improvement was followed by a decline in October, while in the United Kingdom, after an improvement during the summer months from the high figures of May and June, there has been an increase in unemployment between September and November. In Italy and Switzerland the statistics show that the number of the unemployed has steadily increased during the year. The figures of unemployment among trade union members are summarised below in table I.

In no case can an accurate statement be made as to whether unemployment is greater or less in one country or another, because the nature of the figures in each case is very diverse and the methods of compilation so different. At the very best the figures are only comparable in each country by itself over the period of years and months indicated.

The index numbers of unemployment, that is, the percentage of days lost from work during the month out of the total number of possible days of work, indicate a similar improvement in the employment situation to that shown by the figures for the percentage of the number of trade unionists unemployed. Figures of this character are published by Germany and the Netherlands, and have been calculated from the available data in the case of Belgium and Norway. These index numbers are contained in table II below.

In France, for which trade union unemployment figures are not available, the position of the labour market is shown by figures for the number of unemployed remaining on the live register of the employment exchanges, and the number of persons in receipt of benefits from the communal unemployment insurance funds. Since the high point in the number of persons in receipt of benefit and in the number of unemployed registered, reached in February 1921, there has been a steady decrease down to the end of December 1921. According to figures furnished by the United States Employment Service (Department of Labour), the number of persons on the pay rolls of over 1,400 firms decreased from January to July, from which time on there was an increase each month to the end of November, the latest month for which figures are available. More refined figures published

TABLE I. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG TRADE UNIONISTS (1)

End of month	Germany	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	United States (Massachusetts)	Norway	Netherlands	United Kingdom		Sweden
									Trade unions	Compulsory insurance	
A. Number of Workers Covered by the Returns (in Thousands)											
1913											
March	2004	237	78	•	110	171	29	62	908	2071	50
June	2010	243	79	•	109	172	29	64	922	2083	53
Sept.	1994	252	76	•	115	177	29	68	943	2218	54
Dec.	1930	251	74	•	118	178	29	70	965	2286	60
1919											
March	2934	311	•	174	286	255	33	263	1243	3561	107
June	3711	303	•	151	293	250	36	304	1334	3561	119
Sept.	4316	308	•	192	310	257	38	314	1418	3721	118
Dec.	4497	317	•	174	311	274	38	394	1541	3721	119
1920											
March	4939	329	*	171	295	281	46	404	1567	3827	126
June	5600	343	*	194	306	248	46	407	1603	4160	126
Sept.	5442	345	118	189	308	255	46	407	1636	4197	151
Dec.	5664	351	546	208	311	297	45	399	1535	11900	146
1921											
Jan.	5751	*	609	198	307	*	50	391	1587	12000	155
Feb.	5650	*	621	198	304	*	52	396	1534	12000	147
March	5779	344	668	207	294	237	51	394	1528	12000	165
April	5510	*	617	204	294	*	53	392	1539	12000	145
May	5784	*	637	201	299	*	79	395	1543	12 00	144
June	5841	364	669	182	299	—	89	396	1279	12200	145
July	5753	*	688	183	299	*	81	394	1385	12200	151
Aug.	5680	*	738	189	287	*	77	391	1420	12200	153
Sept.	5965	—	746	183	287	—	74	—	1433	12200	154
Oct.	5960	*	748	174	284	176	—	—	1442	122 0	149
Nov.	—	*	755	—	284	*	—	—	1433	11900	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
B. Percentage of above Workers Unemployed											
1913										(2)	
March	2.8	5.2	1.5	—	7.8	8.3	1.8	3.4	1.9	3.5	7.1
June	2.7	6.2	2.1	—	3.7	4.5	0.7	3.9	1.9	2.8	2.6
Sept.	2.7	5.3	3.2	—	3.8	5.0	1.2	4.9	2.3	3.7	2.3
Dec.	4.8	3.9	3.5	—	15.1	8.5	3.7	9.1	2.6	4.6	4.4
1919											
March	3.9	4.7	•	5.6	20.5	11.4	2.2	14.2	2.8	*	7.6
June	2.5	5.3	*	2.6	3.6	2.8	1.1	8.7	1.7	*	6.1
Sept.	2.2	4.1	*	2.2	3.1	2.7	1.2	4.5	1.6	*	3.2
Dec.	2.9	3.9	*	3.5	16.5	4.1	2.6	9.0	3.2	6.58	3.8
1920											
March	1.9	4.5	*	3.4	6.7	4.1	1.5	7.7	1.1	3.6	4.5
June	3.9	4.7	*	2.5	2.9	14.6	0.7	5.9	1.2	2.6	3.4
Sept.	4.5	4.5	5.8	3.3	2.7	16.4	1.8	4.1	2.2	3.8	2.9
Dec.	4.1	7.0	17.4	13.1	15.1	29.2	6.8	13.4	6.1	5.8	15.8
1921											
Jan.	4.5	*	19.3	13.1	19.7	*	11.3	16.5	6.9	8.2	20.2
Feb.	4.7	*	22.7	16.1	23.2	*	14.9	16.4	8.5	9.5	20.8
March	3.7	11.4	31.5	16.5	23.6	22.1	16.1	13.9	10.0	11.3	24.6
April	3.9	*	31.2	16.3	21.7	*	17.1	11.9	17.6	15.0	24.2
May	3.7	*	32.3	15.5	18.6	*	17.8	9.4	22.2	17.6	25.3
June	3.0	12.5	22.9	13.2	16.8	20.1	24.5	8.1	23.1	17.8	27.9
July	2.6	*	21.4	9.1	16.7	*	19.4	7.6	16.7	14.85	27.8
Aug.	2.2	*	21.7	8.7	17.7	*	19.2	7.3	16.3	13.1	26.8
Sept.	1.4	11.4	17.7	8.5	16.6	19.1	19.1	—	14.8	12.2	26.2
Oct.	1.2	*	13.6	7.4	18.3	21.2	—	—	15.6	12.8	26.8
Nov.	—	*	13.9	—	20.8	*	—	—	15.9	15.7	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(1) For the United Kingdom there is also given the number covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act and the percentage in receipt of benefits.

(2) Owing to the increase in the number of trades covered in 1919 and again in 1920 and 1921 compared with 1913, these percentages are not comparable.

The sign * signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".

by the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics (Department of Labour), but not so prompt in appearance as those of the Employment Service, tell about the same story regarding the employment situation in the United States.

In India the prosperity of the population is indicated by the extent to which it is in need of Governmental relief. As a result of unfavourable weather and drought, the extent of famine relief by the Government reached its highest during the months of April to July, and fell off again during August and September. Thus, from the end of July the number of persons in receipt of gratuitous relief fell from 85,661 to 31,999 on 17 September.

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF UNEMPLOYMENT : PERCENTAGE OF DAYS LOST FROM WORK IN RELATION TO TOTAL POSSIBLE NUMBER OF DAYS WORKED (1)

End of month	Germany	Belgium	Norway	Netherlands
1920 March	1.5	*	2.1	6.4
June	1.9	*	1.3	5.0
Sept.	3.4	2.0	2.0	3.3
Dec.	2.5	7.2	5.7	10.2
1921 Jan.	*	10.9	12.0	13.8
Feb.	*	11.5	14.4	13.5
March	2.7	10.9	15.8	11.5
April	*	13.7	17.0	9.6
May	*	15.8	13.4	7.7
June	2.3	12.6	19.9	6.6
July	*	11.7	17.4	6.2
Aug.	*	13.3	16.2	6.0
Sept.	1.4	11.8	16.5	—
Oct.	*	8.7	—	—
Nov.	*	7.7	—	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—

(1) In Belgium and Norway the percentages are based on the number of days worked during the month; in Germany on the number worked during the quarter ending with the month indicated. The Netherlands give the figures monthly calculated on a weekly basis.

OTHER STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT

For certain countries statistics showing the number of workers unemployed in relation to the number in employment are not available and it is necessary to rely for information on various other sources such as returns of Employment Exchanges, of employers' organisations or of insurance institutions. As it is impossible to combine these figures into a general table, separate notes are given for each country.

FRANCE

Statistics are published in the *Journal Officiel* showing the number of unemployed persons remaining on the live registers of the Employment Exchanges and also showing the number of persons in receipt of benefit from the communal Unemployment Insurance Funds. It is pointed out that benefit is not paid to workers on short time and the figures as regards total unemployment are not complete owing to the

fact that many districts are without unemployment funds. The following table shows the figures at the end of each month in 1921 :

TABLE III. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN FRANCE, BY MONTHS 1921

Date	Number of unemployed registered	Number of persons in receipt of benefit
1921		
January	39,811	71,774
February	44,092	89,289
March	44,061	88,382
April	35,270	75,569
May	28,218	60,362
June	21,316	55,439
July	20,270	37,226
August	20,350	27,467 *
September	17,718	20,408 *
October	14,969	16,518 *
November	19,590	12,374 *
December	17,373	9,885 *

(*) Provisional figures

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, based on the returns of the Provincial Unemployment Boards. The figures have been published in the past at somewhat irregular intervals. The following table shows for the first of certain months the numbers totally unemployed and the number on short time :

TABLE IV. NUMBER OF WORKERS WHOLLY UNEMPLOYED AND ON SHORT TIME IN ITALY, BY MONTHS, 1921

Date	Number wholly unemployed	Number on short time
1921		
May 1st	250,145	69,270
June 1st	—	—
July 1st	388,744	238,940
August 1st	435,194	226,515
September 1st	470,542	220,763
October 1st	473,216	154,350
November 1st	492,368	131,167
December 1st	—	—

SWITZERLAND

Statistics compiled from returns supplied by the Employment Exchanges have been published by the Federal Labour Office in the *Schweizerische Arbeitsmarkt*. The following table shows the figures for the end of each month in 1921.

TABLE V. NUMBER OF WORKERS WHOLLY UNEMPLOYED AND NUMBER ON PART TIME IN SWITZERLAND, BY MONTHS, 1921

Date	Number wholly unemployed	Number on short time
1921		
January	34,652	71,922
February	42,705	82,930
March	47,577	95,119
April	47,949	95,374
May	52,635	87,741
June	54,039	76,116
July	55,605	79,888
August	63,182	74,309
September	66,646	69,421
October	74,238	59,835
November	80,692	61,627
December	—	—

UNITED STATES.

No comprehensive returns exist for the United States either as to the percentage unemployed or the numbers registered at employment exchanges. Since 1916 the United States Bureau of Labour Statistics (Department of Labour) has published data for the volume of employment in selected industries for a representative period in each month, giving the number on the pay-roll and the amount of the pay-roll for the principal industries. The figures are published in the Monthly Labour Review each month. They do not appear as promptly as do similar but less refined figures of the United States Employment Service (Department of Labour), publication of which was begun in January 1921. This latter gives the numbers employed at the end of each month by 1,428 firms in 14 industries, each firm normally employing more than 500 workers, or an aggregate varying from 1,500,000 to 1,600,000. The results of this survey are shown in the following table, together with the percentage increase or decrease for the end of each month during 1921. The index number of employment, with the number of persons employed in January 1921 as the base, has been calculated by the International Labour Office and inserted in the last column of the table below.

TABLE VI. VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED STATES BY MONTHS, 1921

Date	Numbers employed by 1,428 firms (in 1,000's)	Percent. increase (+) or decrease (—) from previous month	Index of employment. (January 1921 = 100)
1921			
January	1,628	—	100.0
February	1,613	— 1.00	99.1
March	1,588	— 1.50	97.5
April	1,581	— 0.40	97.1
May	1,574	— 0.45	96.7
June	1,527	— 2.90	93.8
July	1,510	— 1.10	92.8
August	1,526	+ 1.08	93.7
September	1,545	+ 1.20	94.9
October	1,560	+ 1.01	95.8
November	1,567	+ 0.46	96.3

INDIA

Unemployment in the ordinary sense of the term can hardly be said to exist in India except as a result of famine. To deal with it in such cases a Famine Code is put into operation in every Province where the need arises. The Government provides actual employment or other suitable relief for those who need it, and arranges means for searching out and testing the famine areas. The following figures have been communicated by the India Office (London) showing the number of persons on relief works and in receipt of gratuitous relief in the whole of India. The affected areas are classified according to the seriousness of the famine, viz. famine areas, tracts under scarcity, tracts under observation and test. In the last areas, test works are undertaken to see whether a large number of persons are in need of such works or not, and if there are a large number the test works are converted into relief works. The figures are published weekly. The following table gives statistics for the end of each month from January to August and on 17 September :

TABLE VII. STATISTICS OF FAMINE RELIEF IN INDIA, BY MONTHS, 1921

Date	Area under famine relief		Tracts under « scarcity » and « observation and test »	
	Estimated population of affected area	Number on relief	Number of persons on test works	Number of persons in receipt of gratuitous relief
1921				
End of Jan.	5,117 915	40,029	64,967	12,794
» » Feb.	7,240,589	74,004	82,441	31,643
» » March	8,280,415	196,251	45,985	47,753
» » April	10,389,252	236,702	68,885	49,060
» » May	10,109,252	279,926	78,437	60,949
» » June	10,275,252	270,126	42,695	79,369
» » July	10,409,114	216 566	58,583	85,661
» » Aug.	8,715,508	127,987	4,312	65,423
17 Sept.	8,391,508	100,577	2,761	31,999

NOTES TO TABLES

The statistics of unemployment here given cannot be taken as correctly representing 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. As regards under-employment or short time, the data are even less complete ; in fact, for most countries no statistics of that character exist. Moreover, any international comparison of unemployment statistics is prevented by differences in the definition of unemployment, in the scope of the returns, and in the reliability of the figures. The above tables, however, give some indication of the fluctuations of unemployment in the different countries over a period of years. They cannot be used for comparative purposes as between the different countries. They are only comparable within each country over the period of years indicated.

Table I shows for each of the ten countries which publish this class of statistics, the number of workers covered by the returns and the percentage of this number unemployed at the end of each quarter in 1913, 1919 and 1920, and at the end of each month in 1921. In addition, certain of these countries (Germany and the Netherlands) publish an index number of unemployment; while for Belgium and Norway similar indexes have been calculated on the basis of the official returns. These index numbers of unemployment show the percentage which the total number of days lost owing to unemployment during a week or 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. It should be remarked that the Netherlands index is calculated after deductions have been made of persons not working on account of military service, strikes, lock-outs, sickness, accidents, child-birth or imprisonment. In the other countries this deduction is not made, and it follows that their index of unemployment is less refined than the Dutch index.

SOURCES

Germany: *Reichsarbeitsblatt.*

The percentages 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. 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: *Medde'elser fra det Statistiske Centralbyrå.*

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 based on the returns of voluntary insurance associations are weekly averages over a period of four or five weeks. A few organisations 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.

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 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

RECENT outstanding occurrences in migration have been the conclusion of the agreement between Brazil and Italy regarding the immigration of Italian agricultural workers to Brazil; action on the part of Italy making the transport of her emigrants a monopoly of the Italian shipping companies; the abolition of indentured migration of Indian workers into the French colonies of Réunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe and dependencies, and Guiana, by the termination of the Franco-British Convention of 1861; the making of arrangements with Lithuania by the Executive Committee of the Jewish World Relief Conference and the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society for the transit of Jewish emigrants from the Ukraine and Russia; and attempts on the part of Dr. Nansen, High Commissioner of the League of Nations for Russian Refugees, to make arrangements with certain Governments for finding productive employment for Russian refugees. The present article also gives a summary of German emigration during the year 1920, contrasting it with the movement before the war; and a statement of the movement of emigration through Danzig. It also notes the relief and welfare work in the field of emigration being undertaken by the Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. organisations. There is brief note of the steps which Canada is taking to carry out the decisions of the British Imperial Conference discussed in the previous number of the Review.

ITALIAN EMIGRATION

Agreement between Italy and Brazil

On 8 October 1921, after negotiations lasting more than a year, Mr. de Michelis, Commissioner-General of Emigration for Italy, and Mr. de Souza Dantas, Brazilian Ambassador at Rome, signed on behalf of their respective Governments an Agreement on labour and emigration which will come into force as soon as it has been ratified by the competent authorities in the two countries. The Agreement contains eight Articles, preceded by a declaration to the effect that the two Governments intend later to negotiate a general Treaty on labour and emigration for the benefit of their respective nationals.

The first Article prescribes equality of treatment in compensation for industrial accidents to Brazilian and Italian workers in either of the two countries. Article 2 recognises the full validity of individual or collective employment contracts concluded in Italy for execution in Brazil, provided that they are not subversive of public order. Under Article 3 the two Governments undertake to make provision for special Agreements concerning the conditions of employment of Italian workers

between the competent Departments of the United States of Brazil and the Italian Commissioner-General of Emigration, provided that these Agreements are previously submitted to the Federal Government and to the Government of the State on whose territory the Agreements are to be carried out. Article 4 requires the Brazilian Government, as soon as its National Labour Department has been set up, to institute strict inspection of labour and to supervise the protection and placing of Italian immigrants so as to ensure that employment contracts concluded between Brazilian employers and Italian workers are satisfactorily carried out. Under Article 5 the Brazilian Government undertakes to afford facilities for the creation and conduct among Italian agricultural workers of consumers', credit, labour and productive co-operative societies, and insurance or benefit associations. Article 6 guarantees to Italian immigrants in Brazil all benefits or privileges accorded to immigrants of other nationalities. Article 7 binds the Brazilian Government to afford facilities for the work of regularly constituted Italian associations in Brazil for advising and assisting Italian immigrants in their work. The last Article provides that the Agreement shall remain in force until terminated by either of the two parties on at least six months' notice.

Employment Contracts for Italian Workers in Brazil

In application of this Agreement, the Italian Commissioner-General of Emigration has approved the text of a model employment contract for use between Italian workers and owners of Brazilian plantations. This form has already been adopted by two large Brazilian companies which recruit labour for the coffee plantations of the State of São Paulo.

Under the terms of these contracts the Italian workers, with their families and baggage, are conveyed free of charge from their homes to the plantations. They are given free accommodation in São Paulo while passing through that city. On their arrival at São Paulo the contract is transferred from the recruiting company to the plantation owner, according to a previous understanding with the Italian consul or his representative. At this stage wages are fixed according to the terms of the contract; they must be at the prevailing rates for the district and be paid on the usual conditions. They are to be revised every year by the chairman of the recruiting company and the Italian consul or their representatives. The contract runs for three years, except in case of *force majeure*, sickness, or obvious inefficiency. The owner may not transfer immigrant workers from one plantation to another without their consent.

Houses and pasture land must be provided free of charge by the management of the plantation. The privacy of the home of the immigrant is inviolable, except in case of crime or danger to public safety. Agents of the management may only enter the houses of the workers by a written authorisation from the state to see that sanitary requirements are fulfilled; these requirements are enumerated in the contract. The management must also provide medical assistance up to a value of 3,000 reis per month per family. Medical supplies must be provided at cost price, if the plantation is more than ten kilometres from a town, but the workers are entitled to obtain their medical supplies outside the plantation if they so wish. They are not obliged to buy from the shops set up by the management. The owner of the plantation must maintain the necessary schools for the education of the immigrants' children. In these schools instruction in the language, history, and geography of Italy is to be compulsory for the children of Italians.

Italian consuls, their representatives, and agents of Italian associations recognised by the State of São Paulo are to have free access to the plantations in order to see that the terms of the contract are carried out in every respect. Disputes arising out of the contracts should be brought to the knowledge of the Italian consul, who will endeavour to settle them.

Fines are prescribed as penalties for failure to observe the terms of the contract. They may not exceed 25,000 reis, according to a scale drawn up by the Chairman of the company and the Italian consul. Fines will be paid into a special fund for establishing associations among the immigrants, either for assistance in case of invalidity, accident, or death, or for physical training, or for repatriation. This fund will be administered under the supervision of the Chairman of the company and the Italian consul. If the Commissioner-General of Emigration so requires, the recruiting company is to deposit security in Italy for the execution of the contract.

Transport of Italian Emigrants

The American law, limiting the number of immigrants to be admitted in any year to three per cent. of the number of that nationality already within the United States, as determined by the census of 1910⁽¹⁾, has seriously effected Italian emigration, and the Italian shipping companies are suffering in consequence. In order to diminish this hardship, the Commissioner-General of Emigration has decided to give Italian shipping the monopoly of the transport of Italian emigrants. Emigrants are forbidden to embark at a foreign port, and the visa of passports, no matter what the social status of the traveller, is made conditional on the presentation of a certificate signed by the emigration inspector stating that the holder will embark on an Italian vessel in an Italian port⁽²⁾.

GERMAN EMIGRATION

In Germany the idea of emigration became increasingly popular after the war. The result was that emigrant societies, seeing the possibilities of the situation, sprang up in large numbers. Ostensibly their only aim was to protect the interests of emigrants; but too often their real object was to extract money from a gullible public. The objectionable way in which they were conducted, and the difficulties generally which were obstructing emigration, soon caused a good many of them to disappear, while the institutions which now survive are, generally speaking, bona fide bodies with practical views⁽³⁾. This change is partly to be attributed to the work done by the Emigration Department and its agencies, with the co-operation of the national joint committees of associations for the protection of emigrants. The policy of the Emigration Department is to make use of any well managed emigration institution to assist it in its work of supplying information and providing for the welfare of the immigrant.

⁽¹⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, pp. 113, 114.

⁽²⁾ *Rivista di Emigrazione e Trasporti*, 15-31 Oct. 1921. Rome.

⁽³⁾ An analysis of the history and development of emigration societies and settlement companies has been published by Government Councillor R. Schmidt in *Nachrichtenblatt des Reichswanderungsamts*, Vol. III, Nos. 20 and 23. Berlin.

Intensity of the Emigration Movement

Such is the number of those desiring to emigrate from Germany that it far outstrips the actual opportunities for leaving the country. The *Report on the Work of the Federal Emigration Department*, for the year 1 April 1920 to 31 March 1921, gives the total number of requests for information received from persons proposing to emigrate as 79,216. Of these intending emigrants, taking first those resident in Germany, 31,670 or 41 per cent. were living in north Germany; 12,427 in Bavaria; 6,994 in Saxony; 6,715 in the Rhineland, and 4,010 in Silesia. More than one half of the four-fifths for whom the facts were reported were industrial workers, mostly in the machinery or engineering industries; about 18 per cent. were engaged in trade or commerce, and only about 17 per cent. were agriculturists. Compared with the figures of previous emigration movements a great change is obvious; the proportion of agriculturists has greatly diminished. This is also in contrast with the percentages of the various social classes exhibited in the current emigration statistics of other countries, all of which show a preponderance of the agricultural classes.

The number belonging to the army or to the civil service was 8 per cent. of those making enquiries about emigration. Of those who were engaged in industry the majority, or 72 per cent., were wage earners; a majority, namely, 54 per cent. of the agriculturists were also wage earners. But of the applicants engaged in trade or commerce a majority, that is, 56 per cent., were salaried employees.

More than half the applicants gave North and South America as the desired destination. The United States are not so frequently designated now as before the war, most of the intending emigrants naming the states of South America. The largest percentage of enquiries about South America (15,616 out of a total of 35,211) referred to Brazil, and after that to Argentine, as to which country there were 9,604 applications. The total number of enquiries about North America was 13,695, of which 11,908 referred to the United States, while the total number as to Central America was 3,190.

Of the European countries the Netherlands appear to be the most popular country for German emigrants, 4,950 enquiries having been received regarding this country. There is also a strong tendency to emigrate to Scandinavia, especially to Norway and Sweden, about which altogether 6,275 enquiries were made. Many requests for information were also received about emigration to Switzerland and Italy, especially the Southern Tyrol, and to Roumania and Spain. Considering the size of Russia, comparatively few people showed a desire to emigrate thither.

Among Asiatic countries the Dutch possessions in the East Indies were the most frequently stated as the destination of intending emigrants, while enquiries about Japan were less frequent than previously. In Africa former German South-West Africa attracted the most attention.

Causes of German Emigration

The figures given above, which give evidence of a wide-spread desire to emigrate, are far in excess of the figures of actual emigration. For one thing, there are very considerable difficulties in the way of emigration, and for another the pressure of economic conditions in Germany is momentarily less heavy. The head of the German

Emigration Department pointed out in a recent article (4) that, according to the employment returns, an excess of applications over vacancies exists only in the so-called liberal professions, such as those of technical workers, teachers, artists and lawyers. On the other hand, the supply of labour is at present unequal to the demand in agriculture, industry, handicrafts, trade and commerce. There are many branches of industry in Germany which suffer permanently from a shortage of labour. The unemployment figure for 1920, roughly 200,000, should be balanced against the figures of foreign labour employed. There can be no question of foreign labour having driven out German labour, since foreign workers can only be engaged after careful investigation by the local authorities. Nevertheless, according to the head of the Emigration Department, it is "the fear of every German that in the future he will be able to find neither suitable work, nor dwelling, nor peace which can withstand the necessity of emigration". It is impossible to suppress this impulse to emigration unless its sources are changed. The actual volume of emigration from Germany therefore depends eventually on the material factors in migration, especially shipping accommodation, and the state of the exchanges, and on the willingness of foreign countries to receive German emigrants. The *Nachrichtenblatt des Reichswanderungsamtes* for 15 November noted that, apart from Mexico, certain Central and South American States, the Dutch East Indies, and a few neutral countries in Europe, German immigration is restricted by political factors as well as by the present industrial depression. These political factors take the form either of actual prohibition of immigration or of an unfavourable attitude on the part of the population.

Emigration in the First Half of 1921

The figures of oversea emigration from Germany for the first half of 1921 are given (5) as 7,592 German subjects, of whom 4,356 were men, 2,697 women, and 539 unspecified. Particulars are given of the place of origin of the 4,438 emigrants who sailed from German ports. Those most frequently indicated were Prussia (2,330, including 451 from Berlin-Brandenburg), Hamburg (1,017), Schleswig-Holstein (456), and Bavaria (371). Information regarding destination is only available for the 2,785 emigrants who sailed from Amsterdam. The great majority of these, or 2,308, were bound for South America, the remainder (477) for Mexico, Cuba, and New Orleans. In addition to the 4,438 German subjects who sailed from German ports, there were 8,899 nationals of other states; 5,566 of them sailed from Hamburg and 3,333 from Bremen.

A Travelling Emigration Exhibition

The Institute for the Assistance of Germans Abroad (6) has founded an exhibition of all matters affecting emigration at its headquarters in the old Royal Palace at Stuttgart. The exhibition is divided into eleven sections; historical; future emigration from Germany; education of intending German emigrants; welfare work for immigrants and transmigrants in Germany; welfare work for emigrants abroad; the

(4) *Nachrichtenblatt des Reichswanderungsamtes*. Vol. III, 1 Nov. 1921, pp. 804 et seq. Berlin.

(5) *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, Vol. I, p. 441.

(6) *Deutsches Ausland-Institut*.

emigrant's future; the emigrant's outfit; hygiene of emigration; women and emigration; emigration legislation; German life (7) in countries of immigration. Features of special interest are models of the emigrant hotels run by the North German Lloyd Company at Bremerhaven and by the Hamburg-Amerika Company at Hamburg. Models of a third class cabin and of various sanitary arrangements on board ship are also on view. The President pointed out in his opening speech that the Institute for Assistance to Germans Abroad has no intention of advocating emigration; it only desires to assist those who have definitely decided to emigrate. The exhibition was opened at Stuttgart on 21 October; it is proposed to make it a travelling exhibition to visit in turn the chief towns of Germany.

Seasonal Immigration into Germany

The figures for the registration of foreign migratory workers on the frontiers of Germany by the German Central Office for Workers (8), originally a private, but now an official agency for the introduction and distribution of foreign workers, afford interesting material for statistics of seasonal migration into Germany. At present there is no official record of the number of migratory workers who annually cross the frontiers into Germany and return later to other countries. Some estimate of their number can, however, be formed owing to the fact that all migratory workers must have a registration card issued by the Central Office for Workers. The returns of the numbers of such registration cards issued cannot be considered complete, because registration is not uniformly carried out in all the Federal States. In Bavaria, Hess, and the Hansa cities registration is not compulsory; in Baden it has only been so since 1917; while in Saxony and Wurtemberg it existed in a modified form up to 1920. Even in States where registration is compulsory, experience shows that a not inconsiderable body of foreign workers succeed in escaping it. The number of foreign workers employed in Germany between 1912 and 1920 is therefore probably considerably greater than is given in the following tables.

TABLE I. SEASONAL IMMIGRATION INTO GERMANY BY LANGUAGE GROUPS
1912 TO 1920

Year	German-speaking immigrants	Immigrants speaking other languages	Total
1912	81,936	651,326	733,262
1913	88,523	681,989	770,512
1914	86,253	672,309	758,562
1915	97,393	490,829	588,222
1916	99,099	509,226	608,325
1917	98,142	578,420	676,562
1918	117,944	591,946	709,890
1919	82,187	177,962	260,149
1920	89,312	205,507	294,819
Total	840,789	4,559,514	5,400,304

(7) *Deutschtum*.

(8) *Deutsche Arbeiterzentrale*.

TABLE II. SEASONAL IMMIGRATION OF FOREIGN WORKERS INTO GERMANY
1912 TO 1920

Nationality	Pre-war 1912- Aug. 1914	War period Aug. 1914- 1918	Post-war 1919-1920	Total
Russian Polish	855,121	1,498,167	234,232	2,587,520
Ruthenian	279,680	67,155	9,488	356,323
Austrian Polish	222,562	50,194	19,603	292,359
Italian	180,931	50,517	12,423	243,871
Dutch, Belgian	180,123	318,604	43,399	542,126
Czech	80,811	43,955	17,543	142,309
Other foreign immigrants from Austria.	72,058	26,951	12,757	111,766
Hungarian and other foreign immigrants from Hun- gary	50,802	14,595	4,369	69,766
Other foreign immigrants from Russia	31,082	68,988	20,608	120,678
Danish, Swedish and Norwe- gian	24,769	18,489	3,016	46,304
French, Luxemburg	2,537	11,726	1,377	15,640
Swiss.	1,659	4,269	1,354	7,282
Other nationalities	6,653	10,047	3,270	19,970
Total foreign immi- grants	1,998,788	2,183,657	383,469	4,559,514

These figures, it need hardly be said, do not represent permanent immigration, since all the workers, with the exception of a small residuum, returned to foreign countries again. It should also be remembered that this is not a movement of six or seven million persons, but a registration which, probably to a very large extent, is renewed by the same persons every year. The majority of the German-speaking immigrants came from Austria, some from Russia, and a small minority from Switzerland and Hungary. The proportion of German-speaking immigrants, which before the war was about one-thirteenth of the whole, rose during the war to one-fifth, and after it to three-tenths, of the total volume of seasonal immigration.

It has been estimated that during the war, on the average, twice as many agricultural workers as formerly remained in Germany for the winter; Russian Poles were not allowed to leave the country. Before the war there was a regular fluctuation in volume, immigration slightly exceeding emigration. The number of those entering fluctuated between 444,798 and 549,990 persons, those departing between 444,321 and 512,740. In 1914, of 500,327 immigrants only 278,933 returned to their homes. During the war migratory movements were much smaller than before. Immigrants numbered 108,593 in 1915 and 175,461 in 1918, while emigrants ranged from 111,144 in 1916 to 142,133 in 1917. The upheaval of 1918 resulted in a great stream of emigration, of no less than 617,321 persons, while in 1919 rather more seasonal workers left the country (172,044) than entered it (167,580).

EMIGRATION THROUGH DANZIG

Since 1 January 1921 the Senate of the Free City of Danzig has published detailed statistics of the number of emigrants embarking in that city. From January to September 1921 the total number of emigrants was 28,737. Of these 25,422 were natives of Poland, 1,443 of Lithuania, 495 of Russia, 447 of Latvia, 372 of Ukraine, 222 of Roumania, 210 of America, 84 of the Free City of Danzig, 35 of Germany, 6 of Iceland, and 1 of Finland; 14,446 were women and 5,950 men, while a classification by religions gives 21,268 Jews and 4,463 Christians.

The most usual method of booking was the prepaid ticket, i. e. a ticket bought in advance in the country of immigration and sent back by a relative or friend. In the period under consideration there were 18,272 of these tickets; tickets bought on the spot were 3,041, and tickets bought in advance 5,097, in number.

A great increase in emigration through the port of Danzig is expected to be the result of the grant of transport concessions by the Polish Government to those companies which undertake to convey their passengers through Danzig. It is also expected that a number of Russian emigrants will make use of this port. It may be added that the movement of emigration toward South America has been increasing, and that a Commission of inquiry and investigation is now in South America to report on the possibilities of emigration to those regions.

JEWISH EMIGRATION

Jewish Emigration Conference

On September 25-27 last a conference on Jewish emigration was held in Prague; the promoters were the executive committee of the Jewish World Relief Conference and the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society. Most of the organisations invited sent representatives.

The agenda included: (a) political and social welfare work on behalf of Jewish emigrants; (b) communications with relatives and money remittances; (c) establishment of a financial clearing house for Jewish emigration; (d) employment for emigrants. Four resolutions were passed. The first empowered the central executive organ to enter into communication with all other Jewish organisations engaged in emigration work.

Secondly, the conference decided to organise a Central Jewish Bank, to carry on business connected with remittances, exchange, ship-bookings, loan and savings operations, the profits to be used for the support of relief organisations engaged in emigration work. Principles were formulated to govern operations undertaken by the Central Bank as follows: (a) existing co-operative credit institutions to be made use of; (b) general banking business to be carried on with the consent of the relief institutions acting as founders; (c) the bank to be established in the form of a limited liability company, with special privileges attaching to founders' shares; (d) a head office to be established in London, with branches in any country or place as required by the business of the bank; (e) the share capital to be unlimited; (f) savings banks to be established in the United States, Canada and Argentine; (g) banking operations to begin without delay; (h) shares to be taken up by organisations acting as founders.

The third resolution aims at aiding Jewish migration by recommend-

ing all organisations working among emigrants and refugees to form agricultural groups and establish vocational training courses and information offices. In all countries where a considerable volume of immigration is to be expected, employment offices should be organised, which should work in full agreement with the local trade unions.

The fourth resolution states that the executive shall appeal to all Jewish political, communal, and relief organisations and co-operate with these in undertaking necessary action before the League of Nations, with a view to creating for the Jews an opportunity to emigrate into countries which can accommodate immigrants.

A report was submitted to the Conference with reference to a Decree of the Roumanian Government on the expulsion of Ukrainian refugees from Bessarabia. It is estimated that 31,000 persons will be affected by this Decree, of which number 21,000 will be compelled to apply for public assistance to supply as much as one-half of their wants. Considerable difficulties are expected in settling the refugees in new and strange surroundings, in localities where there are few Jews and very little communal life, and where the shortage of housing accommodation is very great.

Work is also being done on behalf of refugees from other places in eastern Europe. On 28 October a hundred Ukrainian orphans arrived in Paris en route for the Argentine. These children are going at the expense of the Buenos Aires Relief Committee, and they will be adopted by a number of families in the Argentine.

Protection of Russian Jewish Emigrants in Lithuania

An agreement was signed on 14 November 1921 between the Lithuanian Government and the Executive Committee of the World Jewish Conference, dealing with the passage through Lithuania to other countries of Jewish emigrants from Soviet Russia and Ukraine. The terms of the agreement are reproduced below :

(a) Emigrants must be provided with an authorisation of leave from the Russian and the Ukrainian Governments.

(b) The Executive Committee undertakes to provide the necessary institutions for relief work and for medical and sanitary inspection at points of transit along the frontier. Transit shall begin as soon as these institutions are established.

(c) The Executive Committee undertakes to build lodging accommodation for emigrants at localities indicated by the Lithuanian Government; also to contribute to the maintenance of emigrants while in Lithuania and to supervise their departure.

(d) The lists of emigrants whom it is proposed to admit must be submitted to the Lithuanian Government for communication to representatives in Soviet Russia and the Ukraine, together with instructions to provide emigrants with the required visas. Instructions shall also be issued to officials at the frontier stations freely to admit into the country the persons named on these lists. The number of migrants who at any one time may be accommodated in Lithuania shall be limited to 2,000.

(e) Inspection methods at frontier stations are to be the same as adopted at stations where inspection of repatriated Lithuanian nationals is carried on.

(f) Authorisations for departure shall be issued by the Lithuanian authorities to correspond with the passport visas granted by foreign consulates. Emigrants shall be accompanied to the frontier.

(g) The Executive Committee shall reimburse the Lithuanian State the expenses occasioned by the transport of emigrants.

(h) The Lithuanian Government reserves the right to stop the transit of emigrants temporarily or wholly as necessity or reasons of state may determine.

(i) The buildings required to carry out the terms of the agreement shall be constructed under the supervision of the National Jewish Council of Lithuania.

RUSSIAN REFUGEES

There are about 15,000 Russian refugees at present in Constantinople, absolutely without resources ; in fact, cases of death from starvation are not infrequent. Dr. Nansen, High Commissioner of the League of Nations for Russian Refugees, considers that the only real solution of the problem presented by these refugees, as by refugees, in general, is to find productive employment for them in countries where they will not become a charge on public charity. With this in view he has been attempting to persuade countries with suitable opportunities to receive Russian refugees. The Government of Czecho-Slovakia has agreed to admit 6,000 and the Bulgarian Government is prepared to receive and maintain children. Arrangements for the execution of these plans are well advanced, and a certain number of refugees have already been conveyed to Czecho-Slovakia. Great difficulties are presented by the organisation of transport, the issue of visas by the countries through which the refugees have to pass, and, in general, by the obtaining of the necessary facilities for the execution of the scheme.

At Dr. Nansen's request, a letter has been forwarded by the International Labour Office to the Governments of states which appear most likely to be interested in the problem of the Russian refugees. The object of this letter was to obtain information regarding opportunities for work for refugees and the possibilities of finding employment for them (9).

EMIGRATION WORK OF THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION AND THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

A report (10) was presented to the World's Committee of the Young Men's Christian Association in June last. A number of recommendations were made for the expansion of Y. M. C. A. emigration work. The budget for emigration work in Europe makes provision for one field secretary and eight secretaries at the most important embarkation ports, and amounts to \$25,000.

A number of recommendations are made for the expansion of Y. M. C. A. emigration work.

Inland Countries. While care must be taken not to stimulate emigration, emigrants need assistance in settling their affairs wisely, making adequate preparations for their journey, purchasing proper tickets, etc., and they ought in addition to be thoroughly informed regarding immigration laws of countries of destination.

(9) International Labour Office : *Official Bulletin*, Vol. IV, No 16, 19 Oct. 1921, pp. 341-342.

(10) World's Committee of Y. M. C. A.'s. : *The Sphere*, 3rd quarter, 1921, pp. 221 sqq. Geneva.

Frontier Towns. The importance of these is decreasing, as the stream of returning emigrants grows less.

Ports of Embarkation. Emigrants may be helped in cases of personal difficulty and illness, by giving cards of introduction to Associations in cities of destination, distributing helpful pamphlets in various languages, co-operating with officials in giving counsel to those who are rejected. Where emigrants are confined in hotels for some days before embarkation, it is possible to provide classes in English or other languages, entertainments, lectures on dangers of exploitation, hints on life aboard ship, the country of destination, etc.

On Shipboard. Two shipping companies have already granted permission for secretaries to make a number of trips with emigrants, and in this way there is a chance to promote lectures, entertainments, etc., to provide a lending library, to give information about the country of destination, to arrange language classes, and so on.

Ports of Entry. Reference is made to the guide and transfer service at Ellis Island, by means of which emigrants are taken safely to destination in New York City, and it is suggested that their service should be extended to other ports.

Railway Trains and Stations. Service similar to that rendered to troops during the war is recommended for emigrants.

Final Destination. Assistance is needed by immigrants in finding employment, learning the new language, and in other ways.

The Young Women's Christian Association also issued a report⁽¹¹⁾ on migration work on June 30 last, as the result of six months' research into the question. The report states that a Research and Information Bureau was established in London in 1921 and that special migration secretaries had been appointed in Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia, France, and the United States. The object of this activity is threefold : firstly, educational, to make clear the disastrous results of selling property and breaking home ties before the emigrant has any reasonable assurance that he is admissible in the receiving country ; secondly, to give assistance in making the necessary preparations for the journey, such as obtaining passports and visas, booking passages, etc. ; thirdly, to give miscellaneous help and information, such as finding hotel accommodation, looking after young girls and children travelling alone, giving medical care, advice in case of rejection and deportation.

The Executive Committee of the World's Y. W. C. A. has adopted resolutions stating that the Migration Committee must keep in touch with all other organisations interested in migrants, in order to promote a co-operative service programme in all countries, and with a view to the possible formation of an International Migration Service Bureau, and, further, to the effect that the needs of the migrant must be the essential consideration, and that the work must be free from all religious or political propaganda.

The following points are also emphasised in the report. It is suggested that an emigrant's eligibility to enter a receiving country should be tested at some point near his home ; further, that some means should be taken to relieve congestion at gathering points, arising out of the necessity of making personal applications for passports and visas, purchasing passages, and buying foreign money, etc. ; that the difficulties of railway transit, partly due to the fact that

⁽¹¹⁾ World's Young Women's Christian Association : *The Welfare of Migrants*.

emigrant trains travel very slowly, and formalities at frontier stations should be made less burdensome, and that emigrants should receive better handling at ports.

The suggestions made to remedy these defects may be summarised as follows. (a) Emigrants should be encouraged to travel only in groups on special international trains, running directly from gathering points to ports. The time-table should be that of an express train; passport and luggage inspection and medical examination should be done at the commencement of the journey. (b) A superior equipment of trains should be required. (c) Halts should be made at certain hours each day during the train journey. (d) Provision should be made at railway stations for migrant passengers. (e) Proposals are made regarding facilities at ports of embarkation and methods of treating migrants in transit, and minimum standards for steerage accommodations are defined.

Finally, a series of direct recommendations are made. A strict medical examination, and (where necessary, i. e. for countries requiring the literacy test for immigrants) an educational test should be given before a passport is issued; in any case, passports should not be issued before full information has been offered to the migrant; further, the question of medical inspection should be dealt with by international agreement, and all possible measures should be taken to prevent disease from developing during the journey; in cases of deportation arrangements should be made with a recognised voluntary association concerned with the welfare of migrants. Another and important recommendation is that the International Labour Office should establish a permanent Commission to visit ports, frontier stations, railway junctions, and interior gathering points, with a view to constructive suggestions, and that it should also establish a Department of Method to supply record forms (for statistics), educational material, and instructions about equipment. There should be co-operation between government offices and voluntary organisations, and women representatives should take part in all future conferences.

EMIGRATION OF INDIAN SUBJECTS

French Colonies. On 1 July 1921, the British Government denounced the Franco-British Convention signed in Paris on 1 July 1861 relative to the emigration of labourers from India to the French Colonies. This action on the part of the British Government abolishes the whole system of indentured emigration, whether to British or foreign colonies. At the same time it recognises the actual situation which has arisen. During recent years such emigration has been suspended owing to the fact that the Government of India had received repeated complaints of the inadequate precautions taken for the proper treatment and repatriation of the emigrants. The Convention of 1861, which applied to the French colonies of Reunion, Martinique, Guadeloupe and its dependencies, and Guiana, legalised indentured emigration to those places. Prior to that time emigration from the Coromandel coast, which increased as a result of the emancipation of the slaves in the French colonies in the middle of the nineteenth century, gave rise to the practice of kidnapping and decoying British subjects and led to preventive legislation in India. From that date negotiations proceeded with the French Government and terminated in the Convention of 1861. As a result of the denouncing of this Convention, it is proposed to pass a Bill under which the emigration

of unskilled workers will be prohibited except under such conditions as may be approved by resolution of the Indian Legislature in the case of any specified country.

British Guiana. The Government of India has despatched a deputation to British Guiana to investigate local conditions, to examine on the spot the suitability of the colonisation scheme prepared by the representatives of that colony, and to report whether any further guarantees as to the status of Indian immigrants are necessary before emigration is re-opened.

The steps which have led up to this decision are as follows :

As a result of representations from the Government of India, an inter-Departmental conference was held in London in May 1917, at which a scheme of assisted emigration to British Guiana, Trinidad, Jamaica, and Fiji was drawn up. Towards the end of 1919 a deputation arrived in India from British Guiana to lay before the Indian Government a scheme based on the proposals of the conference. Suitable families of agricultural settlers are to be given free passages from India to British Guiana. No recruiters are to be employed, and no contracts are to be allowed. Provision is made for temporary hospitality on arrival. The settlers will then have the choice of taking land of their own, or of accepting employment at local rates of pay, which will be guaranteed by the Guianese Government. The Indian Government is asked to appoint its own official (the expense to be borne by British Guiana) to watch the interests of the settlers. Any individual or family will be repatriated free of charge if this official demands it ; if he does not and the individual claims repatriation on his own account, this will be undertaken at a percentage of the estimated cost, proportional to the length of residence in the colony. Facilities will also be given for a certain number of non-agricultural settlers (medical men, engineers, clerks, schoolmasters). In order to make sure that the position of the immigrants will be in all respects equal to that of any other class of British subjects resident in the Colony, a Declaratory Ordinance could be passed giving assurance to that effect.

This scheme was examined by a committee appointed by the Indian Legislative Council under the chairmanship of the Hon. Sir Surendranats Banerjea. The Committee was inclined to report favourably on it in view of the guarantees and safeguards which British Guiana is prepared to provide by legislation and otherwise ; but before recommending a definite acceptance it advised the appointment of a deputation to proceed to British Guiana and to investigate conditions on the spot.

An enquiry was then sent by the Indian Government to the British Government relative to the guarantees, and the Secretary of State for India replied that the Colonial Government was willing to undertake legislation assuring to Indian immigrants into the colony equal political rights, and that the necessary steps were being taken. The Indian Government thereupon decided upon the despatch of the deputation to Guiana mentioned above.

CANADA AND THE DECISIONS OF THE IMPERIAL CONFERENCE (12)

Mr. W. J. Black, Deputy Minister of Immigration and Colonisation in Canada, made a tour of Great Britain and the Continent towards

(12) *Manchester Guardian*, 26 November 1921.

the end of last year, and before returning to Canada made public some details of the way in which Canada hopes to assist in the scheme outlined by the Conference of Prime Ministers and representatives of Great Britain and the Dominions held in the summer in London (13).

Through the medium of the Canadian Soldiers' Settlement Board, of which Mr. Black was chairman, 26,000 members of the Canadian army were settled on the land and 87 million dollars were advanced to them on loan for the purpose of establishing them in the farming industry. This has been so successful that it is desired to extend the scheme to other than ex-Service men.

Mr. Black has said :

"First of all, we shall make a selection of individuals who, we consider, will be able to make a success of farming in Canada, and they will be registered with us. For the present it is proposed to confine the scheme to Britishers. You see, we want more of our own flesh and blood in Canada. We shall take such measures as will adequately protect such settlers in the way of seeing that they are not allowed to settle on inferior land ; that they do not pay more for the land than it is worth for farming purposes ; and they will also be similarly protected in their purchase of live-stock and machinery. We also propose to make such arrangements with manufacturers as will give the settlers the advantage of a substantial discount rendered possible by collective purchasing. Then, we propose to give settlers the benefit of the advice of trained supervisors in agriculture or expert farm managers, to see that they are given every opportunity of becoming well established. In other words, we are going to walk by the side of the settlers until they are able to walk for themselves".



(13) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. 5, No. 1, Jan. 1922, pp. 119-121. *Notes on Migration*.

LABOUR CONDITIONS

Hours of Labour in the Mercantile Marine

Until comparatively recently hours of labour on board ship were governed solely by the customs which ruled amongst the seafarers of all maritime nations. Sweden was the first country which attempted by legislation, enacted in 1891, to fix working hours in the shipping industry. In 1902 a law was put into operation in Germany, and in 1903 Norway regulated hours by statute. Action was taken in Australia in 1911 to limit hours of duty, resulting in a legal limitation being obtained by award under the Industrial Arbitration Act in 1912. In 1914 an Agreement registered under the Industrial Conciliation Act 1908 was arrived at in New Zealand, limiting hours on ships owned by certain specified shipping companies. The working day was also controlled in the United States by the Navigation Laws of 4 March 1915 and 11 May 1918. A further Act was passed by Norway on 11 July 1919. This was followed by legislation adopted by France on 2 August 1919 (1). In Portugal a statutory provision came into force on 23 September 1919, limited to a period of six months from that date. By Royal Decree promulgated in Spain on 10 October 1919 (2) the hours of work were fixed within certain limits. Another Act was passed by Sweden on 24 October 1919 (3), which is to expire on 31 December 1923.

No real difficulty has presented itself in regulating and even in reducing, either by agreement between employers' and workers' organisations or by legislation, the working hours of seafarers when ships are not at sea. It is in regard to the special conditions prevailing when ships are actually at sea that difficult problems arise in dealing with the limitation of the working day, as was indicated when the subject was dealt with at the International Labour Conference held at Genoa in June and July 1920. The watches on deck and in the engine-room can never be suspended under sea-going conditions. There can be no cessation of work on Sunday and on holidays. If an emergency arises the watches not on duty can be required to work, although in general all labour over and above the normal working hours is compensated either by extra pay or by an equivalent rest period, except in cases of *force majeure*. In these and other respects work at sea is essentially different in character from work in port. It should, however, be observed that on home trade and coasting ships making voyages of short duration it is possible to regulate hours so as to render working conditions less onerous than in the case of foreign-going vessels.

Not only do the requirements of work on board ship differ when at

(1) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1920. Fr. 5.

(2) *Ibid.* Sp. 2.

(3) *Ibid.* Swe. 1.

sea from those in port or upon entering and leaving port, but also as between the various departments of the boat in connection with which work is being performed. The crew of a ship is naturally divided into three functional departments: (a) deck department; (b) engine-room and stokehold department; (c) catering department.

The following table gives in a concise form the actual facts as to hours of work as prescribed in the laws, regulations, or collective agreements in force in the principal maritime countries.

HOURS OF LABOUR AT SEA, IN PORT, AND ON ENTERING AND LEAVING PORT,
IN THE MERCANTILE MARINE OF CERTAIN COUNTRIES, 1921.

Countries	At sea			In port			Entering and leaving port		
	Deck	En- gine room	Cater- ing dept.	Deck	En- gine room	Cater- ing dept.	Deck	En- gine room	Cater- ing dept.
	Per week			Per week			Per day		
Belgium	84	56	70	46	46	46	12	12	12
France	56	56	56	48	48	48	8	8	8
Germany	84	56	70 to 84	48 to 60	48 to 60	60	10	10	10 to 12
Great Britain	84	56	70 to 84	45	45	46	12	9	12
Italy	84	56	70	48	48	48 to 60	(1)	(1)	(1)
Netherlands	84	56	84	45	45	45	12	8	12
Norway	84	56	70 to 84	48	48	60 to 72	11	8	10 to 12
Sweden	84	56	70 to 84	48	48	60 to 72	(2)	(2)	(2)
United States	84	56	70	54	54	54	(3)	(3)	10

(1) No limitation; work is carried on for as many hours as required.

(2) Hours range from 16 to 24 within a period of two consecutive days.

(3) Ordinary watch and watch system to be maintained.

HOURS OF WORK AT SEA

Deck and Engine-Room Departments

Where legislation does not exist controlling hours of work on deck, the custom and practice generally obtaining at sea is to divide the deck staff into two watches, such watches being on and off duty alternately every four hours. Under this system the period worked is 12 hours in every 24, and 84 per week, when a ship is at sea for 7 days or longer. The countries in which this practice prevails are Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Greece, Japan, Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. In some of these countries, on large ships, the three watch system is in force for officers. In Italy, under an agreement made between the employers' and the workers' organisations in 1920, although the 12-hour day is in force for the deck hands, for the officers service is limited to 8 hours per day. The agreement provides, in addition, that at the end of each voyage, on arrival in the fitting-out port or in the port of final destination in Italy, all members of the crew, without distinction of grade or class, shall be granted holidays for as many working days as the Sundays and feast days which they have given in service at sea.

In the undermentioned countries hours of duty are limited by statutory authority to 12 hours per day : Germany, Norway, Spain, and Sweden. In certain circumstances, however, deck work on German vessels is arranged in three watches of 8 hours each. The German regulation of 23 October 1919 is as follows :

In principle, the service of deck hands and the engine-room staff is performed in watches which are arranged in three relays so far as accommodation on board will allow. A special joint committee, with the assistance of the German Lloyd and the Seamen's Association, shall decide up to what point the application of the three watch system is possible on vessels of small dimensions, except in the case of new vessels. When the three watch system is not applicable for technical reasons no increase of pay can be demanded on that ground.

The legislation of the United States provides that the work of sailors at sea shall be divided into at least two watches. During the war, however, collective agreements made between the shipowners and the seamen, under the auspices of the United States Shipping Board, established an 8-hour day. These requirements were incorporated in the Orders of the Shipping Board affecting the operating personnel of vessels and were in effect until 30 April 1921. Differences between the owners and the seamen's organisations have put an end to practically all collective bargaining in American shipping, and at the present time seamen are being taken on American vessels under individual contracts. The marine engineers, however, secured a six months' agreement with the shipping interests, accepting a 15 per cent. cut in wages, and agreed substantially to the other conditions laid down by the Shipping Board and private owners.

The principle of the 8-hour day, or the 48-hour week at sea, or an equivalent limitation for a period other than the week, has been legally adopted by Australia, France, Portugal, and New Zealand. In effect this results in 56 hours per week when the ship is at sea for seven days or longer. By the Act of 2 August 1919 France established the 8-hour day or the 48-hour week at sea. Since the French Act together with the Order of 24 February 1920 containing detailed requirements for the enforcing of the Act comprise the most precise and practical regulations governing the application of the 8-hour day or the 48-hour week, some of the principal provisions are reproduced below (4).

In shipping undertakings of all kinds, whether public or private, even when carried on for purposes of technical instruction or for philanthropic purposes, the actual duration of work of persons of both sexes and of all ages employed on board a vessel shall not exceed eight hours a day, or forty-eight hours a week, or some other equivalent limit based on a period other than a week.

The period within which and the conditions under which the foregoing paragraph is to become operative shall be fixed by public administrative regulations for each class of shipping and for each type of employee therein. When any such regulation is not applicable in all waters, it shall contain a specific statement of the maritime districts to which it applies.

The aforesaid regulations shall be issued by the Government either on its own initiative or at the request of one or more of the national or local organisations of shipowners or seamen concerned. In either case the shipowners' and seamen's organisations shall be consulted, and shall state their views within a month of such consultation.

(4) For the full text of the Act see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, Fr. 5.

The same procedure shall be observed in revising the aforesaid regulations. Reference shall be made in the regulations to agreements between the national or local organisations of employers and workers concerned, where such exist.

The revision of a regulation shall be compulsory when the time-limits for action and the conditions laid down therein are not in accordance with the terms of international Conventions on this subject.

The afore said public administrative regulations shall fix in particular:—

(1) The distribution of the forty-eight weekly working hours in such a way as to allow of a Saturday afternoon's rest, or some other equivalent arrangement ;

(2) The distribution of working hours on the basis of some period other than a week ;

(3) The time-limits within which the actual duration of work in the branch of the shipping trade or for the type of employee concerned shall be brought by successive steps into conformity with the limits fixed in § 1 ;

(4) The permanent exemptions which may be granted in respect of preparatory or auxiliary work which must be carried on outside the limits fixed for general work on board ship, or by certain types of shipping employees whose work is by nature intermittent ;

(5) The temporary exemptions which may be granted to undertakings to enable them to deal with any exceptional press of work, with requirements in the interest of public welfare, or with actual or impending accidents ;

(6) The methods of regulating hours of work and rest periods and the duration of work, as well as the procedure for granting and for making use of exemptions.

The reduction of working hours shall not in any case be a valid ground for the reduction of wages.

In other countries, legal effect has not been given to the three watch system, but it has long been established either by agreement or by custom for the engine-room and stokehold crews. In Denmark and Italy, for example, agreements entered into between associations of shipowners and seamen limit the hours to 8 per day. The Italian agreement previously referred to, regarding holidays for the deck staff, is applicable to the engine-room department. In Norway, it is especially provided that the hours of duty for the engine-room staff shall be divided into three watches during the 24 hours to such an extent as the number within each group of this staff permits. An 8-hour day for the engine-room staff is prescribed in the Netherlands by collective agreements, began to be applied in Greece twelve years ago, and in Belgium is the result either of agreement or of custom. In Great Britain hours of work for the engine-room staff are not determined either by law or by collective agreements, but the three watch system has long been in operation.

Catering Department

The catering department (general service) presents the greatest difficulty in regulating working hours. The necessities of the service, which vary on different ships and even according to the seasons on the same ship and the same route, render it practically impossible to establish watches or fixed times of work, as in the case of the deck and engine-room departments. The work is normally day duty, except for night watch service on passenger ships.

On ships carrying no passengers it is possible to limit the working hours, but on passenger ships difficulties are encountered, as attention must necessarily be given at all times to the requirements of the passengers. The service, being intermittent, affords intervals of rest which naturally vary in duration according to circumstances.

Legislation dealing with the subject is so drafted as to take into account and to endeavour to overcome all these difficulties. According to the French law every hour of work required above the normal 8 hours per day, which it is not possible to compensate either during the voyage, in port, or at the end of the voyage by an effective corresponding rest period, must be remunerated by a supplementary allowance, the amount of which is regulated by contract. On Swedish vessels the maximum number of hours permitted is 12 per day. The staff of the catering department on Norwegian vessels may not be employed after 8 p. m., but this provision does not apply to passenger ships. The average number of hours of labour on the ships belonging to the Netherlands, which have not adopted legislation on the subject, is 12 per day. In the case of Belgium, Denmark, and the United States, the agreements entered into fix a maximum of 10 hours per day, to be exceeded if the exigencies of the service compel an exception to the regulations. The Italian agreement provides that while at sea or in harbour, when sea and passenger service continues, hours of work for the cabin and kitchen hands shall be arranged according to the exigencies of the service, but the hours of work shall not exceed 10, the time-table being fixed for each voyage. In addition the staff is granted holidays at the end of each voyage, equal to the Sundays and feast days given in service at sea.

WORK IN PORT

Deck and Engine-Room Departments

The same regulations as respects hours of work in port are applicable for both deck crews and the engine-room and stokehold department. In some countries regulation is by law, and in other countries by agreement or custom. It is possible to control hours of labour in port much more strictly than hours of labour at sea. Normal working hours in port in most maritime countries do not exceed 8 per day (in the tropics usually 7 hours per day and 42 per week). Thus, in Italy, the agreement arrived at between the shipowners and the seafarers' organisations states that normal working hours in ports and roadsteads, when sea-service is not in force, shall be 8 per day for the whole crew.

In Germany, however, according to Section 357 of the Act of 2 June 1902, it is provided that if the vessel is in port or in a roadstead, seamen shall not be required to work more than 10 hours a day, except in cases of urgency, and that in tropical countries that period shall be reduced to 8 hours. By a regulation of 23 October 1919 the time is fixed, under certain conditions, for the deck hands and engine-room staff at 8 hours per day. The Navigation Laws of the United States provide that, when a vessel is in a safe harbour, 9 hours, inclusive of the anchor watch, shall constitute a day's work.

In the case of certain countries the working week is less than 48 hours and definite limits are laid down within which work is to take place. In Belgium, for example, the working week for the whole of the staff is 48 hours, i. e. 8 hours a day from Monday to Friday and 6 hours on Saturday. In the Netherlands hours of work in port are regulated by agreements which apply only to foreign-going steamers. Seamen work 8 hours a day from Monday to Friday and 5 hours on Saturday.

In Great Britain the National Maritime Board, which is the joint council of the shipowners' and seafarers' organisations, has made rules, applying to navigating and engineer officers and to sailors, firemen and

trimmers employed on foreign-going vessels, fixing the ordinary hours of duty in port, when watches are suspended, from Monday to Friday inclusive, at 8 hours between 6 a. m. and 6 p. m. ; and on Saturday, 5 hours between 6 a. m. and 1 p. m. exclusive of meal times. In the case of vessels engaged in the home trade, sailors and firemen are required to work 6 hours on Saturday between 6 a. m. and 1 p. m.

Under the French Act a weekly rest day is applicable when vessels are in port. By Chapter I, Section I, of the Act of August 1919, the rules for duty when in port apply whenever the ship stays more than 24 hours in a sheltered roadstead or a port of call, and in all cases when it spends the night or part of the night at the port of registry, home port, or ordinary discharge port.

Catering Department

While the deck and engine-room staff have different hours of labour at sea, in port, upon arrival in and departure from port, and even in the various trades, the working hours of the catering staff are essentially the same wherever the ship may be. Work must be continued in port on Sunday, on holidays, and after mid-day on Saturday, although it is limited to what is absolutely necessary in preparing food and attending persons on board. All legislation and agreements dealing with the question aim at limiting hours to 48 per week, work beyond that period usually being compensated either by extra pay or by an equivalent rest, as provided by the French Act. In the case of Belgium and Great Britain the agreements entered into restrict the hours to 46 per week, while the Netherlands agreement limits the period to 45 hours per week. The Italian agreement states that while in harbour the hours of work shall not exceed 8 per day, unless sea service is in force, in which case the hours must not exceed 10 per day. By Norwegian law the general hours of labour must not be extended beyond what is required for preparing and serving food. Swedish law provides that a seaman belonging to the kitchen staff shall not, on weekdays, be employed more than 12 hours per day.

HOURS OF WORK UPON ARRIVAL IN AND DEPARTURE FROM PORT

Deck Department

At times of leaving and reaching port, work is generally prolonged beyond the normal working hours at sea and in port, all the deck staff being as a rule required, at the discretion of the master, to be on duty. If, however, the ship remains in port less than 24 hours, it is customary to continue the usual watches.

Limits are set to the number of hours of duty on arrival in, and departure from, port by regulations contained in legislation or agreements. The following are extracts from regulations in force.

GREAT BRITAIN

(In the case of foreign-going vessels) on the day of arrival no overtime is payable to the navigating officers until the expiry of 2 hours after the master has finished with the engines, or 10 hours (inclusive of meal times) previously worked, whichever be the longer period.

On the day of departure no overtime is payable to the navigating officers for the ordinary duties of preparing for sea within 12 hours of departure. Overtime is paid to other grades for work done in excess of 12 hours.

In the case of home trade vessels, if between midnight and midnight such ratings are required to work more than 9 hours, exclusive of 2 hours for meals, but including time spent on sea-watch, overtime is payable for extra hours worked.

ITALY

All deck hands shall, at the discretion of the master, take up posts for working the vessel and remain there until it is anchored and set in order. On arrival in port, after the vessel is moored, the deck hands on duty shall finish their watch and shall then be entitled to four hours' rest.

NORWAY

On the day of entering or leaving port the total number of hours on duty at sea and in port may not exceed 11 for deck hands.

SWEDEN

If the number of officers is at least three, the working hours of each may not exceed 18 for each period of two consecutive days.

The sailors may be required to work 16 hours for each period of two consecutive days for certain ratings, and 24 hours for others.

UNITED STATES

For officers watch and watch is maintained on sailing day and at all outside ports and ports of call. No officer is required or permitted to take charge of a watch upon leaving or immediately after leaving port unless he has had at least 6 hours off duty within the 12 hours immediately preceding the time of sailing.

Engine-Room Department

It is customary to maintain the usual watches in the engine-room on leaving and reaching port if the vessel remains less than 24 hours. In cases where the vessel remains longer than this, special regulations are in force controlling the period of work. The following extracts from these regulations define the position in certain important maritime countries.

GREAT BRITAIN

(In the case of foreign-going vessels) on the day of arrival no overtime is payable to engineer officers until the expiry of 2 hours after the master has finished with the engines, or 10 hours (inclusive of meal times) previously worked, whichever be the longer period. On the day of departure no overtime is payable for the ordinary duties of raising steam and testing the main engines and necessary auxiliaries within 12 hours of departure. Overtime is paid to other grades for work done in excess of 9 hours.

In the case of home trade vessels, if between midnight and midnight such ratings are required to work more than 9 hours, exclusive of 2 hours for meals, but including time spent on sea-watch, overtime is payable for extra hours worked.

NORWAY

On the day of entering or leaving port the total number of hours worked at sea and in port may not exceed 8 hours in 24. On vessels where,

owing to the shortness of the voyage, working hours are not divided in the usual way (coasting trade) the total number of hours worked at sea and in port may not exceed 11 hours in 24.

SWEDEN AND THE UNITED STATES

In the case of Sweden and the United States, the regulations quoted above (pp. 326, 327) apply also to the engine-room and stokehold departments.

Catering Department

Since the catering service must continue wherever the ship may be, the usual routine is maintained in the catering department on leaving or reaching port.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Notes on Industrial Hygiene

FUNCTIONS OF THE WORKS DOCTOR

Of all the special branches of medicine, that of industrial medicine has perhaps been the most misunderstood, according to an article in the *Journal of Industrial Hygiene* (1). Unfortunately, the term "industrial physician" or works doctor has been erroneously attributed to general practitioners who spend part of their time in treating sickness and injury among persons employed in factories. The true interpretation of the title, however, refers to a specialist who should not be confused with a doctor who puts in an appearance at the factory for an hour or so to dress minor injuries or who is called in when a worker suddenly falls ill or is injured. On the contrary, he is a trained specialist in industrial hygiene and occupational diseases and no more engages in the general practice of medicine or surgery than specialists in other branches of the profession. In spite of attempts to merge this branch of medicine with preventive or social medicine, the field of industrial hygiene and sanitation is of sufficiently wide scope to constitute in itself a special branch.

There is little opportunity for the works doctor to prepare for his specialised work and he must of necessity accumulate his knowledge from promiscuous sources. A few medical schools are now recognising the need of special training for this work, but much still remains to be done.

One of the first questions to be determined is the exact functions of the works doctor in industry. His task is by no means easy. He acts, as it were, as liaison officer between the management and the employees. His duties to the management are to increase the output of the workers, to prevent waste, to minimise labour turnover, and to interpret the workers' ideas to the management, pointing out causes of dissatisfaction and suggesting remedies for them. His duty to the workers is to safeguard their health, their personal hygiene, and contentment. He should supervise the maintenance of cleanliness and order, try to lessen the danger of accident and illness, protect the workers against dust, industrial poisons, defective ventilation and lighting, over-work, draughts, excessive temperature, and the danger of fire. He should be an adviser to the workers in choosing a trade suited to their individual physical abilities. In making the initial physical examination of new workers, he should be guided as much by their mental as their physical abilities, and should advise the management so that they may be put to the tasks for which they are most suited. He should also act as interpreter of the ideas of the management to the workers. It is therefore clear that the works doctor must be impartial, tactful, and sympathetic.

(1) William J. McCONNELL : *The Industrial Physician and the Qualifications essential to his Success*, in the *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, Vol. III, No. 4, Aug. 1921, pp. 130-134. Boston, Mass.

The value of a works doctor to any factory may be estimated by his knowledge of the varying needs and conditions of the establishment. He should be entirely familiar with the raw materials, the products or by-products and the methods in use, as well as the hazards involved. Certain of the more important industrial hazards with which the factory doctor should concern himself may here be summarised. There is first the question of ventilation. In the larger establishments the ventilation system is installed by an engineer, but the supervision of its maintenance and even sometimes of its installation falls on the works doctor. The most important factors in ventilation are temperature, humidity, and air movement. It is essential that the doctor should be acquainted with methods of eliminating dust and fumes, since the air in factories is too often vitiated by impurities and gases of all kinds.

The question of lighting is no less important. Suitable lighting of the working areas is an essential factor in the quantity and quality of the workers' output. The doctor should therefore be familiar with the unit of measurement for general lighting. He should also know the number of units necessary for the performance of different kinds of work, and see that the lighting system chosen (direct, indirect, or semi-indirect) is suited to the work to be done. Accumulations of dust, broken reflectors, and similar minor disorders which diminish the total illumination should have his attention. Other matters with which the works doctor should concern himself are rest periods, general welfare, and cleanliness in the workshops. He should have a certain knowledge of chemistry, especially of the different products handled in the factory, which may have very varied and complex effects.

The works doctor may have a large share in mitigating industrial unrest, which is largely the reaction to unfavourable environment. Insanitary labour conditions decrease physical resistance. Monotonous work, dissatisfaction, and long hours aggravate physical defects, which are sooner acquired when resistance is lowered. The worker who has lost his former strength and vigour is driven to accept lower wages, and poverty with its many evils is the result. Decreased output is a danger signal of diminished physical energy, and the desire to work cannot exist without good health. A healthy and contented body of workers is the most valuable asset that a management can have. These workers should be so protected and helped by the works doctor that the greatest possible benefits may accrue to both employer and worker.

COST AND ORGANISATION OF MEDICAL SERVICE

Medical service in industry is essentially a product of the last decade. Although some well organised and efficient medical departments were maintained in industry before this, the most substantial progress has been made since 1910. Formerly the doctor and his work were not recognised as essential parts of the administration of industrial establishments. Today, however, there are many medical departments conducted on sound business lines, and extending their operations as they prove their beneficial effect on output and the health of the workers.

Many employers appreciate the benefits to be derived from such service, but still feel that its cost would entail a heavier expense than they can afford. Several attempts have been made to find what industrial health service actually does cost. An investigation made in 1915 in the United States in 41 establishments employing 223,416 workers ascertained an average cost of only \$1.88 per head per year. Another investigation in 1916, covering 99 establishments with 495,544 employees,

showed that it cost on the average \$2.50 per year per head to supervise the health of the workers. Allowances for exceptional service having been made, this cost was reduced to \$ 2.21 per head. These studies, at any rate, showed that the cost of medical supervision of industrial workers has not hitherto proved excessive.

The National Industrial Conference Board of the United States has published a study of the general cost of medical service (2) in a large group of industries, based on records partly for 1919 and partly for 1920. The report is based on information drawn from 207 replies to a questionnaire submitted to manufacturing firms throughout the United States. The establishments reporting employed 764,827 workers, varying from 129 to 39,960 per establishment. Altogether 31 industries were represented. The earliest attempt at medical service among the firms reporting was made in 1897, but by far the largest number of them established such service in 1910 or later.

It was found that the cost of medical service per head had doubled since 1916, but this increase has not been out of proportion to increased costs in general, and with the increased cost has gone a much greater increase in the scope and efficiency of the service rendered. The work of the medical department now touches all departments of industry, and in some instances even reaches the homes of the workers. The average cost given in the analysis for all industries reporting was \$ 4.43 per employee per year. In some cases the cost was below this average, as in textile (\$ 3.59), soap (\$ 3.28), and tobacco manufacture (\$ 1.84). In several industries, however, the cost is considerably above the average. In mining it is reported as \$ 24.40, in foundry products as \$ 8.40, in the automobile industry as \$ 5.60, in rubber manufacture as \$ 5.41, and in shipbuilding as \$ 4.80. These higher costs are due largely to the dangerous nature of the processes involved, which require continuous medical attention to safeguard the health of the worker. The abnormally high cost in mining is explained by the fact that the mines reporting are in remote sections of the country, where the management supplies medical and surgical attention for the families of workers as well as for the workers themselves. Variations in cost between establishments of similar size in the same industry are almost as great as those between industries. It was found that 69.5 per cent. of the total cost of medical service on the average was devoted to medical salaries and wages. Table I shows that as the size of staff increases the annual cost of medical service per head tends to decrease.

TABLE I. ANNUAL COST OF MEDICAL SERVICE PER WORKER BY SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENTS

Size of establishment	"Estab." reporting	Number of workers	Total cost	Cost per head
Up to 500 employees	17	5,910	\$ 35,127	\$ 5.94
500- 1,000 »	35	25,936	160,497	6.18
1,000- 2,000 »	54	76,964	466,130	6.06
2,000- 5,000 »	59	179,193	969,733	5.41
5,000-10,000 »	23	149,947	615,124	4.10
10,000 and over »	19	326,877	1,140,425	3.49
Totals	207	764,827	3,387,036	4.43

(2) NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD : *Cost of Health Service in Industry*; Research Report No. 37. New York, published by the Board. May 1921.

Some interesting facts were elicited regarding the personnel of industrial medical departments. In 79 establishments full-time doctors were employed ; in 83 part-time doctors, while in 39 establishments medical service was given by doctors only when sent for. Six factories had no doctors connected with them and employed one or more trained nurses. The ratio of full-time doctors in establishments employing at least one such doctor was 1 to 3,083 workers ; in establishments employing from 2,000 to 5,000 workers the ratio was 1 to 3,086 ; in those with 5,000 to 10,000 it was 1 to 4,000 ; and in those with more than 10,000 employees it was 1 to 2,770 workers.

The composition of the personnel of medical departments as a whole is shown in the following table.

TABLE II. PERSONNEL OF MEDICAL DEPARTMENTS BY SIZE OF ESTABLISHMENTS

Size of establishment	Establishments reporting	Number of workers	Doctors	Dentists	Nurses	Trained assistants	Other employees
Less than 500 employees	17	5,910	25	2	5	5	12
500 - 1,000 "	35	25,936	37	5	34	14	7
1,000 - 2,000 "	54	76,964	98	5	96	53	33
2,000 - 5,000 "	59	179,193	109	7	144	42	102
5,000 - 10,000 "	23	149,947	90	5	97	16	50
Over 10,000 "	19	326,877	143	12	180	52	153
Totals	207	764,827	502	36	556	182	357

Eleven of the establishments reporting stated that they had factory hospitals. All but eight had dispensaries on the premises, and two of these eight were mining firms who sent all cases to the company's hospital. Less than a quarter of the dispensaries were reported to do other than minor surgical work. Cases involving major operations are relatively few in industry, and when they occur the injured persons can be sent to hospital.

The practice of keeping first-aid outfits in the workshops so that employees can be treated by fellow-workers is followed in less than half the number of firms reporting. Where the medical department is better organised, with a full-time doctor, such outfits are less frequently allowed than where the doctor is only on a part-time basis or on call. The work done annually by industrial medical departments is summarised in the following table.

TABLE III. ANNUAL WORK OF INDUSTRIAL MEDICAL DEPARTMENTS

Size of establishment	Establishments reporting	Number of workers	Injuries	Injuries per worker	Redressings	Redressings per injury	Medical cases	Medical cases per worker	Physical examinations
Less than 1,000 employees	52	34,846	406,776	3.35	449,977	1.42	79,578	2.50	43,793
1,000 - 2,000 "	54	76,964	444,986	4.49	478,900	1.55	244,204	2.74	45,692
2,000 - 5,000 "	59	179,193	236,978	1.32	439,697	1.84	340,887	1.89	97,784
5,000 - 10,000 "	23	149,947	241,381	1.40	464,529	2.19	494,092	1.29	94,795
Over 10,000 "	19	326,877	364,686	1.11	883,559	2.42	247,970	0.75	273,754
Totals	207	764,827	1,034,807	1.35	2,083,662	2.04	1,073,731	1.40	525,848

The medical department frequently works in close association with other branches of the establishment, as well as engaging in work outside the actual limits of the factory. Among such activities the most frequently mentioned are advice to workers on health and home sanitation, health education, supervision of food supply within the factory, participation in safety work, the checking of absenteeism, inauguration of campaigns against tuberculosis and venereal disease, and co-operation with local health offices in matters affecting the general health of the community. Visiting nurses attached to medical departments often take part in public health work. While their first duty is to see that sick or injured workers are receiving the best possible treatment at home, they also carry on educational work in personal and home hygiene, the care of infants, and pre-natal hygiene. They also investigate the need for financial assistance to workers and their families during sickness, and co-operate with the family doctor. Some members of medical departments were associated with the work of the workers' benefit associations, and a few firms stated that their medical departments dealt with health supervision in the schools or housing problems in their communities. Only 12 of the 207 firms, in fact, reported no activities in their medical department beyond the care of employees during working hours.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATIONS IN INDUSTRY

Much has been heard of the advantages of compulsory physical examination in industry, but very little of the objections to it which may be raised either by the employer or worker. The employer may object to the expense involved, while the worker, for more personal reasons, may be opposed to the compulsory nature of the examination. As was noted in a recent article (3), a worker will often object that he has lately been examined by a good doctor and has therefore no need of a further examination. It was pointed out that, although compulsory medical examination is on the whole desirable, some aspects of it are certainly open to criticism. An order issued in an industrial establishment that every man is to be physically examined before engagement is so general in scope that it may easily include certain undesirable features. Take a typical incident: a strong man, the picture of health, recently pronounced physically fit by an Army officer or a works doctor, applies for work. By the rule of the establishment he is obliged to submit to a complete medical inspection before he can be engaged. Under these circumstances the doctor starts with the assumption that the man is really fit and does not need a thorough examination. Hence the inspection is often superficial, which means a waste of time and money for the management. The applicant himself regards the examination as superfluous and annoying, which leads him to underrate the value of medical service in industry.

In order to preserve the desirable features of physical examination, its methods should be improved so to avoid its inconveniences as far as possible. In this connection the article quoted suggests that it is most desirable that establishments which require a medical examination should adopt the policy of giving the applicants a card stating their physical condition. Within a limited period this card, supplemented by an examination for acute diseases, would eliminate the necessity for

(3) Harry MYERS: *An Interchange of Physical Examinations in Industry*, in the *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, Vol. III, No. 4, Aug. 1921, pp. 135-136. Boston, Mass.

another complete physical examination. These cards could easily be standardised and interchanged between establishments with a good medical service. Such a system would eliminate the necessity for the inspection of normal cases not needing a complete physical examination, and thus would save the doctor a great deal of monotonous routine work. The individual worker would be more able to realise the value and importance of physical examinations if they were accompanied by a written certificate, and a written statement of a serious physical defect would impress itself upon him.

This suggestion on such an important subject is one on which the opinions of experts and of employer's and worker's organisations in the different countries would be of great value.

In a Note recently communicated to the Paris Academy of Medicine⁽⁴⁾ Dr. Renon recommends regular and systematic medical examination as the sole means of discovering a number of chronic ailments of a type which are at first slowly insidious and not obvious to the hygienist, so that they are often only diagnosed at a stage when therapeutic science can do nothing. Dr. Renon refers to the opinion of Mr. Baris, who as long ago as 1902 urged the usefulness of a periodical examination of all healthy or apparently healthy persons, and who pointed out that, though this principle might at first sight appear farfetched and Utopian, it had, as a matter of fact, already been put into practice. School medical certificates, the medical certificate book issued by certain railway companies, the medical examinations conducted by life insurance companies, are all a kind of introduction to regular, systematic medical inspection. Such inspection ought to include, between the dates of birth and death, examination of the blood, i. e. hematology, serum diagnosis, hemocultures, etc., reactions of the outer and the inner skins, the bacteriology of expectorations, the radioscapy of the lungs, the heart, the venous system, the urinary system, and the digestive tracts, urinalogy, and a full clinical examination covering the nervous system, the abdomen, the nose, the ears, and the eyes. As scientific research advances, so also will the extent of medical inspection widen.

Inspection will be repeated at regular intervals every two or three years, and the results will be compared with those already obtained; a record will be kept in a special dossier for each person, which will be a true analysis of each person's state of health, as recommended in the article from the American review cited above. Dr. Renon urges that this suggestion might form part of a system of "social insurance" and that in France it calls for consideration at a time when the Bill on sickness and invalidity insurance is being discussed.

THE CARE OF EYESIGHT IN INDUSTRY

There are only a few establishments, even among those which have medical or dental departments, which have made special provision for testing the eyesight of the workers and protecting them from eyestrain. At the same time the apparatus required is so simple and the outlay so small that the results more than balance the original expenditure.

Defects in eyesight can often be detected by the works doctor or by a nurse trained to apply simple eye tests, but they are rarely referred

(4) LOUIS RENON: *L'alliance de l'hygiène et de la pathologie dans la médecine préventive; l'examen sanitaire et systématique*. Paper read before the *Académie de Médecine*, 6 Dec. 1921; Reported in *La Presse Médicale*, 10 Dec. 1921.

to by the sufferers, and little short of a special and searching examination by the works doctor will discover them. It is much more desirable, both for employer and worker, that special facilities for consultation and examination should be provided at the works on the lines of the dental clinics already established in many factories. A recent article (5) gives interesting particulars of the possibilities of a works optical clinic.

Periodical visits by a qualified optician are generally all that is needed; even the largest works do not need the services of a full-time specialist. There is no need, either, to have a special room for eye testing; an ordinary room, which can be effectively darkened with blinds or shutters, will answer the purpose. The furnishings and lighting should be chosen in consultation with the optician; these need be neither elaborate nor expensive.

Preliminary arrangements should be made, so that, when glasses are prescribed after examination, they can be supplied to the worker at cost price. Each examination lasts usually from twenty to thirty minutes, and it is advisable to allow workers to consult the optician during working hours. Otherwise there is the danger, already noticed in the case of dental clinics, that defects will be neglected unless they are very troublesome. It is a wise policy to make it easy to consult the optician, thereby also avoiding the necessity of allowing the worker a half-day off to visit a consultant outside the factory.

It is usually possible to secure the services of a consulting optician to visit the works periodically without the payment of a retaining fee, if travelling expenses are paid. Many opticians, in fact, especially those starting in business, would welcome the experience afforded by a factory clinic. In a factory at Irlam, employing about a thousand workers, the visiting optician attends periodically at the factory, usually about once a month. Those who wish to see him give in their names to the welfare superintendent, and are seen in the order in which they apply. The tests take place in the ambulance room, which is readily converted into a dark room, and no charge is made for examination. It is sometimes found that there is nothing radically wrong with the eyes, but that the general health is poor. The case is then referred by the welfare superintendent to the works doctor for suitable treatment. Cases of a serious nature or presenting complications are referred to an eye specialist, who by a previous arrangement has agreed to treat any of the workers sent to him by this factory at reduced fees. Prescriptions are made up in the optical department of the firm and are charged at wholesale prices. They are paid for through the welfare department, and in case of difficult circumstances payment by instalments can be arranged through the superintendent. The optician makes no charge, except for travelling expenses, for his visit.

Since the inauguration of this scheme the general work of the ambulance room has been considerably lessened. Headaches in particular have become very rare, and several serious defects have been detected and referred to the specialist. In some cases transference from unsuitable to suitable work has worked wonders for the employee and his work.

An optical scheme, however, means more than the mere testing of eyes and the prescription of glasses. The optician can be of assistance in arranging the lighting, both natural and artificial, of the

(5) Constance Ursula KERR: *A Works Optical Scheme; the Care of the Eyesight in Industry*, in *Engineering and Industrial Management*, Vol. 6, No. 3, 21 July 1921; pp. 69-70. London.

workrooms. He should always be consulted in planning new departments or alterations in badly-lit workshops. The lighting of workrooms need not involve great expenditure. Sometimes minor alterations, such as a re-adjustment of reflectors or brackets—even an actual reduction in lighting—can be made with advantage. A glare of light is as bad as insufficient light, and many accidents can be attributed to both causes. Statistics issued by the British Home Office show in a striking fashion that the accident rate is higher in the winter than in the summer, i. e. in the dark months.

The colour scheme in the works is also of importance, and should not be dismissed without consideration. One firm in Manchester has engaged an artist to design a colour scheme for their factory, while another has introduced pictures in the workrooms, apparently with good effects on production. But without going as far as this, much can be done to make the factories more pleasant to work in. Glaring white walls and unrelieved masses of machinery are bad for the eyes, as are dirty and dingy walls and ceilings. Even if art is impossible in the workshop, it can at any rate be introduced in the dining rooms and rest rooms.

GOVERNMENT REPORTS

FACTORY INSPECTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1920 (1)

The British factory inspection report for 1920 has reverted to the small page characteristic of its earlier nineteenth century issues, but contains fewer pages than the folio report of 1919. The bulk of the volume consists of twelve chapters on various aspects of industry as viewed by the inspectors, fourteen summary statistical tables being appended and others inserted in the text. Every chapter is signed by its author (usually a member of the central inspection staff), and when quotations are made from the reports of individual inspectors, or paragraphs furnished by another hand than that of the person responsible for the chapter, the exact source is indicated. Much interesting material is presented, and the extracts from local reports make one wish that it had been possible to print them in full, but the absence of an index and the sketchiness of the table of contents impede specialised investigations.

The inspection staff was not at its full strength in 1920, though decidedly stronger than in 1919. Its nominal membership was 237, but at the end of the year it numbered only 205, including seven temporary appointments. A re-organisation scheme has been sanctioned, the net result of which will be an increase in the number of districts and in the proportion of women to men inspectors, and a reduction in the number of junior posts corresponding to the increase in districts. The medical, engineering, and electrical sections are being strengthened, but the total staff of the department remains about the same (p. 10).

The staff of 205 persons had under its supervision 140,064 factories and 141,971 workshops registered under the Factory Acts, employing about six million (?) persons, rather more than one-third of these being women (p. 6). Two important Acts (respecting the minimum age for admission to industrial employment, and the employment of women and young persons at night and in lead processes) were passed during the year, and various welfare orders (3) and revised regulations were issued (pp. 6-8), but these did not increase the number of establishments liable to inspection. In all 347,301 visits were paid to places under the Factory Acts, as against 301,904 in 1919; and 22,779 visits were paid to places not under the Acts. The results of inspection were on the whole better than in the previous year. More notices respecting contraventions were served—138,315 compared with 134,422 in 1919, but fewer prosecutions were required—1,081 as against 1,127 in 1919, 2,852 in 1914,

(1) UNITED KINGDOM. HOME OFFICE : *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year 1920*. (Cmd. 1403). 8vo, 173 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1921. 1s. 6d. net.

(2) The latest figures available (1919) are taken by the Factory Inspection Department from the Workmen's Compensation Statistics : 3,969,923 men and 2,157,783 women employed in factories and workshops, at a date "when practically all the females taken on as substitutes for men during the war had given up their occupations" (p. 6).

(3) Orders issued under The Police, Factories, etc. Act dated 3 August 1916 (6 and 7 Geo. 5, ch. 31) concerning the welfare of workers.

and 3,644 in 1910. It must be remembered, however, that trade depression has contributed to the apparent improvement; overtime was rare, and short time frequent, during 1920, whereas offences in respect of hours of employment were the subject of most of the prosecutions in pre-war years (pp. 5-6).

A considerable amount of time was taken up by conferences with employers and workers respecting draft regulations and welfare orders, and by giving assistance in the work of various Departmental Committees (p. 8). In particular, the organisation of the "Safety First" Conference in London and many discussions with joint industrial councils (Whitley Councils) and other bodies respecting the adoption by agreement of safety rules have absorbed much of the inspectors' time (pp. 3, 18). A special investigation was made in printers' workrooms, with the view of ascertaining the extent to which tuberculosis in the printing trade might be attributed to the inhalation of silica particles. The conclusion was that printers inhale even less silica than is to be found in ordinary domestic dust in London (pp. 140-147). A more extensive enquiry was made into the grinding of metals; this has been issued separately by the Home Office, and is only summarised in the Report (pp. 34, 35, 54). The sugar industry also came under special observation (pp. 103-108), and recommendations are made concerning welfare provisions for the workers in the hot and dirty processes of that industry.

In the general review, the Chief Inspector notes the tendency of workshop industries to disappear, especially in the country areas, while the trade of the workshops passes into the hands of large manufacturers in the towns (p. 12). This, he suggests, may be due in part to the depression, the strain of which has proved too great for many small employers. The Chief Lady Inspector remarks that women are suffering not merely from the general trade depression, but from the acute overcrowding in the pre-war women's trades due to their exclusion from many occupations opened to them during the war. In addition, she observes the displacement of relatively skilled women by a smaller number of men in the laundries where the "bag-wash" system is adopted.

Though more than half of the prosecutions in 1920 relate to hours of employment, the subject occupies only a small part of the Report (pp. 148-155). During 1919-1920 the normal week was reduced by voluntary agreement to 47 or 48 hours in most trades; and it has been found that increased overtime does not follow even in busy seasons. The workers tend more and more to oppose overtime, even at increased pay, while employers find it too costly, and therefore resort to improved methods, better organisation of work and transport, to do away with the necessity for long hours (p. 148). Dairy factories still work very long hours in summer, but very short hours in winter. It is reported that in the North-Western Division hours in hospital and hotel laundries are extremely long—normally 11 or 12 hours a day—and often more work is expected when the laundry hours are over (p. 149). With these exceptions, the 8-hour or 9-hour day (with one break for a meal) was generally adopted in 1920. Practically all the continuous industries are now working on the three-shift system, and cases of increased output, substantially greater than the increase of staff, are mentioned in three South Wales works formerly run on the two-shift system (pp. 150-151). In non-continuous industries which had organised two day-shifts under special orders, however, the second shift was given up in many cases on account of trade depression. Cases of overtime

were rare—the few found being very bad cases—but slackness of trade has not checked the illegal practice of work during mealtimes in the Lancashire cotton weaving sheds (p. 154).

While hours of work were, in general, well within the legal maximum, the hygienic condition of many factories and workshops fell below the standard set by legislation. The inspector reporting on health and sanitation attributes this to the lack of public knowledge of, or interest in, these matters as compared with hours and even welfare provisions (p. 69). The cleaning of factories is very often unsatisfactory because left to the workers themselves; but there is a growing tendency to employ special cleaners, and it has been found that even in the dirtiest and untidiest of trades (e. g. rag-sorting) a very high standard may be attained by proper methods (p. 71). Great improvement is reported in ventilating systems: three pages are devoted to extracts from local inspectors' reports on useful devices. The preventing of unduly high temperatures, in industries where a certain amount of heat is essential to the work, constitutes a more difficult problem. Various suggestions are made, and experiments in reducing temperature are quoted (p. 78). In connection with sanitary accommodation the main points which emerge are (a) the diversity of standards among local authorities as regards the construction and inspection of conveniences, (b) the necessity for proper supervision to prevent misuse and ensure the maintenance of cleanliness. Cases are mentioned where good results have been obtained by enlisting the help of the workers' organisations in supervision (p. 79).

Progress is recorded in welfare work, not only in actual provision for the workers, but in general interest in the subject. Works committees have given very valuable assistance in the organisation and management of schemes, and special welfare supervisors are increasing in number; while women doctors are appointed in a growing number of factories to supervise the health of women and girls (pp. 83-84). Messrooms are much more frequently met with than in the past, though too often they are less well lighted, ventilated, or cleaned than the factory work-rooms (p. 85). Lavatory accommodation varies much in quantity and quality; it is found that a supply of warm water greatly increases the use of washing facilities, but that supervision is not less necessary than in the case of sanitary accommodation, in order to ensure the maintenance of cleanliness and to prevent possible abuses (pp. 90-91).

The provision of seats in workrooms advances but slowly, as there is a strong and widespread prejudice in many industries against allowing workers to sit down to their tasks and in some cases the workers themselves doubt the practicability of the arrangement. Progress has been made, however, especially where welfare supervisors have been appointed (pp. 87-89). Good lighting is also more appreciated than in the past, and artificial lighting installations are improving, though full advantage is by no means taken of daylight (pp. 109-111).

Four trades were dealt with by special Welfare Orders in 1920—herring-curing in Norfolk and Suffolk, the oil-cake industry, laundries, and bichromate of potassium works. In the first and third results were decidedly encouraging, but in the oil-cake mills it is evident that competent supervision is an urgent necessity, especially in the North-Eastern District (pp. 92-96). The pottery trade is making welfare provisions under a voluntary agreement, and much has been done in Scottish textile factories in anticipation of the Order already drafted (pp. 97-98).

Accidents were more numerous in 1920 than in 1919, though fewer

than in 1913. But for the trade depression, there would have been more cases, judging from the monthly distribution of casualties. In all 138,773 accidents took place, 1,404 being fatal. One-ninth occurred in ship and boat building, one-eighth in the metal conversion industries, and over one-sixth in mechanical engineering. Accidents due to unfenced shafting are still frequent, as are preventible mishaps with cranes and winches (pp. 17, 170, 171). A special "Safety First" conference was held in September 1920, to educate employers and managers in methods of accident prevention; but the education of workers, especially young persons, is no less urgently necessary. Good work has been done here and there by safety committees, but neither employers nor workers seem ready to adopt this plan generally (pp. 18-20). Several agreements have been made in the textile trades for the standardisation of fencing and other safeguards, and one has been concluded in the tinplate industry (pp. 20-22). Special analyses have been made of the accidents due to cranes and of those caused by flax, hemp, or jute machinery. In the former case it appears that much may be achieved by regular and frequent inspection of cranes to prevent overloading or unexpected collapse; in the latter case, experiments are being made in special fencing for the most dangerous parts (pp. 24-28). The report on metal grinding (summarised on pp. 34-35) attributes most accidents in this trade to faulty mounting or improper use of wheels, and recommends the appointment of a skilled person to be responsible for the mounting, testing, and maintenance of wheels, and the use of guards sufficient to protect workers completely against flying fragments.

It has been found that in the case of fire escapes, as well as in that of sanitary accommodation, the standards of local authorities vary considerably. In the North-Western Division, in particular, attention is called to the extreme inadequacy of emergency exits, and there and elsewhere it was found that workers were ignorant of the existence and geography of escapes. In Scotland most factories are stone-built, with good wide stairs in stone wells, so that there is little danger of either fire or blocked exits (pp. 42-44).

A special chapter (pp. 99-102) on first aid and ambulance provisions indicates progress in the industries for which Welfare Orders have been made. In others, while knowledge of first-aid is far more general than before the war, appliances are often lacking. After a special investigation it has been recommended that liberal provision should be made for treatment of injuries at the docks on the spot, by means of the installation of numerous first-aid boxes, rather than for the establishment of a central ambulance room. In connection with electrical accidents, it is noticed that not only workers, but even factory ambulance men and local practitioners are insufficiently acquainted with the proper treatment for shock.

A large proportion of the volume is allotted to dangerous trades, a branch of the Factory Inspection Department being devoted to the study of this subject, while the Medical Inspectors deal with the kindred problem of industrial diseases. Special attention was given in 1920 to electric accumulator works (pp. 47-49) and vulcanising works (pp. 62-63). It was found that cleaning was often inadequate in accumulator works, and that the proper precautions were by no means always taken in handling dry lead compounds. The main difficulty in vulcanising was the securing of ventilation slow enough to clear the whole of a room, since the ordinary system left pockets of fumes. As for other dangerous industries, it was found that the wool-sorting regulations were well observed, and that there had been a marked decline in the number of

cases of anthrax ; while in the hollow-ware trade the dangerous process of "common tinning" has been replaced in seven works out of eight by safer methods (pp. 52-53). A special note is given on the injury to the eyes produced by the glare of electric arc welding, and on protective devices ; and the report of the Glass-Workers' Cataract Committee of the Royal Society of Arts, appointed in 1908, is appended (pp. 135-139).

Conditions in the potteries are discussed in detail. There has been a decided improvement of late, and the persistent failure of dippers to wear washable caps has been dealt with satisfactorily by the provision of caps of washable material made in the same style as the non-washable ones which they had so greatly preferred. Ventilation and exhausts are more generally satisfactory, and the use of sprays for washing boards is now almost universal. The regulation for self-inspection (4), however, has not been well observed ; in some cases the task of supervision has been assigned to a manager or other person already overburdened with work, and in others a totally unqualified person has been appointed (pp. 56-60). Lead poisoning cases were more numerous in 1920 than in 1919, but the potteries were not responsible for the increase, which was due mainly to one particular lead smelting works ; nor could conditions in 1920 alone be blamed for the high death-rate among the pottery cases investigated, since the average period of employment in the industry of the deceased workers was thirty years (pp. 118-121).

A full account is given of work in the prevention of pitch epithelioma among the patent fuel workers of South Wales, where a system of voluntary medical examination has been instituted (pp. 126-130). Daily inspection of workers' hands by a competent person, and prompt attention to minor injuries, is recommended for bichromate of sodium and potassium factories, in view of the experience of factories where such supervision has been tried. A special enquiry into sand-blasting generally, following the death of a sand-blaster from tuberculosis, showed that conditions were unsatisfactory in many works—generally owing to defective maintenance of plant, allowing the sand and dust to escape freely (pp. 135-136). Conditions of a similar nature were found in various wet-grinding establishments, but it is noted that the sandstone wheel is gradually being displaced by artificial abrasives used for dry grinding (pp. 55-56). An inspector for the Midland Division notes that old wet-grinders refuse to send their sons into so disagreeable a trade. Public opinion has begun to operate here, and, as the Chief Inspector remarks, the driving force of public opinion "is essential to any general improvement" (p. 5).

FACTORY INSPECTION IN INDIA IN 1920 (5)

The above reports deal with the conditions of employment in 3,804 factories irregularly distributed throughout British India, a large number of which are in operation only at special seasons of the year (e. g. cotton ginning factories). These establishments employ on a daily average about

(4) Under Pottery Regulations No. 27 the occupier is requested to appoint one or more competent persons whose duty it is to see to the observance of regulations throughout the factory.

(5) INDIA : *Reports on the Working of the Indian Factories Act, 1911, for the year 1920*, in (1) Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, and Assam ; (2) Bombay ; (3) Burma ; (4) Central Provinces and Berar ; (5) Madras ; (6) Punjab, North-West Frontier Province, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara ; (7) United Provinces. 8 nos. fol., 2 nos. 8° ; issued by Government Printers of the various Provinces.

one and a quarter million persons—nearly half of this total being accounted for by Bengal, and more than a quarter by Bombay. Women constitute 14.9 per cent and children 5.4 per cent of the recorded number of operatives. The field from which statistics are obtained, however, varies from province to province. Factories employing 50 or more persons on any day in the year are included in all returns; but the power granted to Provincial governments under the Act of 1911 to bring in smaller undertakings (down to a minimum daily total of 20 persons employed) has not been used to the same extent in all areas. During the year under review, inspection was extended in the Punjab to cotton ginning and pressing factories employing not less than 20 persons, and all other factories employing not less than 30 persons. In Burma it appears that all factories employing 20 or more persons are included. A considerable addition was made to the work of the inspectors in the latter province—the Northern Shan States were added to their district, thus bringing under supervision some 6,000 persons employed in the workshops of the Burma Mines Company.

Exact particulars are not given in any case as to the number of inspectors; but the references made by the reporting officials indicate an acute sense of the inadequacy of the staff. District magistrates are inspectors *ex officio*, but are usually too fully occupied with other duties to effect many inspections. The full-time inspectors, so far as can be ascertained from the reports under review, number two or three to a Province, and sometimes have also to undertake the inspection of boilers or electrical installations. They are handicapped by the difficulties of travelling, and also by the problem of accommodation when making surprise visits to places outside the large towns (United Provinces Report, pp. 1-2). Consequently the number of inspections made is comparatively small—4,041 in all, nearly half made in Madras and Bombay—and more than half the factories in Bengal and a third of those in Burma and the United Provinces did not receive one visit during the year. Prosecutions were extremely few, owing to lack of time to deal with cases, and some inspectors complain of the inadequacy of fines for purposes of deterrence.

The larger factories are reported as complying in most cases with the requirements of the Act concerning hygiene, but sanitary accommodation is said to be unsatisfactory in many of the smaller undertakings. Water supply and lighting are usually found to be satisfactory, but ventilation less good; in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara the inspector calls attention to the practice of stuffing up every crevice in textile factories in order to conserve the humidity of the air in the workrooms. As regards extra-mural welfare work, it is found that the permanent factories are generally extending the provision of housing for their employees, as lack of accommodation has proved a hindrance to securing and retaining workers. Ten factories in the Central Provinces have also provided for medical attendance—they have set up good dispensaries, with full-time doctors, and treat on an average 10,000 cases a month between them. One of these factories (at Nagpur) has set up a day nursery for the children of its women employees, this being the first institution of the kind in the Province. In Bombay the inspector remarks on the bad effects produced upon children by their being left all day in the dust and heat of spinning rooms, for want of nurseries, and urges the prohibition of the presence of children under 9 in workrooms. In many places factories provide schools for the children employed half-time, but there is great variation between districts in the attendance at these schools; in the Central Provinces 72 per cent. of

the half-time workers are reported to be receiving instruction in this way, but in Madras only 34 per cent. A special enquiry in Ahmedabad (Bombay) revealed the fact that many children were certified twice over and employed in two establishments daily.

Accidents range from 0.27 per 100 employees in Bombay to 1.08 per 100 in the United Provinces, but fatalities are proportionately fewest in Madras (0.058 per 1,000 employees), where the general accident rate is fairly high (0.73 per 100). All inspectors report that the fencing of machinery and dangerous places is inadequate, though requests by employers for advice and well-meant, if ill-informed, attempts to provide guards are reported from Burma. Failure of employees to recognise and take precautions against risks is also noted; for instance, the Bengal inspector records the persistent disregard by jute workers of the standing instructions in mills against cleaning machinery while it is running. He recommends a statutory prohibition of this practice for men such as already exists for women and children. Loose garments lead to many bad accidents by catching in belts and shafting, but workers refuse to wear close-fitting garments even when provided, though one Bengal factory occupier prevailed upon his beltmen and oilers to adopt them by paying a special bonus. In some cases, both in Bengal and in Burma, the inspectors state that competent supervision of the work (especially in connection with cranes) would have prevented accidents.

A general indication of the rates of wages for skilled and unskilled workers of various types in each province is given, but the tables for the separate districts are not readily comparable, as some give a daily and some a monthly average, and the classification by occupation and sex is not strictly uniform throughout. In addition, tables of the general distribution of the hours of work are given. Most factories work for the statutory maximum period of 6 hours before allowing a break; this is very generally half an hour (the statutory minimum). In Bombay it is noted that the 10-hour day is practically universal for the textile trades.

FACTORY INSPECTION IN QUEENSLAND FROM 1 JULY 1920 TO 30 JUNE 1921 ⁽⁶⁾

The Department of Labour for Queensland, which is under the control of the Secretary for Public Works, is responsible for the administration of the Factories and Shops Acts 1900-1920; the Labour Exchanges Act 1915; the Industrial Arbitration Act 1916; the Workers' Accommodation Act 1915; and the Trades Union Act 1915. The inspection staff of the Department consists of 27 men and 2 women, whose brief descriptive reports are printed *in extenso* in the return for 1920-1921 (pp. 36-48). Statistical tables constitute the remainder of the return. The reports reveal conditions fairly satisfactory to the inspection staff as regards the 3,398 factories and 8,048 shops under supervision, which employ 32,772 and 21,724 persons respectively, barely one-third being women. Out of the 80 prosecutions under the Factories and Shops Acts, 44 were for failure to close shops at the proper time, and 35 for failure to register establishments. Under the Industrial Arbitration Act there were 221 prosecutions, more than in 1919-1920, since ignorance of awards is no longer regarded as a sufficient excuse. Negligence, however, is stated by the Chief Inspector to have been more frequent

⁽⁶⁾ QUEENSLAND : DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR. *Report of the Director of Labour and Chief Inspector of Factories and Shops for the year ended 30 June 1921.* (C. A. 52). 1921. Fol., pp. 48. Brisbane, Government Printer.

than wilful evasion. Nearly all persons employed at the date of the Report had their wages regulated by awards or enforceable agreements. The labour exchange system was less widely used than the machinery for wages regulation; only 12,607 workers were applied for (over one-third by public authorities), though 44,426 workers registered at the exchanges. Private employers make little use of the system, and thereby lose an opportunity for discouraging unnecessary inter-State migration and seasonal congestion of the sugar and shearing districts.

FACTORY INSPECTION IN VICTORIA IN 1920 (7)

The Victoria factory inspection report for 1920 consists of a brief general statement and a large number of detailed statistical tables, dealing with the administration of the Factories & Shops Acts, Servants' Registry Offices Act, Lifts Regulation Act, and Footwear Regulation Act (the last-mentioned Act requires that the name of the maker or seller, and particulars of materials used, be stamped on footwear). The number of inspectors engaged in supervising the application of these Acts is not given. In all 8,631 factories and 27,362 shops, employing respectively 116,846 and 31,123 persons (only 8,874 shops employed any labour in addition to that of the occupier), were registered at the end of 1920, but towards Christmas trade depression began to be felt. Prosecutions were few, and one-third were for failure to close shops in due time. The number of accidents tabulated shows a very considerable increase over the total for 1919, owing to the legislative change which now requires all accidents in factories to be reported if they cause more than 48 hours' incapacity for work. Formerly only fatal accidents and those causing 48 hours' incapacity which were due to specified machinery were compulsorily reported. Woodworking accounts for 119 out of 862 accidents during the year, mainly due to circular saws, for which the Chief Inspector states that no satisfactory guard has yet been found. An Inspector of Machinery was appointed late in 1919 to investigate the causes of accidents and means of preventing them; and an Order for the safeguarding of belts and ropes has produced good results. It is noteworthy that 503 out of the total of 862 accidents were cases of injury to workers' hands.

Two important legislative developments are noted: (1) wages boards can now be appointed, or their scope altered, by the Governor-in-Council at any time; formerly they could only be appointed while Parliament was in session; (2) for the first time the hour for *opening* shops has been fixed by law—for butchers' shops in Melbourne. The report also contains an elaborate analysis of the average weekly wages for different sexes and grades of skill in the trades for which wages boards have been appointed. Particulars are given of the principal trade disputes during the year, including a strike in the printing trade, over wages and hours, which lasted for 2½ months—the first strike in this trade for thirty years.

(7) VICTORIA: LABOUR DEPARTMENT: *Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Shops for the Year ended 31 December 1920*. Parliamentary Paper No. 6, 2nd session of 1921. Fol., pp. 36. Melbourne, Government Printer. 1s. 3d.

BOOK NOTES

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: INTERNATIONAL EMIGRATION COMMISSION (Geneva, August 1921): *Report of the Commission*. vii+162 pp. Geneva. 1921.

This report was submitted to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office by the International Emigration Commission which sat at Geneva from 2 to 11 August 1921⁽¹⁾. It gives the conclusions of the Commission in the form of resolutions, to which are added the minutes of the fourteen meetings held by the Commission, and the texts of the different reports submitted to it.

— *Technical Survey of Agricultural Questions. Part I. Adaptation of Washington Decisions. Part II. Special Measures for the Protection of Agricultural Workers*. Special Reports, x+618 pp. Geneva. 1921.

This technical survey of agricultural questions has been prepared for the use of the Third Session of the International Labour Conference. The information contained in it is mainly the result of investigations and researches made in the International Labour Office. It has been drawn as far as possible from original sources, such as laws, government reports, collective agreements, and similar materials. The questions studied fall into two main groups. Each group provides material for one volume. The first deals with the adaptation to agriculture of the Washington decisions, including the regulation of hours of work, the prevention and relief of unemployment, and the protection of women and children. The second deals with special measures for the protection of agricultural workers: technical education, living-in conditions, rights of association and combination, and protection against accidents, sickness, invalidity and old age.

WORLD ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION: Bulletins No. VII, *Adult Education in Wales, etc.*, 24 pp. No. VIII, *Adult Education in China, Second Annual Report of the World Association, etc.*, 32 pp.; No. IX, *The British Institute of Adult Education, etc.*, 24 pp. London, Published by the Association. 1921. 1s. each.

The World Association for Adult Education was founded in March 1919 in order to assist "the establishment, or development, in all parts of the world, of movements and institutions for promoting adult education, and to promote co-operation between them". Each of its Bulletins, which are issued quarterly, contains a survey of some particular aspect of adult education, or of its development in a given country. Besides the two reports noted above, the Association has published studies of adult education in Great Britain, Norway, France, Spain, and Czecho-Slovakia, many of which supply information not obtainable elsewhere. Each Bulletin, in addition to the main study, gives brief notes on interesting developments in adult education throughout the world. The second annual report mentions the establishment of National

⁽¹⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, December 1921; pp. 85 to 110: *The International Emigration Commission*.

Councils for Adult Education in Holland and Czecho-Slovakia, in addition to that already existing in the United Kingdom, the growth of Branches and Groups for study, and the institution of Correspondents in many countries.

— *Seafarers' Education Service*. 32 pp. London, Published by the World Association. 1921. 3d.

This pamphlet contains a record of the work done from December 1919 to August 1921 by the Commission on the Education of Merchant Seamen appointed by the World Association for Adult Education. This has mainly consisted in the installation of ships' libraries on board ocean-going vessels, in charge of a member of the crew, for the use of ratings. It is also proposed to establish correspondence courses for individual seamen who desire to take advantage of this opportunity for education, and to develop the use of the cinema on board ship as an educational agent. This is an interesting description of an attempt to carry the benefits of adult education to a class of men who are out of reach of the ordinary facilities offered on land.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

CANADA

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR : *Labour Legislation in Canada*. 844 pp. Ottawa. 1921.

This volume contains the text of the labour laws of the Dominion of Canada and the provinces in force at the end of 1920. In addition a summary of the legislation passed in 1920 and a brief survey of the more important developments since 1915 are given.

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA

MINISTERSTVO SOCIÁLNÍ PÉČE : *Zpráva o přípravě činnosti pro úpravu a vybudování sociálního pojištění* (MINISTRY OF SOCIAL WELFARE : *Report on preliminary measures taken for the establishment of a scheme of social insurance*). 47 pp. Prague, issued by the Ministry of Social Welfare. 1921.

This work is the result of a commission which was appointed on 30 July 1921 to draft a system of social insurance. The report of the commission contains a brief survey of Czecho-Slovak legislation relating to social insurance. It also suggests the amendments which the government should make to the system at present in operation and gives the draft of a complete system of social insurance ; it describes the preliminary measures taken up to the present by the commission, and gives the opinions submitted to the Ministry of Social Welfare by the Czecho-Slovak Social insurance experts.

— *Le Ministère de la Prévoyance sociale et la politique d'économie sociale dans la République tchéco-slovaque*. (*The Ministry of Social Welfare and Socioeconomic policy in the Czecho-Slovak Republic*), by Dr. Joseph GRUBER. 16 pp. Prague, Ministry of Social Welfare. 1921.

A general survey of the remarkable work in social reconstruction already carried out by the Czecho-Slovak Ministry of Social Welfare, and of its proposed future policy.

FINLAND

L'Agriculture finlandaise et la situation des ouvriers agricoles en Finlande (*Finnish Agriculture and the Situation of Agricultural Workers in Finland*). 50 pp. Helsingfors. Impr. du Gouvernement. 1921.

This pamphlet describes various aspects of Finnish agriculture, such as its prospects, the situation of the population, the distribution of agricultural estates, cultivation, cooperative societies, agricultural labour, wages, and housing. Some statistical tables are included, of which those dealing with the average length of the working day in the different provinces and the wages paid either in money or in kind may be noted.

FRANCE

MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL. OFFICE DU TRAVAIL : *Tarifs de salaires et conventions collectives pendant la guerre (1914-1918)*. Tome premier. (MINISTRY OF LABOUR. DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *Wage Scales and collective agreements during the War (1914-1918)*. Vol. I.) VIII+172 pp. Paris, Impr. nationale. 1921.

The present issue forms the first volume of a collection of wage scales and other labour conditions agreed upon during the war, from 1914 to 1918, either in accordance with the terms of laws, decrees, and ministerial circulars, or by collective agreements between employers and employed. The volume gives first the texts of the laws, decrees, etc., which gave rise to a great number of decisions, awards and agreements. These are followed by a number of documents, many of them coming from public administrations, referring to the Department of the Seine. These documents are arranged in industrial groups, and in some cases into sub-groups, in each of which as a general rule chronological order is followed for the clothing trade. However, owing to the importance or the information collected, it has seemed preferable to classify separately documents having the same origin.

This collection will contain three volumes; the remaining two will deal with departments other than the Seine, and at the end a summary will be given of the outstanding features of the material published.

NORWAY

DEPARTEMENTET FOR SOCIALE SAKER: *Meglingsinstitusjonens Virksomhet i 1920*. Ved Riksmeglingsmannens sekretær Cand. Jury. Olaf Gjems-Onstad. (*The Activity of the Conciliation Institution in 1920*, by the Secretary of the Chief Conciliator, Olaf Gjems-Onstad). 113 pp. Published by the Ministry for Social Affairs as a supplement to *Sociale Meddelelser*. Kristiania. 1921.

The recently published annual statistical report on the activity of the Norwegian Conciliation Institution during 1920, its fifth year, covers more ground than previous reports, as it deals not only with conciliation strictly speaking, but also with labour disputes and collective agreements. From the point of view of social statistics this extension is important, especially as there has hitherto been a lack of official statistics on these subjects in Norway and students of these questions have been obliged to rely on incomplete and often contradictory figures published by employers' and workers' organisations.

SWEDEN

K. SOCIALSTYRELSEN: *Arbetartillgång, arbetstid och arbetslön inom Sveriges jordbruk år 1920*. (DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS: *Labour, hours of work, and wages in Swedish Agriculture in 1920*). 94 pp. Stockholm, Isaac Marcus' Boktryckeri-Aktiebolag. 1921. 1 Kr.

This annual report on the official statistics of labour, hours of work and wages in Swedish agriculture in 1920, is based on the data received from 2,158 communes, forming 92.9 per cent. of the rural communes of the Kingdom

to which questionnaires had been sent for purposes of this enquiry. With regard to hours of work and wages, calculations have also been made based on information collected from rural employers and workers through their respective organisations. Finally, good use was made of certain results furnished by a special enquiry undertaken with the authorisation of the government, on hours of work, unemployment, the work of women and children, the conditions of working class housing and other questions relating to agricultural labour, which it was intended to submit to the Third International Labour Conference. This information has already appeared in English in a pamphlet entitled "*The Swedish Agricultural Labourer, published by order of the Swedish Government's Delegation for International Collaboration in Social Politics, Stockholm, 1921.*"

UNITED STATES

CALIFORNIA

COMMISSION OF IMMIGRATION AND HOUSING : *The Annual Report of the Commission of Immigration and Housing in California, January 1921.* 28 pp. Sacramento, California State Printing Office, 1921.

The California Commission, practically the only Commission of its kind in any of the States of the Union, is a body organised on the principle of helping the immigrant to overcome the handicap under which he lives, "putting him in a position not superior but merely equal to that of the native born". The object of the Commission was to coordinate the work of various scattered agencies dealing with the immigrant and his problems. Housing was added as a part of the work of the Commission on the ground that "the first point of contact between the immigrant and his new environment" is the home. Among the principal work of the Commission is that of handling complaints of the immigrant concerning his treatment as a worker, his wages, his house-rent, etc. Another problem has been that of sanitation of the camps of migratory labourers, large numbers of whom are required in the seasonal fruit and vegetable industries of the State.

NEW YORK STATE

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR : *Court decisions on Workmen's Compensation Law, January 1920 to June 1921. Special bulletin No. 106.* 302 pp. New York, 1921.

— *Workmen's Compensation Law. With amendments, additions and annotations to September 1st 1921.* 120 pp. New York, 1921

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOUR LEGISLATION. *The American Labour Legislation Review.* September 1921. *Unemployment Survey 1920-1921 with standard recommendations.* pp. 191-218. American Association for Labour Legislation, 121, East, 23rd Street, New York City.

This survey deals with the extent of unemployment and degree of acuteness of distress in the United States during the winter 1920-1921. Various methods of organisation for temporary relief, emergency provisions for employment on public works, and similar measures are reviewed. The general conclusion reached is that unemployment was handled slightly better in 1920-1921 than

during previous crises. The testimony on all hands is said to be to the effect that "the only cure for unemployment is employment" and that "pauperisation" methods are, above all, to be avoided.

The standard recommendations for the relief and prevention of unemployment are based on reports received by the Association from more than 300 organisations and individuals in 115 different communities.

The following is a summary of the measures advocated: (1) Organise all classes of the community as long as possible before unemployment becomes acute to carry out preventive measures. This should be permanent organisation, not temporary activity during the crisis. (2) Bring the facts of the unemployment situation home to every citizen. (3) In emergency relief, avoid duplicating the work of existing organisations and, as far as possible, supply aid by means of employment at standard rates, but only on part time, so as to encourage early return to regular occupation. (4) Differentiate the treatment of the unemployed from that of the unemployed. (5) Provide industrial training schools with scholarships for unemployed workers. (6) Open an employment exchange, if one does not already exist, in order to centralise the community's labour market. Work for federal legislation and appropriations to develop a national system of employment exchanges. (7) Push forward public work of a useful nature. Employ for the usual hours and wages, but rotate employment by periods of not less than three days. Supervise the work carefully and insist upon reasonable standards of efficiency. As far as possible aim at steady employment of the regular force, retaining employees on part time in preference to reducing their numbers. (8) Urge the use of regular employees in making repairs and improving plant and the policy of part time employment rather than reduction in numbers. (9) Work for the establishment by legislation of a system of unemployment insurance, supported by contributions from employers.

BAZZI, Carlo: *Tecnica e organi del movimento economico di classe (con l'elenco delle "Organizzazioni sindacali italiane politiche confessionali e autonome")* (*The Technical Methods and Organs of the economic working-class movement, with a list of the "Italian political, sectarian and autonomous Organisations"*). Biblioteca del Sindacato nazionale delle cooperative, No. 15. 59 pp. Rome, Tip. Coop. L. Luzzati. 1921.

The "organs of the economic working-class movement" are the workers' trade union organisations. These have become so numerous in Italy that Mr. Bazzi, General Secretary of the *Sindacato nazionale delle Cooperative*, has considered it advisable to publish complete lists of these organisations. The central or regional federations are classified according to their political tendencies and are accompanied by a brief description of their origin and objects, and their means and methods of action. Special chapters deal with the autonomous organisations, with social questions of the moment, the recognition of trade unions by the State, and the reform of the Supreme Council of Labour.

BOUGLÉ, C. and DÉAT, M.: *Le guide de l'étudiant en Sociologie (Publications du centre de documentation sociale)*. (*The Student's Guide to Sociology. Publications of the Centre of Social Information*). 68 pp. Paris, Garnier Frères. 1921.

This manual is divided into three parts. The first contains a bibliographical list of the works in the French language which seem to the authors "specially suited for beginners". These works are classified under numerous headings and to each one a short descriptive note is added giving its contents, character and purpose. The second part gives a list of the principal periodicals and reviews published in French on social questions. The third part gives a list of the principal centres, offices, or bureaus in Paris where social information may be obtained.

British Labour. Replacement and Conciliation, 1914-1921. Being the result of Conferences and Investigations by Committees of Section F of the British Association. 266 pp. London. Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons, Ltd. 1921. 10s. 6d. net

This book is the outcome of discussions by the Economic Section of the British Association in 1915. It consists of three parts. The first, on the replacement of men by women in industry during the war, is a useful compilation containing new and valuable information. The second part deals with conciliation in British industry from 1914 to 1921. The third part, on workshop committees, is written by Mr. C. G. Renold (?), of Hans Renold, Ltd., and represents the point of view of an employer.

BRY, Georges : *Les lois du travail industriel et de la prévoyance sociale* (sixième édition entièrement revue par E. H. PERREAU). (*Laws relating to Industrial Labour and Social Welfare*. 6th edit., completely revised by E. H. PERREAU). XII+942 pp. Paris, libr. de la Société du Recueil Sirey, 22, rue Soufflot. 1921.

This sixth edition, completely revised, is abreast of all the developments of labour legislation since the publication of the earlier edition in 1912. It contains full and accurate information and references, and is divided into two parts : the first dealing with industrial labour laws (labour agreements, labour regulations, industrial organisations, legal authorities competent to deal with labour matters, administrative labour councils); the second with social insurance and social welfare. In view of the enormous quantity of material which has appeared during the last few years, all purely war measures have been omitted, as well as orders dealing only with war victims and discussions of merely theoretical interest. An alphabetical table of contents adds to the value of the volume.

CANTINEAU, F. L. : *Une grave question d'hygiène professionnelle et sociale. La céruse (White Lead; an important problem of Industrial and Social Hygiene)*. 488 pp. Paris and Liège, Ch. Beranger. 1921.

The main subject of this book is the evil effects of white lead on the workers. The author makes use of medical statistics and the data of lead poisoning pathology, as found in the literature of many countries, to show that white lead predisposes the system to other diseases and that its ravages are most marked among painters. He then deals with the prevention of lead poisoning and the protective measures which should be taken by employers and workers. After discussing the problems of dust and of paints with a heavy metal base, the author deals with the point raised by certain English writers of the importance of turpentine fumes as a source of poisoning. These writers suggest that most of the disorders noted among painters may be attributed to the volatile solvents of paints, especially to turpentine. Mr. Cantineau, however, does not consider that the facts at present available justify the acceptance of this opinion.

The second part of the book describes in great detail the campaigns undertaken in various countries against lead poisoning among painters. After studying the movement in countries which have either totally or partially prohibited the use of white lead (France, Austria, Sweden, and Greece), the author summarises the results obtained by restriction and regulation of its use in Switzerland, Germany, and Belgium. He comes to the conclusion that none of the measures at present in force, even the most far reaching, can obviate the danger to any considerable extent. An analysis of the reports of commissions set up in different countries to consider the question of lead poisoning among painters is given at the end of this section.

(*) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 4, Oct. 1921, p. 203.

CHAJES, Prof. Dr. B. : *Kompedium der sozialen Hygiene (Manual of Social Hygiene)*. 169 pp. Berlin, Fischer's Medizinische Buchhandlung, H. Kornfeld. 1921.

Professor Chajes begins his recent work with a definition of social hygiene. "It is a science", he says, "which studies, on the one hand, the influence of economic and social conditions on the health environment of large homogeneous groups of the population and of their descendants, and, on the other, the measures, based upon this knowledge, which tend to improve the health environment of these social groups and their descendants." He points out the importance of medical statistics for social hygiene. Two chapters containing recent data for Germany are devoted to the problems of housing and food supply. In his review of the tuberculosis problem, he emphasises its importance both pathologically and socially. An increase in the number of cases of venereal diseases since 1919 is recorded. There is a discussion of the problem of alcoholism, its evils, and the measures to be adopted against it. Finally, the author deals with social hygiene in relation to child welfare, industrial hygiene in general, the protection of the workers, and eugenics.

COULTER, Charles W. : *The Lithuanians of Cleveland*. 24 pp. Cleveland, Cleveland Americanisation Committee. 1921. 10 cents.

This is a study of what Lithuanians are contributing to the community life of the city of Cleveland, Ohio. In 1918 it was estimated that there were probably 750,000 Lithuanians in the United States. A large majority of these workers in the city are factory hands employed largely in the steel industry. Many of them are skilled mechanics, moulders, machinists and carpenters. These people have a native genius for social organisation. There is one weekly Lithuanian paper published in the city. The report concludes: "There are few more desirable immigrants to America than the Lithuanians. Physically rugged, potentially of high intelligence, readily capable of grasping American ideas, acquiring our language with facility, and, like the Scandinavian, soon disappearing into America's heterogeneous life, they have been called 'the most illiterate and at the same time the most intelligent of our immigrants'."

DELEGACE ODBOROVÉHO SDRUZENÍ ČESKOSLOVENSKEHO V RUSKU. *Zpráva o pomerech hospodarskych, zakonodarstvi a sprave sovetové ruské republiky rad (Report of the Delegation of the Confederation of Czecho-Slovak Trade Unions on the Economic Conditions, Legislation and Administration of Soviet Russia)*. 131 pp. Prague, published by "Odborové sdružení československé". 1921. Kc 5.

The sections of this report relating to economic conditions, trade union government, wages, labour conditions and food supply are the work of Mr. M. K. Dundr; the description of social conditions is by Mr. V. Kruansky.

GRAHAM, William, M. P., LL. B. : *The Wages of Labour*. (Social Economic Series). 166 pp. London, Cassel & Co. 1921. 5s.

A summary of economic, political and popular discussion surrounding remuneration in general, especially in the light of post-war economic conditions, followed by an investigation of the mental, physical and psychological factors of payment by time and by results; of the leading systems of payment by results, and the attitude of employers, workers and consumers towards them; and of the relation of payment by results to minimum and standard wage, and the experience of various countries on this point. The author maintains the opinion that the solution of rate-fixing and other difficulties and the true line of advance from the present wage system lies in the direction not of any schemes of co-partnership and profit sharing, but of some form of scientific management, based on the goodwill and co-operation of all co-

cerned, and aiming at the adjustment of work and the production of the necessities of life so as to promote the real well-being of all workers, either by brain or by hand.

GUERRY, Emile : *Les syndicats libres féminins de l'Isère*. (*The "Free" Trade Unions of Women Workers of the Isère*). xx + 422 pp. Grenoble, Fédération des syndicats libres féminins de l'Isère. 1921.

This study, based upon the working of the "free" trade unions of women workers of the Isère, aims, as the author declares in his preface, at demonstrating "from the experience of the trade unions which make the interest of their craft their first aim, the benefits which may be derived from such associations, not only for the workers themselves, but also from the point of view of the prosperity of the craft and of social peace". After describing their organisation, internal structure, and methods of action, he considers the extent and value of the improvements realised in working conditions by trade union action. He then gives a brief survey of the economic services rendered by the allied institutions of the union and finally investigates and defines the principle which inspires the whole movement. In conclusion he considers that the "free" trade unions of women workers of the Isère "have shown that the union may become a permanent factor in the labour movement and a recognised organ of industrial relations".

JOHNSON, Julia E. (compiled by): *Selected Articles on Unemployment* Second and enlarged edition. 309 pp. New York, the H. W. Wilson Company; London, Grafton & Co. 1921.

This book, which is one of the Debaters' Handbook Series, deals mainly with two special aspects of the question of unemployment, namely, the establishment of public employment exchanges, and the supplying of municipal, state, or national work when normal channels are inadequate to absorb surplus labour. It consists of a considerable number of reprints of articles from English and American magazines, and in accordance with the normal practice followed in this series of handbooks these articles are classified according to those in favour of, and those against, the two theses which have already been referred to. The book was first published in 1915, and in the new edition about 50 pages of new reprints have been added covering the years 1915 to date.

KITSON, Arthur : *Unemployment, the Cause and a Remedy*. 95 pp. London, Cecil Palmer. 1921.

The author expresses himself as being in entire disagreement with the majority of financial and commercial experts who attribute the industrial and commercial crisis to Providence, or natural laws, or to particular causes. Chief among the latter is either the war or an inflated currency, or the high wages and other demands of labour, or trade restrictions imposed by the customs policies of the governments. To understand the crisis which followed the period of industrial activity of 1919-1920, the causes must be traced back to their origin. The Chancellor of the Exchequer suddenly announced in March 1920 that the Government had decided on a gradual deflation of the currency, and called upon the bankers to help by restricting credit and raising the bank rate. The industrial situation, the author maintains, has gone from bad to worse since the adoption of this dear-money-deflation policy.

The remedy for these evils, which ruin nations and cause avoidable unemployment of millions of workers, will be found when it is recognised that dear and scarce currency is disastrous to trade, whilst a cheap currency, limited only by the needs of commerce, is advantageous. If industrial prosperity is to be restored, there must be a constant flow of purchasing power to the consumers, and a return flow to the producers. To accomplish this result, the author welcomes the system proposed by Major Douglas in his books *Economic Democracy* and *Credit Power and Democracy*.

In conclusion, the author recommends an increase in the currency, and, as an immediate although temporary measure of relief for the present trade paralysis, advocates the gradual conversion of the Treasury's floating debt into non-interest-bearing legal currency.

LAHY, J. M.: *Le système Taylor et la physiologie du travail professionnel* (*Taylorism and the Physiology of Industrial Labour*). 216 pp. Paris, Gauthier-Villars et Cie. 1921.

This book is an account of Taylorism and a study of its value, particularly from the psychological and physiological point of view. "Taylor's work", the author says in his preface, "possesses an intrinsic value which no one can deny, and which we have tried to estimate fairly. But it only partially covers the problems of labour organisation, and its solutions are at best only tentative and provisional. We have therefore tried to make this discussion disinterested, impartial, and critical, instead of giving the system that wholesale admiration bestowed on it by some persons with a view to its universal adoption in industry".

RENARD, Georges: *La vie chère*. Encyclopédie scientifique. Bibliothèque d'économie politique (*The High Cost of Living*). 252+xii pp. Paris, libr. Octave Doin, Gaston Doin, édit. 1921. Paper, 8 fr., bound 10 fr.

This volume contains the substance of a course of lectures given at the Collège de France on the problem of high prices and the cost of living. After a short account of similar crises in the past, the author shows how high prices, which, for various reasons, existed even before the war, have since become very much worse all over the world. He traces in several countries, and especially in France, the effects of increased prices on consumption, industrial production, and distribution. He then enumerates and classifies the remedies which have been tried to check this state of things, either by private initiative or by public bodies, and he suggests reasons why they brought about little or no improvement. A chapter is devoted to the social consequences of the rise in prices, and to the profound changes caused by it in the relative importance, customs, and ways of thinking of the different classes of the population. The author studies finally the difficulties which attended the attempt to lower prices after the armistice, and since the signing of the Peace Treaty. There are also lists of sources, by means of which the information given in the book can be checked and supplemented.

— *Le régime socialiste* (7^{me} édit.). Bibliothèque de philosophie contemporaine (*The Socialist Régime*. 7th édition). ii+208 pp. Paris, F. Alcan, 1921. 7 Fr.

Mr. G. Renard considers that his study on the theory of socialism—the earlier editions of which have been out of print for a long time—"may still be of use at a moment when socialism is passing through one of its vital crises". He has therefore published this seventh edition with only a few changes of detail, which are mentioned in the preface. The author reviews the social question, and the problem of organisation on which it hinges, in their twofold political and economic aspect; the data of the problem are treated as being both scientific and moral in character. His intention is that the book shall provide "a brief and concise statement of the socialist theories scattered broadcast through many bulky volumes and small pamphlets, and... that it shall be not merely a collection of facts but a synthesis of ideas, combined into a closely-knit whole".

Revue des Etudes Coopératives. Revue trimestrielle (*Quarterly Review of Co-operative Research*). No. 1. October-December 1921. 120 pp. Editorial Office, 102, avenue du Roule, Neuilly sur Seine. Pub. by Rieder et C^e, 7, place Saint-Sulpice, Paris. 5 fr. each number.

Early in 1921 a group of professors and representatives of French co-operative organisations founded a Society of Co-operative Research, having

as its object "the study of questions bearing on co-operation, and, in general, of all social and economic aspects of co-operative problems". The society circulated a "Co-operative Manifesto" which resulted in more than 200 members joining, nearly all of whom were professors of the Collège de France, of the Sorbonne and of provincial universities. This success encouraged the society to issue a review with the object of stimulating public interest in the manifold problems raised by the application of the co-operative principle.

The *Revue des études coopératives* will contain general and technical articles on co-operation, and on national and international economic problems. The editorial committee includes Messrs. Bouglé, Caullery, Lichtenberger, professors at the Sorbonne; Charles Gide, professor at the *Collège de France*; Charles Rist, professor of the Paris Faculty of Law; and Messrs. Cleuet, Daudé-Bancel, G. Lévy, and Poisson, members of French co-operative organisations.

RÍOS, Fernando de los: *Mi viaje a la Rusia soviética. (My journey to Soviet Russia)*. 363 pp. Madrid. Impr. R. Caro Raggio. 1921. 5 Pts.

The author, who is professor of law at the University of Granada and a member of the Spanish Socialist Party, went to Russia in the middle of October 1920 to negotiate the admission of the Spanish Socialist Party into the Third International. He remained in Russia about three months, and studied the Bolshevik regime very carefully, conversing, without official witnesses, with persons of the most divergent views and occupations and with foreigners who had been settled for many years in Russia and had remained there after the Revolution. His journey was made on the eve of the so-called "new policy" when the Communist party abandoned the rigid application of Communist theories, abolished the requisition of agricultural products, and allowed free trade within Russia.

Two-thirds of the book are devoted to a study of the general economic and administrative organisation of the Soviets, while labour and social institutions are also considered. The book is completed by a chart which shows with great detail and clearness the scheme of political administration and how it centres in the Supreme Economic Council. There is also a useful table of nationalised and non-nationalised enterprises as these stood on 1 February 1920.

This book is a noteworthy contribution to the literature of the later phases of the Russian Revolution, a period about which little has been written from actual observation.

SNEDDEN, David (ed.): *Vocational Home-Making Education*. 149 pp. New York, Teachers' College, Columbia University. 1921.

This volume of outline "projects" for independent work at home by pupils in home-making classes was drawn up by a conference of teachers of home-making in order to encourage the establishment of higher standards and more scientific methods in vocational education in domestic work, thus placing it more on a level with industrial and agricultural education, by combining the attainment of practical manipulative skill with the acquisition of technical and allied knowledge.

UNITED STATES RAILROAD LABOUR BOARD: *Rules for reporting information on rail road employees, with a classification and index of steam railroad occupations*. 320 pp. Chicago. May 1921.

The United States Railroad Labour Board, created in 1920, inherited a great number of requests for the adjustment of disputes between employers and workers, but found itself considerably handicapped by the absence of wage statistics relating to homogeneous groups of occupations and classified according to the special working conditions found in railway operation. Accordingly a comprehensive study was made of present methods of grouping and classifying positions and of reporting information on wages and services of steam railroad employees. As a result of this study the above volume has been issued.

The purpose of the classification is to furnish a basis for the collection of wages and other data on homogeneous classes of railroad positions, and to

establish as nearly as can be a uniform terminology to be used in describing similar occupations. In addition, standard forms are given for reporting information on railroad employees to the Inter-State Commerce Commission every quarter. The volume is completely indexed, and forms a most useful addition to the literature of occupational classification.

WEYL, Walter : *Tired Radicals and other Papers*. 223 pp. New York, B. W. Huebsch, Inc. 1921.

The title to this volume is given by the first article in it. The remaining essays are a collection of sketches by the author, some of which appeared in the *New Republic*, with which Mr. Weyl was connected as editor for some time. Some of the essays are tentative sketches which it was expected would form part of a volume by the author, who died before its completion. The essay on "The Only True Revolutionary Class" is an analysis of the effect of the improved conditions of work upon the psychological attitude of the working man towards his surroundings. "To urge him [the worker] to be content with his improving lot, to surrender the gain of to-day on account of the gain of yesterday is to urge him to act upon principles diametrically opposed to those upon which the rest of us act." Despite the diversity of the essays, there is a marked thread of unity running through them, the spirit of the whole being probably best characterised by the observation that "political equality is a farce and a peril unless there is at least some measure of economic equality". The essay on "Prophet and Politician" is an analysis of President Wilson as he appeared at the Peace Conference. "The King's Robing Room" and "The Crumbling House of Lords" are analyses of the labour situation and of the economic significance of the House of Lords in Great Britain. In the sketch of "The Conquering Chinese" appears this observation : "They are not a weak people, not a loose-fibred people, not an imitative employable people ; but strong, stubborn, ultra-conservative, excessively self-centred... Upon Europeans who live among them they exert an overpowering pressure of culture. They do not yield but force others to yield." While the Japanese may emigrate into the country the real conquerors are the Chinese. "Into China the Japanese immigrant cannot force his way... After decades, and even centuries, no non-Chinese race has ever succeeded in displacing the Chinese ; on the contrary, each race ends in being displaced by them."

WEYR, Dr. Frantisek : *Soustava Ceskoslovenského Práva Statního (The Czecho-Slovak System of Constitutional Law)*. 374 pp. Brunn, Barvic & Navotny. 1921. Kc. 60.

The author, who is professor of constitutional law at the University of Brunn, gives a systematic survey of Czecho-Slovak constitutional law. Special attention may be drawn to the chapters on the Czecho-Slovak State as affected by international treaties and their ratification, and on the right of coalition and assembly.

WOLFF, Henry W. : *Rural Reconstruction*. 355 pp. London, Selwyn and Blount, Ltd.

This book is an attempt to provide a complete plan for the reorganisation of the agricultural industry in England. Mr. Wolff calls for a very thorough-going programme, including the adoption of co-operative methods, new methods of financing the industry, and, perhaps above all, a far more vigorous policy of agricultural education. Such education should be of a practical kind, and should be conducted by means of "demonstration, of experiments in which the interest of farmers themselves is enlisted, by the tuition of homecoming officers like the American county agents and county representatives, the Belgian *agronomes de l'Etat* and the Dutch and Danish *konsulenten*, and by the training of the younger generation in clubs like the American, in school fairs, school gardens and the like". The industry should be financed by co-operative banks, the farmers themselves should learn better business methods, small holdings should be encouraged, and profit-sharing schemes should be adopted between the landless labourers and the proprietors.



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CONTENTS

Special Articles

	Page
The President's Conference and Unemployment in the United States, by William L. CHENERY	359
The International Labour Conferences, by J. S. EDSTRÖM	377
The Work of the Geneva Conference, by Léon JOUHAUX	381
Industrial Arbitration in Queensland, by Thomas W. McCAWLEY	385
The Works Councils Act in Austria, by Professor Emanuel ADLER	411
Progress of the Labour Movement in Japan	437

Industrial Relations

Trade Union Organisations	455
Employers' Organisations	465

Production and Prices

Wholesale Prices in Various Countries	475
Cost of Living and Retail Prices	478

Employment and Unemployment

Statistics of Unemployment	489
----------------------------	-----

Migration

Notes on Migration	494
--------------------	-----

Government Reports

509

Book Notes

516