



INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Trade Union Organisations

PARALLEL with the concerted action of governments in conference for a common economic policy, international labour is formulating its own opinions as to the solution of these problems. The Amsterdam International will hold a special conference for this purpose simultaneously with the Genoa Conference. The International Federation of Metal Workers is working out a comprehensive scheme for preventing war by a general cessation of work.

Turning to the national unions, we find, in addition to the universal programme for the maintenance of the standard of living and the 8-hour day, demands in Spain and in Italy for an extension of social insurance ; advocacy of labour parliaments in Italy and, by Mr. Henderson, in Great Britain ; and, in the midst of the general tendency to amalgamation, the growing co-operation of manual and intellectual workers.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The executive committee of the **International Federation of Trade Unions** met at Amsterdam from 3 to 4 February. It was decided to hold a special conference of the Federation at Genoa at the same time as the Genoa Conference of the Powers. The special conference is to consist of the Executive Committee, one representative from each country, and one from each craft international. Its purpose will be to determine the attitude of the Federation towards the questions to be discussed at the Genoa Conference. The next full congress of the Federation opens at Rome on 2 April, when it will discuss reports on the reaction against the 8-hour day, the world crisis and the re-construction of Europe, and the measures to be taken to prevent war.

The **International Transport Workers' Federation** held a second international conference of seamen's organisations at Hamburg on 11 and 12 January ⁽¹⁾. The agenda included the discussion of the international economic situation and the means to be adopted by seamen in order to improve their labour conditions. The conference was attended by delegates from six countries : Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, the Netherlands, Norway, and Sweden. The following resolution was carried unanimously :

The conference declares itself satisfied with the development of the seamen's section of the International Federation of Transport Workers on an autonomous basis. The conference considers that the unemployment which is prevalent among seamen at the present time is a direct consequence of the war and of the peace treaties.

⁽¹⁾ For the previous meeting of this conference, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 455.

It calls the attention of all concerned to the danger which arises from the uncertain situation in central and eastern Europe; from the fluctuation in the rates of exchanges of the different countries; from the inflation of capital in the shipping industry; from the employment of coloured labour at low wages.

The conference also advocated the standardisation of seamen's wages in Europe, and collaboration between harbour workers and seamen, which can be realised with the assistance of other groups of workers affiliated to the International Federation of Transport Workers.

The central committee of the **International Federation of Metal Workers** met at Vienna from 28 to 30 January. Seventeen nations were represented. The secretary stated in his report that endeavours were being made to secure the adherence of American organisations to the Federation, but that so far only one among the twenty metal workers' unions in the United States had affiliated. The reason alleged was that members of American unions take very little interest in international affairs. Neither the Bulgarian, Roumanian, nor Spanish organisations have yet joined the Federation. The delegates of Austria and Poland described the terrible conditions of the workers resulting from their inability to purchase the necessities of life owing to depreciation of the currency. Danish workers are threatened with a serious reduction in wages; the committee, however, are recommending the Federation to afford them moral and financial support.

The proceedings of the committee concluded with a discussion of measures to be taken in case of war, leading to the following resolution, which will be submitted to the Rome Congress of the International Federation of Trade Unions.

(1) Wars must be prevented by a general cessation of work.

(2) The craft internationals are requested to bring before their national organisations, and to declare binding upon all their members, the following resolutions of the Congress:

Trade unionists who are members of craft internationals and the Amsterdam International must cease work in case of war and render its continuance impossible.

All national organisations and craft internationals must everywhere exercise control over the production of munitions of war, whether for civil or military purposes, and must restrict it for military needs, and, as far as possible, reduce it to a minimum for civilian needs.

An international committee is appointed to carry out the above provisions; it will decide the methods of application and the occasion of the cessation of work.

If possible, all the craft organisations and the Bureau of the International Federation of Trade Unions should be represented on this committee.

The committee of the **International Federation of Textile Workers** met on 6 and 7 January at Liberec (Reichenberg) in Czechoslovakia. It decided to increase the rates of subscription, and to allocate three-quarters to the international strike fund. The committee is in communication with unions not yet affiliated to the International Federation, among others, with the Indian, Japanese, and Russian organisations.

The executive of the **International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions** met at Paris on 4 and 5 January. The Executive had before it suggestions for an international policy. These suggestions were approved, and will be submitted to the next international congress, which is to be held from 18 to 26 June at Innsbruck. At this congress

the national federations of Christian trade unions of the different countries and the Christian international federations will be represented; it will be preceded by an international conference of Christian women workers ⁽²⁾.

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

Czechoslovakia.

The seventh congress of the General Confederation of Trade Unions of Czechoslovakia (*Odborové Sdružení Československé*) was held at Prague from 22 to 26 January. Over six hundred delegates took part, representing fifty federations. The total membership of the Confederation at the end of 1920 was 822,561, the most important affiliated federations being those of the metal workers, miners, chemical workers, railwaymen, and textile workers. Sixty-two newspapers are published by the various federations.

The chief subject on the agenda was the affiliation of the Confederation with an international organisation. After lively debates extending over five days, 339 delegates representing 338,447 members voted in favour of remaining affiliated with the Amsterdam International, while 227 delegates representing 222,027 members voted in favour of affiliation with the Moscow International. The new Executive Committee has 15 members, of whom only two are Communists. A motion was unanimously adopted appealing for international action by workers to obtain the liberation of Socialists imprisoned in Hungary, Jugo-Slavia, Spain, and Russia. The resolution further demanded an amnesty for those condemned for their share in the rising of December 1920 in Czechoslovakia.

France.

The National Committee of the General Confederation of Labour (*Confédération générale du Travail*) met at Paris from 13 to 15 February to consider the situation arising from the creation by the seceding 'minority' of a rival organisation known as the General Confederation of United Labour (*Confédération générale du Travail unitaire*). It was reported that, of the 44 national federations members of the Confederation before the scission, 31 have remained affiliated, while 6 have been reorganised (within the Confederation). Of 91 Departmental unions, 44 have remained faithful to the Confederation, 25 have been reorganised within it, and 5 are neutral.

The National Committee discussed and rejected the proposals of the "Unity" Congress of the rival organisation for the summoning of a special confederal congress to consider the question of unity in the trade union movement ⁽³⁾. It then proceeded to decide on the agenda for the next congress of its own Confederation; this will include the revision of the rules of the Confederation, the determination of its national and international programmes, and the means of carrying these out. The minorities of the seceding unions which have been reorganised within the Confederation will be admitted to the forthcoming congress, but not

(2) In this connection attention should be drawn to an error appearing in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 492, in the report of the previous congress of Christian women workers. The last phrase in the paragraph should read "the abolition of the wage earning of married women".

(3) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, pp. 457 and 458.

the seceding unions themselves. On the national programme of the Confederation will be the defence of the 8-hour day, opposition to direct taxation of wages, vindication of the right of association for civil servants, provision for aged workers and those incapacitated by sickness or accident, and establishment of trade union control in the reconstruction of the devastated areas.

Immediately after the meeting of the National Committee, the Executive of the General Confederation of United Labour announced that it would convene a congress before 1 July with the object of restoring the unity of the trade union movement; all unions are invited to attend.

Germany.

There were held at Cassel in January two congresses of German workers employed in gas, electricity, and water undertakings. The first congress, that of the Union of Engineers and Stokers (*Verband der deutschen Maschinisten und Heizer*) was held on 15 January and dealt with the steps being taken to socialise the electrical industry and with the part which must be played by works councils in economic reconstruction. Official statistics for 1919 showed that, of the total production of 25 milliard kilowatt hours of electric current, 6 milliards were produced by public, and 19 by private, undertakings. The second congress, held from 20 to 22 January, was that of the Union of State and Municipal Workers (*Verband der Gemeinde- und Staatsarbeiter*), 67,000 of whose members are in gas, electricity, and water works. It declared itself opposed to any attempts to transfer the control of these undertakings from the municipalities to private concerns, and demanded that the Union should exert every effort to secure the municipalisation of industrial concerns, while recognising the necessity for improving public administration on the technical and industrial side—a task in which the experience of works councils should be utilised. The congress protested against any lengthening of the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week, and demanded that the resolutions of the Washington International Labour Conference of 1919 and of all workers' congresses with respect to the 8-hour day and weekly rest of 36 hours should be strictly observed.

The federation formerly known as the *Reichsverband deutscher Bureau- und Behördenangestellten* has undergone a complete reorganisation, and as from 1 January 1922 is to be entitled the National Federation of Clerks and Officials (*Reichsverband der Bureauangestellten und Beamten*). The Federation is affiliated to the Federation of Christian Trade Unions, and will include three national unions of clerks, employees in the public services, and civil servants respectively.

Great Britain.

The proposals recently formulated by the General Council of the *Trades Union Congress* with a view to united action in industrial disputes are being laid before the executives of the constituent unions, which are expected to reply early in March. The proposals refer particularly to those disputes in which national standards of wages and hours, of importance to the trade unions as a whole, are concerned. The objection to isolated action is not only that it is relatively weak finan-

cially and industrially, but that it may prejudice the position of other unions, who have not been consulted beforehand.

The text of the proposals is as follows :

Action of the General Council in defence of Affiliated Bodies.

(1) Information of Disputes and Consultation.

In order that the General Council may . . . be kept fully informed of what is taking place in the different industries, it is necessary —

(a) that the affiliated bodies shall notify the General Council of disputes as they arise, and keep the Council informed of the progress of negotiations at each stage, so that the Council may be in possession of the facts of the dispute, and so, in consultation with the union, be ready to render such assistance as the circumstances may require.

(b) that the Council shall call into consultation, at any period of a dispute, the representatives of the union or unions concerned.

(2) Question of Financial Support : Defence Fund.

That consideration be given to the question of the General Council being empowered to impose a levy on the movement, if this is found necessary, in order to assist any affiliated union or unions to resist an attack on national standards of general importance to the movement as a whole, the fund so raised to be under the control of the General Council of the Trades Union Congress.

A new amalgamation has been formed by the merging of the National Union of Dock, Riverside, and General Workers in the *Transport and General Workers' Union*, which will now have about 495,000 members, belonging to fourteen unions concerned in road and water transport. Group autonomy within the organisation will, however, be largely preserved. There is a group for each of the following six divisions : docks ; waterways ; road transport ; road passenger transport ; commercial, clerical and administrative ; general workers. The group committees advise the central executive of the Union, but leave to the latter control over finance and policy. Each group is, however, represented by a delegate on the central executive. The point of view of the group will therefore be adequately considered, while united action will be secured with regard to aims common to the whole Union.

The Civil Service Association has amalgamated with the *Civil Service Union*. The new body will include 17,000 clerical workers in government employment, excluding temporary staff. This amalgamation, which is the fourth to take place within about a year, shows the tendency of civil servants to substitute a more comprehensive form of organisation for grade combinations. Alliance with the Labour Party is to be maintained—the total number of civil servants associated with the Party is now over 100,000—and at least one candidate will be put forward by the combined unions at the next general election.

Italy.

The Italian Confederation of Workers (*Confederazione italiana dei lavoratori*) recently proposed to the International Confederation of Christian Unions that it should demand the admission to the Genoa Conference of representatives of the Christian unions. The proposal was accepted, and the Italian Confederation, in accordance with instructions, requested the Italian Minister of Labour to communicate the demand for representation to the governments concerned.

The following are the main points of the programme recently published (4) by the Confederation of Economic Trade Unions (*Confederazione italiana dei sindacati economici*). (1) Gradual transformation of the political parliament into a labour parliament with proportional representation of the various organisations and due consideration for the rights of minorities ; (2) legal recognition of trade union organisations whose object is to provide their members with the training required for the exercise of liberty within the state ; (3) protection of workers ; defence of the concessions obtained by them, including that of the 8-hour day ; establishment of schools for vocational and social training in order to make the workers realise their responsibilities towards the nation ; (4) application and development of social insurance ; financial participation of the state in compulsory insurance ; (5) development of agricultural production.

On 24 January a conference of trade unions connected with the *Fascisti* movement was held at Bologna. A resolution was carried to the effect that all who labour for the spiritual, moral, and material welfare of mankind are to be considered as workers, and as such are entitled to admission to trade union organisations ; further, that the prosperity of society as a whole takes precedence of that of individuals and classes, and therefore the legitimacy of the aims of the latter is conditional upon their not conflicting with the superior interests of society. It was decided to establish a national federation with separate sections for industrial workers, agricultural workers, commercial workers, seamen, and the bourgeois and intellectual classes.

An amalgamation is contemplated of the General Federation of Bank Clerks (*Confederazione generale dei bancari*) with the National Union of Non-Manual Workers in Industry, to form an organisation of non-manual workers, which would then unite with the independent unions of manual workers under the title of the Italian Workers' Alliance (*Alleanza lavoratori italiani*). Two unions would be formed in the first place, one for non-manual and the other for manual workers. These two unions would combine later for the purpose of realising a programme including legal recognition of all trade union organisations ; recognition of the rights of non-manual workers in private industry and of the right of security of tenure ; adequate provision for old age ; adoption of a system of profit-sharing with the object of improving production ; introduction of workers' control in banking and industrial establishments ; right of representation on public bodies.

In November 1921 a national congress of the unions of workers employed in food industries (millers, confectioners, chocolate makers, etc.) was held at Bologna, with a view to the amalgamation of all these unions. More than 30,000 workers were represented. It was unanimously decided to amalgamate all the organisations represented in one union to be called the Federation of Workers employed in the Italian Food Industries (*Federazione dei lavoratori delle industrie alimentari d'Italia*). The new organisation came into being on 1 January 1922. It is affiliated with the General Confederation of Labour.

The Railwaymen's Union (*Associazione sindacale dei ferrovieri*) held its second national congress at Naples in December 1921. The most

(4) See *La Voce dei Sindacati nazionali*, 1 Jan. 1922. Milan.

important question that came up for discussion was that of the legal recognition of railwaymen's unions. The view of the congress, embodied in a resolution, was that the state should grant legal recognition to the various unions, and arrange for the representation on public bodies of each in proportion to its numerical strength.

Serb, Croat, and Slovene State.

At a meeting at Beigrade on 11 January the principal trade union federations of the Serb, Croat, and Slovene State decided to combine to form a single Confederation affiliated with the Amsterdam International ; in consequence, the number of Jugo-Slav workers affiliated will be increased from 25,000 to 50,000.

Spain.

The ninth congress of the National Federation of Metal Workers (*Federacion nacional de metalurgicos*) was held at Madrid from 20 to 23 January. The resolutions approved by the congress recommended the following measures for the alleviation of the unemployment crisis : unemployment insurance ; execution of all schemes for work of national importance, e. g. the extension of the railway system, involving 18,000 kilometres of new lines, and construction of roads and bridges ; the placing of government orders for supplies with Spanish firms ; increase in government grants to organisations for the building and improvement of working-class houses. The congress also proposed to introduce in Parliament a Bill for workers' control in industry, which would give unions the right to intervene in all matters connected with the management and administration of industries. Other resolutions recommended the abolition of piece work and overtime save in exceptional cases, and an increase in the inheritance tax in order to accumulate funds so that workers may be able to draw their old age pensions on the date fixed by the regulations. The conclusions arrived at by the congress were submitted to the Ministry of Labour by a committee appointed for the purpose.

At the end of 1921 the General Union of Workers (*Union general de trabajadores*) had a membership of 243,000, an increase of 20,000 since 1920. Several important federations have recently become affiliated. The largest organisations in the Union are those of agricultural workers, with 61,327 members, and miners, with 53,846. The Union belongs to the International Federation of Trade Unions of Amsterdam.

United States.

The twenty-fifth annual convention of the *International Seamen's Union* of America opened on 9 January in Chicago. The president's report for 1921 dealt with the Union's negotiations with the United States Shipping Board and the shipowners regarding conditions of labour, hours, and, more especially, wages. In these negotiations the Union had ultimately to accept the terms offered to them, involving very considerable wage reductions. It was stated that, in consequence, the proportion of American citizens in the American mercantile marine has

fallen from 60 per cent. on 1 December 1920 to 18 per cent. at the end of 1921. The lock-out in the summer of 1921 and the unemployment occasioned by the depression in American shipping have severely affected the membership of the Union, which fell from 115,000 in 1920 to 50,000 at the end of 1921.

Employers' Organisations

THE necessity of reducing costs appears to be the chief consideration at present engaging the attention of employers' organisations. In most cases it is stated that inability to meet foreign competition dictates this policy, and that if it is not followed unemployment results. Wage reductions, opposition to the imposition of further pecuniary burdens on industry, insistence on greater productivity, and the movement for the elimination of waste in industry are among the various means advocated to attain this end.

Czechoslovakia.

The central committee of delegates of affiliated organisations and sections of the Central Association of Czechoslovak Manufacturers (*Ustredne svaz csl prumysl'niku v Praze*) met at Prague on 24 January 1922. Mr. Hodac, in an address on the industrial conditions of Czechoslovakia, discussed the possible effects of the rise in value of the Czechoslovak krone brought about by the excess of exports over imports. Among other things he anticipated that the sale of products of Czechoslovak industry abroad would become more difficult. The growth of unemployment showed that this was already the case, the number of persons affected having increased from 22,000 in November 1921 to 33,000 by the middle of December. The industries most affected were the leather and boot and shoe trade, textiles, particularly woollen goods, and the glass and chemical industry. In Mr. Hodac's opinion there was only one means of meeting this danger, that being to reduce general costs in each of the industries mentioned so as to enable them to meet the competition of German and Austrian products. This reduction in costs, unacceptable as it might be to the workers, must be insisted upon in the interests of the national industry.

Another speaker outlined the position of the coal industry in Czechoslovakia. Although production had been increased by about 1,500,000 metric tons in the course of 1921, the general situation from a financial point of view was not satisfactory. A reduction of working costs, and in particular of wages, was indispensable. The speaker took as an example the salutary effect of the reduction of wages during the latter months of the previous year on the market of Great Britain. It was necessary to remember that the mines in Upper Silesia were formidable competitors with the Czechoslovak mining industry. At the close of this report the meeting adopted a resolution demanding such reduction in wages as could be effected without inflicting undue

hardship upon the miners. They expressed themselves in favour of the principle of automatic reduction of wages in proportion to the reduction in the cost of living.

Finland.

The Federation of Finnish Employers (*Arbetsgivarnas i Finland Centralförbund*) has decided to recommence the publication of *Industritidningen*, a bi-monthly paper dealing with questions connected with the state of the industrial labour market, social legislation, and political and economic subjects generally. It is announced that particular attention will be given to the various aspects of these questions abroad, especially in the Scandinavian countries, as also to the work of the International Labour Organisation. It will be the special object of the new publication to maintain contact between the various elements composing Finnish industry and to further the purposeful action which is now considered particularly necessary to prevent the introduction of rules and regulations injurious to industry and consequently to the prosperity of the entire country. Among the various efforts being made to obtain legislation of this character the 8-hour Act is especially referred to as having had bad results everywhere.

France.

On 23 December 1921 the Insurance and Social Welfare Committee of the French Chamber of Deputies received a deputation from the Association of Mining and Metal Industries (*Union des industries métallurgiques et minières*), which expressed the views of the 6,000 members of the Association on the Government Social Insurance Bill. The delegates emphasised the desire of the employers to contribute to the success of the contemplated social reform. They drew attention to the activities of the various institutions set up by private initiative or organised by employers, claiming that these provided for all the risks covered in the new Bill. Legislation in the interests of uniformity, possibly involving the abolition of some of these institutions, might fail to take account of the diversity of local conditions and thereby injure rather than benefit the wage earners. They proposed that the Bill should apply only to sickness, invalidity, and old age insurance, each of which should be as far as possible separately organised and placed upon an industrial basis.

The deputation criticised certain of the principles on which the Bill is based, notably the division of the cost of insurance equally between employers and workers, since only the workers benefit by it. They also suggested that the system had too much the appearance of a fresh attempt at state control, and that the increase in the number of officials involved would deplete the working forces of the country. Certain details of the machinery of the proposed insurance system were also criticised. It was urged that 10,000 francs as the income limit below which insurance is to be compulsory was too high, that the financial basis of the Bill was unsound, that the compulsory principle was undesirable, and that the system of deduction of contributions from wages would be opposed by the workers.

In considering the probable economic and financial effects of the Bill, the deputation declared that industry could not at present bear an increase in costs amounting to 10 per cent. of the wage bill. It had

been shown that the application of the Bill would involve an increase in costs of production in the metal industries of 5 or 6 per cent., an impossible burden for the smaller undertakings.

Great Britain.

On 9 February the Executive Committee of the *Federation of British Industries* adopted a report on the earnings of labour and costs of production. The report concludes that the present world depression is attributable to lack of balance in the world's markets with consequent under-production; unsound government finances resulting in chaotic exchanges; and, in certain countries, the low ratio of output to wages, which means that at present values the individual is producing less than he consumes. The last factor is attributed in part to loss of individual efficiency through the effects of the war, in part to the increase of wage rates at the same time as the reduction of hours, and in part to restrictive trade union regulations and the unwillingness of the individual worker to increase his output when a certain level of wages has been reached. The report states that the output per head in Great Britain must be raised to a level at least as satisfactory as that attained on the Continent, which will require greater concentration on the part of the workers and improved organisation on the part of the employers.

As wages are by far the largest element in costs of production, the report claims that a substantial reduction in wage costs is an essential condition for a reduction in prices. This reduction can be effected either by reducing wage rates or by the workers increasing output for the wages they now receive. The report affirms that wage rates must ultimately be regulated by what the industry can bear. Insistence upon a particular rate of wages which the industry can no longer afford to pay will only cause unemployment. The report goes on to say that if prices are to be reduced without impairing the standard of living, the workers must be prepared to give a higher output per head and, if necessary, to extend working hours. In some trades it might be necessary to go even further, and for the workers to be prepared to accept a money wage which, until business revived, might give them a lower standard of living than that which prevailed before the trade depression or even before the war.

The report adds:

We realise that in asking this we are inviting the workers of the country to make a considerable sacrifice and that we can only do so with any hope of success if the workers will realise that employers and shareholders have already undergone, and are still undergoing, similar sacrifices.

The report concludes by recommending that, in every trade where the step has not already been taken, employers should immediately meet the representatives of their workpeople, inform them frankly of the position, and endeavour by this means to arrive at a fair division of the burden which must be shouldered by both parties if business is to be revived.

Italy.

The General Assembly of the General Confederation of Italian Industry (*Confederazione generale dell' industria italiana*) was held on 28 January at Rome. The secretary, in his report, referred to the

reorganisation of the Confederation in two branches. The first branch is concerned mainly with relations with workers' organisations, labour agreements, and industrial disputes; the second with social insurance, labour statistics, the publication of the journal of the Confederation, and the collection of general information.

The secretary summarised the general considerations which had influenced the Confederation on the subject of the workers' share in industrial control. Regarding such control as inimical to discipline, inasmuch as the workers' organisations considered it a step towards revolution and the abolition of the present economic system, the employers' organisations had considered it their duty to oppose such action with all the means at their disposal. On the question of the employment of disabled soldiers, while in favour of such employment, the report suggests that due consideration should be given to the gravity of the present crisis and the necessity of reducing the numbers of industrial workers. It then deals with the Bill introduced by the Government for the prevention, through the agency of co-operative societies, of speculation in commodities. The secretary of the Confederation proposed that the principle underlying this Bill should be opposed. Co-operation should always be made to hold its own in the economic world, as otherwise co-operative organisations would inevitably spring up which were economically and technically incapable of competing with private enterprise. It was also complained that in certain quarters attempts were being made to extend the scope of social insurance regardless of difficulties of application and the increased cost to industry.

On the subject of unemployment and wage reductions, it was pointed out that, largely owing to the depreciation in the value of the lira, the economic depression had been less severe in Italy than elsewhere. Wage reductions had been put into force in spite of the opposition of the workers, but had taken place later in Italy than in other countries, and averaged no more than 15 per cent. of the wages paid before the war. The secretary of the Confederation stated that it was impossible to maintain national agreements during periods of depression owing to changes in industrial conditions in the various districts. It had therefore been necessary to institute a system adaptable to labour conditions in various localities and industries, which system would be maintained in the following year. It was also stated that relations between capital and labour had been less strained than during the previous year, mainly owing to the changed attitude of the workers, which was affected by the news from Russia, the realisation, after the occupation of the factories, that violent methods were unprofitable, and the split between the Communist and Socialist parties.

Netherlands.

A general meeting of the Federation of Associations of Manufacturers of the Netherlands (*Verbond van Nederlandsche Fabrikanten-Verreeningingen*) was held on 9 November 1921 at Utrecht. Mr. Haex, director of the Limbourg Coal Mining Company, expressed doubt as to the desirability of the Bill introduced into the Second Chamber for the ratification of the Washington Convention concerning hours of employment. He anticipated that it would be necessary to introduce more stringent clauses on hours of employment, overtime, and other conditions of labour, and, while admitting the cogency of the Government's argument that if hours of employment were subject to international

regulation difficulties of competition would disappear, he did not consider that a sufficient number of countries had ratified, or intended to ratify, this Convention. The following resolution was unanimously adopted :

The general meeting of the Federation of Associations of Manufacturers of the Netherlands, realising that there is reason to fear that important industrial states, such as Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and the United States, will not ratify the Convention on hours of employment ; that if this Convention is ratified by the Netherlands industry will be confronted with still greater difficulties ; that the cost of production will increase ; the possibility of production will be reduced ; the power of the Netherlands to compete in the world markets will decrease ; and the general wellbeing be seriously menaced :

Considers that this reform is particularly undesirable in view of present economic conditions ;

And accordingly recommends that the Bill authorising the Government to ratify the draft Convention concerning hours of employment be rejected.

Sweden.

In a letter addressed to the Government dated 23 November 1921 the Swedish Employers' Federation (*Svenska Arbetsgivareforening*) draws attention to the wage policy at present adopted in connection with state-relief works. The Federation declares that the general instructions which were issued by the Government and by Parliament on this subject, have not been followed, and that the principle that there should be a difference between wages in the open market and those paid on relief works, which was insisted upon by the Unemployment Commission when drawing up the Government proposals, and later approved by the Government and by Parliament, is no longer observed. As most of the relief works are in the country, the Employers' Federation points out that agricultural wages must be taken as the maximum in fixing wages to be paid to workers employed on relief works, if the principle laid down by Parliament is to be observed. Unlike agricultural workers, who have no opportunity of working at piece rates, workers on relief works are employed to a very great extent on piece work, which enables them to earn 7 to 8 kronor a day, and in certain cases as much as 9 kronor, while agricultural workers earn only 5.40 kronor in a 9-hour day.

The Employers' Federation states that this wage policy has produced the very situation which it was intended to avoid, relief works now competing with the open market and drawing labour away from it. In certain branches of industry this competition has been felt less than in agriculture ; but it has been noticeable in industry also, especially in undertakings in the country, or in those which are closely connected with agriculture.

United States.

The Thirty-Sixth Annual Convention of the *United Typothetae of America*, held at Toronto from 17 to 21 October 1921, mention of which was made in last month's article in connection with a resolution opposing the 44-hour week, gave particular attention to the subject of education. The majority of the addresses at the Convention dealt with the education of apprentices, and resolutions were adopted on vocational education, uniform apprenticeship laws, and apprenticeship training.

The aims of the Association were enlarged by the addition of the following passage to the constitution.

To promote education in the printing trades by the instruction of apprentices ; the preparation and publication of lesson sheets, text books, and other like literature ; the conduct of schools ; the spread of information amongst its members ; co-operation with institutions of learning engaged in vocational training ; and to issue certificates of proficiency to students of educational courses.

The President of the United Typothetae gave his reasons for advocating such steps :

If we will but teach a sufficient number of boys and young men the several trades making up our great industry, we will thereby provide a stone-wall insurance against any further unreasonable demands on the part of the labour unions, and we will not be called upon to defend the public's just rights for a fair day's work in our industry. Until the present time we were confronted by the restrictions of the unions as to the number of apprentices allowed in a shop ; now that the pendulum has swung the other way, and we have so large a number of non-union and open shops in which there are no restrictions, we have the opportunity to correct this unfavourable situation quickly, and, therefore, the responsibility is our very own.

According to the report of the Secretary of the Association, as a result of two and a half years of intensive organisation, the membership of the United Typothetae has grown from scarcely more than 1,600 plants to 5,000, grouped in 135 local organisations.

The Committee of Industrial Relations of the *New Jersey State Chamber of Commerce*, in a report made public on 31 January, cautions all employers to avoid "non-union coercion", to keep clear of the various "open shop movements" and to co-operate with the workers in every possible way. The report shows that there are three roads open to employers ; the road of constructive achievement within the shop, that of instructive co-operation between organisations of employers and of workers, and that of the "open shop". This last movement, in the opinion of the Committee, is "undermining the confidence of labour in employers, and ruining the foundation for co-operation between them". It is pointed out that similar campaigns in former periods of depression have only resulted in the redoubled growth of unionism and the adoption of more extreme measures in the periods of prosperity which followed. The Committee strongly urges the maintenance of personnel departments in all big industries, and proposes the employment of experts to deal with the problems of employers and employees. The report, which was written after a survey of nine months, has been approved by the Executive Committee and adopted by the Trustees of the State Chamber of Commerce.

A committee of the *Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce* has submitted a plan for the establishment of additional industrial clinics under public administration. The committee is confident that a practical plan can be worked out which would effectively reduce the losses caused by accidents and injury to health occurring in the workplace. It is held that such a plan must include provision for carefully trained and intelligent first-aid organisations available to all industrial workers in the cities ; for consistent and well-directed treatment of serious cases ; for careful diagnosis, study, and treatment of cases of sickness occurring in the workplace ; and for knowledge concerning the individual worker

which would enable the employer to avoid placing him upon work for which he is not physically fitted. The report adds :

The importance of the problem dealt with herein may be appreciated from the fact that during the years 1916, 1917, and 1918, and part of the year's record for 1919, in Pennsylvania, there where \$23,105,998 paid out or due by insurance carriers for compensation and medical expenses for the industrially injured. This required payments to be made by employers of \$51,886,706. These payments were for compensable accidents numbering 122,851, of which 3,851 resulted in deaths, but the great bulk of which caused disability of from ten days to two years, and could, in a large proportion of cases, have been entirely eliminated as compensable cases by proper first aid and medical attention.

A number of conventions of employers' associations recently held in the United States have dealt particularly with the elimination of waste in industry. The question was considered at the convention of the *National Boot and Shoe Manufacturers' Association* held in New York on 17 January 1922. One speaker considered that two features especially require attention ; uneven flow of work, and irregularity of piece rates. He stated that in one representative factory increases in piece rates since 1914 had varied from 12 to 260 per cent. General standardisation of methods was essential, involving adjustment of wage levels and the analysis, comparison, and scientific adjustment of piece rates.

At the annual convention of the *Associated General Contractors of America* held at Cleveland, Ohio, from 17 to 19 January, the chairman of the Federated Engineering Societies also spoke on industrial waste. He referred to the report of the Committee on the Elimination of Waste in Industry, set up by the Federated American Engineering Societies, which attributed 50 per cent. of the waste in industry to management and only 25 per cent. to labour. A particularly noticeable source of waste in the building trade arose from constant changes in personnel, and he recommended measures to increase the period of active work so that employment would become more continuous the whole year round. He stated also that management was responsible for the prevention of accidents in industry ; a "safety first" campaign not only had its humanitarian effect, but resulted in a saving. This was recognised in the various workmen's compensation Acts, in which the cost of death and accident was directly paid by the industry and became one of its charges. The lower this charge, the less would be the cost of production.



PRODUCTION AND PRICES⁽¹⁾

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

THE latest available cost of living index numbers for different countries show that prices generally are still falling almost everywhere except in some central and eastern European countries, where they are still rising. In Finland, Italy, and Poland, where they were recently rising, there has been a slight fall in the last few months. The fall is general in all the separate groups of commodities except rents, which remain constant or show a slight upward tendency.

A general review of the situation is given in the following table, which gives food index numbers for different countries for December 1920, December 1921 and January 1922. The countries are arranged in ascending order of magnitude of the figures for December 1921. Food has been chosen in preference to cost of living, because the food index numbers vary less in the items included and are, therefore, more suitable for international comparisons. Further, food forms the largest item in the budget of working-class families and may, therefore, failing other data, be taken as a fair indication of the movement of the cost of living. The cost of living index number for Bulgaria has been included, since the only items covered by it, other than food, are heating and lighting.

Country	December 1920	December 1921	January 1922
South Africa	188	125	—
United States	175	147	139
Canada	200	149	143
New Zealand	179	150	147
Netherlands	202	150	148
India	178	176	169
United Kingdom	278	185	179
Switzerland	230	187	176
Denmark	276	*	197
Sweden	286	202	189
Norway	342	268	257
France (Paris)	424	323	319
» (320 towns)	450	349	—
Belgium	511	438	417
Italy: Rome	375	458	469
» Milan	535	567	558
Finland	1,233	1,198	1,123
Czechoslovakia	1,643 (*)	1,544	—
Germany	1,272	2,088	2,219
Bulgaria	1,618 (*)	2,187	—
Austria	—	60,300	—
Poland	19,613	74,626	73,681

(*) January 1921.

(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.

These figures show that the countries where the index number is nearest to its pre-war level—the increase being 25 to 50 per cent.—are non-European countries. The Netherlands, with an increase of about 50 per cent. over the pre-war level, is the only European country in the same class. The Bombay index number, after minor fluctuations during the year, remains about 75 per cent. above pre-war level. In the United Kingdom the increase is about 80 per cent. The neutral European countries, especially Norway, are at even higher levels. The ex-belligerent countries, other than the United Kingdom, come last on the list, and fall into three groups. The first consists of France and Belgium, whose index numbers, in spite of small rises, have on the whole fallen during 1921, and Italy. These three countries show a substantially lower level of prices than the second group, which consists of Finland, Czechoslovakia, Germany, and Bulgaria. The last group consists of Austria and Poland, where prices have passed all limits.

NOTES ON THE METHOD OF COMPILING THE COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS IN THE TABLES

The following tables show for certain months from 1914 to 1922 the index numbers of the cost of living in different countries, and the index numbers of the chief groups of expenditure which make up the total, such as food, rent, clothing, heating and lighting. No figures are given for the remaining items, which are generally classified under the term "miscellaneous", as the items included in different countries are too varied to permit of any comparison. In one country, Canada, only one item (starch) is included in addition to the chief groups (food, rent, etc.), while in the United States 44 additional items are included. The number of countries given in the different tables varies according to the information available, the number for which statistics are available as to the movement of prices for clothing, heating and lighting, and rent being much smaller than the number which publish index numbers of the cost of food.

The index numbers in tables I to V have a pre-war base period. Wherever possible, the common base July 1914=100 has been taken. In addition, tables VI and VII give index numbers calculated for a post-war base period, which, wherever possible, is taken as December 1920=100.

The paragraphs which follow give for each country a short account of the scope of the index number and the method of compilation used. From these notes it will be seen that considerable differences exist, not only in the number and kind of articles included and the sources from which prices are collected, but also in the methods employed, especially in the systems of weighting used. It is therefore necessary to insist on caution in using the figures for comparison between countries.

The object of the index numbers in most cases is to measure the changes in the cost of an unchanged standard of living. For this purpose it is necessary to know first the quantities of the different items included, and secondly the prices of these items from time to time. The prices having been obtained, the results are obtained by "weighting" the absolute or relative prices according to the importance of the various items included. The importance is measured either by the quantities consumed, or by the amounts expended on them. The three chief methods used for assigning weights to the various prices are:

Standard Budget Method. The weights are fixed by means of an enquiry into the actual amounts spent by a number of families;

Theoretical Budget Method. The weights are based on partial information or on theoretical consideration, e. g. the minimum standard necessary for healthy existence. In the case of food the nutritive value in calories may be taken ;

Aggregate Expenditure Method. The weights are based on the statistics of production, imports and exports. From these statistics there is determined the relative importance in the country of all the different items (except rent) entering into the expenditure of the community.

It is obviously impossible to take account of every item entering into expenditure, and therefore a selection is made of the most important representative items. The number of such items varies considerably from country to country and their number is indicated in the following notes in brackets.

South Africa : Quarterly Summary of Union 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 for 1914 to 1917 refers to the yearly average ; for 1918, 1919 and 1920, to the month of August ; and for 1921 to February. Base : 1910=1000.

Germany : *Wirtschaft und Statistik*.

(a) Official index number (tables I and II). Groups included in the budget : food (13), heating and lighting (2), and rent. The prices are collected from a large number of towns with the help of the municipal statistical offices ; the index number for the whole country is, however, based on reports from 39 towns only until 1921, and from 47 afterwards. Official prices are used for State-controlled commodities ; when the official ration is less than the amount in the standard budget, the balance is reckoned at the trade price, either ordinary or illicit. An average price for each commodity for the whole country is calculated by taking the mean of the average prices in different towns, weighted with the population of the towns. The general index number is the average of these average prices, weighted according to a theoretical budget for a family of four persons. The monthly food index numbers refer to the 15th of the month. 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 in the tables have been calculated 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. 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. Base : August 1913 to July 1914=100.

Australia : Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics.

Only two distinct groups are included : rent ; and food and groceries (46). The latter group includes, in addition to 41 items of food, 2 of lighting and 3 of laundry.

The prices for the different towns are obtained directly, under compulsory powers, from the principal retailers with a large working-class trade, detailed enquiry forms being sent to them regularly. The system of weighting is that of pre-war aggregate expenditure, estimated with great accuracy. The index numbers in the tables have been calculated from the data giving the purchasing power of money for the various groups of commodities. The figures are quarterly averages in the case of cost of living and monthly averages in the case of food. Base : 1911=100.

INDEX NUMBERS WITH PRE-WAR BASE PERIOD
(Base shifted to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

TABLE I. COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (6 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 towns) (a)	Bulgaria (12 towns)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	United States (51 towns)	Finland (20 towns)
		(47 towns)	(Berlin)								
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
July 1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
1915	403	*	*	408	*	*	*	97	416	405	*
1916	406	*	*	416	*	*	*	402	436	448	*
1917	414	*	*	413	*	*	*	430	455	442	*
1918	418	*	*	448	*	*	*	446	482	474	*
1919	426	*	*	429	*	*	*	455	241	477	*
1920	459	842	4425	453	*	453	*	490	262	217	944
1921											
Jan.	453	944	4422	*	*	450	4648	475	264	*	4065
Feb.	449	904	4090	*	*	438	4596	468	*	*	4013
Mar.	447	904	4035	458	8100	441	4506	465	*	*	4027
Apr.	444	894	976	*	*	399	4564	461	*	*	4008
May	444	880	990	*	*	389	4570	453	*	480	4012
June	436	896	4080	449	9800	384	4666	452	*	*	4051
July	433	963	4425	*	*	379	4642	455	237	*	4139
Aug.	430	4045	4477	*	*	384	4762	458	*	*	4475
Sept.	430	4062	4242	443	*	386	4896	455	*	477	4205
Oct.	428	4446	4340	—	20500	391	2038	452	*	*	4208
Nov.	427	4397	4767	—	—	394	2449	452	*	*	4462
Dec.	424	4550	4934	—	59400	393	2187	—	*	474	4403
1922											
Jan.	—	4640	—	—	—	387	—	449	242	—	4055
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	380	—	—	—	—	—
Mar.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Apr.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (6 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 t.) (a)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	United States (51 towns)	Finland (20 towns)	France (a)	
		(47 towns)	(Berlin)								(Paris)	(320 t.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
July 1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
1915	407	*	*	418	*	*	405	428	98	*	420	423
1916	416	*	*	430	*	*	444	446	409	*	429	442
1917	428	*	*	422	*	*	457	466	443	*	483	484
1918	434	*	*	432	*	*	475	487	464	*	206	244
1919	439	*	*	446	*	*	486	212	486	*	264	289
1920	497	4456	4377	479	*	459	227	253	245	982	373	388
1921												
Jan.	472	4265	4439	*	*	493	490	276	469	4474	440	*
Feb.	465	4494	4357	*	*	482	478	*	455	4407	382	*
Mar.	460	4488	4346	484	8400	434	472	*	454	4437	358	429
Apr.	456	4474	4235	*	*	417	465	*	449	4407	328	*
May	452	4452	4244	*	*	407	450	*	442	4447	317	*
June	444	4475	4449	468	9800	449	448	*	444	4447	342	363
July	439	4274	4344	*	*	440	454	236	445	4278	306	*
Aug.	434	4399	4592	*	*	427	459	*	452	4324	317	*
Sept.	433	4448	4653	458	*	423	455	*	450	4359	329	350
Oct.	434	4532	4796	—	50700	434	449	*	450	4357	334	*
Nov.	429	4914	2927	—	—	442	448	*	449	4286	326	*
Dec.	425	2088	2544	—	60300	438	449	*	447	4498	323	349
1922												
Jan.	—	2219	—	—	—	447	443	497	439	4423	349	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	307	—
Mar.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Apr.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(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".

INDEX NUMBERS WITH PRE-WAR BASE PERIOD
(Base shifted to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

TABLE I (cont.). COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

France (Paris) (a)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns) (a)	Nether- lands (Amsterdam) (a)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (40 towns)	Switzer- land (23 towns)	Date
(13)	(14)	(Rome) (15)	(Milan) (16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)
400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	July
*	*	99	*	447	407	*	*	425	*	449	1914
*	*	446	*	446	444	*	*	448	439	440	1915
*	*	446	*	490	449	442	*	480	466	480	1916
*	*	497	286	253	427	483	*	203	249	229	1917
238	*	205	280	275	432	495	*	208	257	264	1918
344	489	343	444	302	449	247	*	255	270	253	1919
											1920
											1921
*	469	374	574	*	*	*	44084	254	*	237	Jan.
*	462	379	566	*	*	*	47024	244	*	234	Feb.
338	460	384	568	304	460	*	47974	233	249	231	Mar.
*	460	444	578	*	*	*	47244	228	*	242	Apr.
*	467	396	574	*	*	*	47909	249	*	240	May
307	473	390	506	302	457	*	20270	249	236	244	June
*	477	387	494	*	*	*	25709	222	*	209	July
*	480	394	501	*	*	*	30407	220	*	206	Aug.
295	485	400	520	296	456	*	39847	240	234	200	Sept.
—	483	445	535	*	—	*	48656	203	*	198	Oct.
—	482	423	544	*	—	*	47628	199	*	192	Nov.
297	479	423	539	283	—	*	46740	192	246	189	Dec.
											1922
—	473	430	523	—	*	—	46883	488	—	479	Jan.
—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—	Feb.
—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—	Mar.
—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—	Apr.
—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—	May
—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—	—	June

TABLE II (cont.). FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns) (a)	Nether- lands (Amsterdam) (a)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (40 towns)	Switzer- land (23 towns)	Czecho- slovakia (30 towns)	Date
(14)	(Rome) (15)	(Milan) (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	*	132	424	449	*	1914
*	444	454	453	449	447	*	164	436	444	*	1915
*	437	240	203	427	446	*	204	471	479	*	1916
*	203	324	274	439	475	*	240	265	222	*	1917
*	206	304	290	444	496	*	209	342	250	*	1918
*	348	445	349	467	240	*	262	288	239	*	1919
											1920
											1921
463	367	571	334	478	493	23140	263	275	224	4643	Jan.
456	376	564	308	475	494	34827	249	255	221	4494	Feb.
454	386	582	299	469	493	32883	238	247	248	4423	Mar.
454	432	598	300	469	487	34744	232	242	244	4450	Apr.
462	424	598	292	468	484	32640	248	232	208	4456	May
469	400	523	290	466	480	35393	220	234	213	4445	June
474	402	506	295	464	480	45655	226	230	207	4346	July
477	447	548	297	463	479	53100	225	234	204	4362	Aug.
483	430	545	290	461	479	60728	210	228	198	4474	Sept.
480	464	564	288	456	468	75174	200	248	496	4519	Oct.
479	459	570	281	452	454	75848	195	210	489	4544	Nov.
476	458	567	268	450	450	74626	185	202	487	4544	Dec.
											1922
469	469	538	257	447	448	73684	479	489	476	—	Jan.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	488	—	—	Feb.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Mar.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Apr.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	May
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	June

(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".

INDEX NUMBERS WITH PRE-WAR BASE PERIOD
(Base shifted to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	Germany (Berlin)	Austria (Vienna)	Denmark (100 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	1090	318
Dec. »	2188	111300	225	—	1107	318

TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS

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
Déc. »	—	1211	*	220	578	195	1443	349
Mar. 1921	176	1211	5000	208	*	*	1266	319
June »	—	1316	5900	196	401	182	1283	308
Sept. »	—	1368	10700	190	*	181	1264	307
Dec. »	—	2158	34000	—	333	—	1262	306

TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS

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	330	141	141	159	535
Sept. »	—	182	123	600	143	*	160	596
Dec. »	—	182	—	600	—	141	—	603

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

INDEX NUMBERS WITH PRE-WAR BASE PERIOD
(Base shifted to July 1914 = 100 as far as possible)

TABLE III (cont.). CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS

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	495	532	292	290	270	June	»
268	—	534	280	265	250	Sept.	»
261	—	563	271	250	240	Dec.	»

TABLE IV (cont.). HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS

India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 t.)	New Zealand (4 towns)	United Kingdom (30 t.)	Sweden (40 towns)	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	115	»	1915
*	—	*	204	108	—	157	129	»	1916
*	—	*	348	123	—	218	182	»	1917
*	160	220	476	136	—	293	302	»	1918
*	—	220	316	145	—	295	372	»	1919
151	178	611	477	177	230	386	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	199	260	264	220	June	»
176	—	899	337	200	238	231	221	Sept.	»
174	—	828	311	—	225	207	218	Dec.	»

TABLE V (cont.). RENT INDEX NUMBERS

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (30 t.)	New Zealand (25 t.)	United Kingdom (25 t.)	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.	»
133	165	—	184	166	—	155	163	Dec.	»

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

INDEX NUMBERS WITH POST-WAR BASE PERIOD
(Base shifted to December 1920 = 100 as far as possible)

TABLE VI. COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	Italy		Netherlands		Poland		
	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	38 towns	Lodz	Posen
Dec. 1920	100	100	100	100	*	*	100
Jan. 1921	105	101	*	*	100	*	110
Feb. »	107	102	*	*	120	100	119
March »	108	106	95	95	121	98	122
April »	111	109	*	*	119	93	137
May »	112	108	*	*	118	86	144
June »	100	100	95	94	137	96	185
July »	97	96	*	*	175	135	337
Aug. »	97	98	*	*	200	152	467
Sept. »	101	99	94	90	255	216	645
Oct. »	103	105	*	*	—	—	—
Nov. »	104	107	*	*	—	—	—
Dec. »	103	107	—	86	—	—	—
Jan. 1922	90	105	—	*	—	—	—
Feb. »	—	104	—	—	—	—	—
March »	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE VII. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	Austria	Italy		Netherlands	
	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam
Dec. 1920	*	100	100	100	100
Jan. 1921	100	105	102	*	*
Feb. »	114	106	102	*	*
March »	123	112	110	98	95
April »	119	117	111	*	*
May »	126	119	113	*	*
June »	153	108	101	102	96
July »	147	103	97	*	*
Aug. »	172	103	100	*	*
Sept. »	226	108	103	99	88
Oct. »	337	111	112	*	*
Nov. »	578	112	115	*	*
Dec. »	—	111	115	—	84
Jan. 1922	—	109	111	—	—
Feb. »	—	—	109	—	—
March »	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE VIII. INDEX NUMBERS FOR OTHER GROUPS

Date	Clothing				Heating and lighting				Rent			
	Italy		Netherlands		Italy		Netherlands		Italy		Netherlands	
	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam
Dec. 1920	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
March 1921	89	100	79	86	118	106	96	97	100	100	101	101
June »	68	79	73	79	101	88	83	87	100	100	109	111
Sept. »	68	79	74	77	101	88	88	86	100	110	113	113
Dec. »	73	78	—	71	93	91	—	75	—	—	—	115

Austria (Vienna) : *Mitteilungen des Bundesamtes für Statistik.*

Groups included in the budget: food (about 26 items), clothing (11), heating and lighting (3), rent, miscellaneous (7). Food prices are taken from the Vienna municipal market. Official prices are given for State-controlled commodities; when the official ration is less than the amount in the standard budget, the balance is reckoned at the trade price, either ordinary or illicit. Prices vary so rapidly, however, that it is very difficult to assign any definite figure. The index numbers show the fluctuations in the minimum cost of subsistence for a family of four 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 a constant theoretical budget is used. Base: July 1914=100. The cost of living index number and those of the groups of which it is composed (tables I to V) have July 1914=100 as base. The same method of calculation is used for the index number in table VII, but it includes fuel for cooking in addition to food. It is compiled monthly and has January 1921=100 as base.

Belgium : *Revue du Travail.*

Two distinct index numbers are given. Table I: index number of 56 items: food (34), clothing (12), heating and lighting (5), household articles (5). Prices are collected on the 15th of the month by the Ministry of Food from retailers whose customers belong to different classes. This general index number is not weighted and does not include rent, and is therefore not properly speaking a cost of living index number. No separate index number is published for the different groups. Table II: index number of 22 items of food, weighted according to a standard budget based on the enquiry of the Solvay Institute of Sociology into the expenditure of 602 families with an income of less than 5 francs a day in 1910. The same prices are used as in the unweighted index number. For both index numbers the monthly figures refer to the 15th of the month. Base: April 1914=100.

Bulgaria : *Bulletin statistique mensuel de la Direction générale de la Statistique du Royaume de Bulgarie.*

The index numbers are based on 47 articles: food (41 including tobacco), heating and lighting (5), and soap. The weighting is based on the annual expenditure of an average family during the years 1908-1912. Prices are collected in 12 towns each month. Base: 1901-1910=100.

Canada : *Labour Gazette of Canada.*

Groups included in the budget: food (29), heating and lighting (5), rent, and 1 household article (starch). The prices are provided by correspondents of the Labour Gazette; in addition, the Dominion Bureau of Statistics has, since 1921, collected prices from food retailers. For rent, special enquiries are made from time to time in order to check the reports of the correspondents. System of weighting: theoretical pre-war budget. The index numbers in the tables refer to the 15th of the month until the end of 1920; from January 1921 they refer to the first of the following month. Base: July 1914=100.

Denmark : *Statistiske Efterretninger.*

Groups included in the Budget: food, clothing (including laundry), heating, lighting, rent, taxes and subscriptions, and miscellaneous. Until 1920, Copenhagen prices only were used. From 1921 onwards, the enquiry has been extended to the provincial towns and about 100 rural communes. The system of weighting is that of the standard budget, fixed for a normal family of five persons spending 2,000 kr. in the year 1914 and based on an enquiry made in 1909. The index numbers, which are only published half-yearly, are the average of two successive quarters for food, heating and lighting, and clothing, and a half-yearly statement for the other groups. Base: July 1914=100.

United States : *Monthly Labour Review*.

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, 38 for summer, and 53 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.). Prices are reported regularly by the retailers themselves and are officially checked. The data are collected for 51 towns for food; and for 32 towns for the other groups (up to 1917, only for 18 towns).

The system of weighting is that of the standard budget, based on enquiries made in 1917 and 1918 into more than 12,000 working-class families in various parts of the United States. The figures for food in table II relate to the period July 1914 as base; the figures in table I for the cost of living and in tables III, IV and V for clothing, lighting and heating, and housing, relate, however, to July 1913 as base period, no figures being available for July 1914. The figures in tables I, III, IV, and V, moreover, relate to December of each year, up to 1918, to June for the years 1919 and 1920, and to May and December for 1921.

Finland : *Social Tidskrift*.

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 an enquiry made in 1908-1909) for a normal family with a yearly income of 1600-2000 Finnish crowns in 1914. Base: July 1914=100.

France : *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de France*.

(a) The cost of living index number (table I) calculated by the *Commission régionale d'Etudes relatives au coût de la vie à Paris* includes the following groups: food (the index number of the *Statistique générale de France* is adopted), clothing, heating and lighting, and miscellaneous. Base: first half of 1914=100. System of weighting: theoretical budget. Base: first half of 1914=100.

(b) The food index numbers calculated by the *Statistique générale de France* include oil and methylated spirits in addition to 11 foodstuffs. The Paris index number, the data for which are used in calculating the cost of living index number, is based on prices reported by a large co-operative society in the suburban working-class quarters. Since September 1920, prices at several retail shops have also been used. The prices for the index numbers of the towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants are collected by a questionnaire to the mayors of the various towns. The enquiry has been extended to Alsace-Lorraine since 1919. The weighting is based on the same theoretic budget for both index numbers; the base has been transferred to July 1914=100.

India (Bombay) : *Labour Gazette* of the Labour Office Secretariat of Bombay.

Groups included in the budget: food (17), clothing (3), heating and lighting (3), and rent. Prices are collected with great detail twice a week by a special investigator from ten of the principal retailers in Bombay. System of weighting: average aggregate expenditure of the whole of India during the five years before the war. Base: July 1914=100.

Italy : *Bollettino municipale di Milano*; *Bollettino del Ufficio del Lavoro di Roma*; *Communication from the Statistical Office of the Commune of Florence*.

(a) Tables I to V. 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. Base: first half of 1914=100.

(b) Tables VI to VIII. From 1920 onwards, a certain number of Italian towns have been calculating new cost of living index numbers on an almost uniform system, according to rules laid down by the Statistical Congress of

Italian towns at Milan in July 1920. Weighting is based on a theoretical post-war budget which to some extent allows for variations in local conditions. Base: July 1920=100. Index numbers are given for Florence and Milan only.

Norway: *Meddelelser fra det Statistiske Centralbyra.*

Groups included in the budget: food (55), clothing, heating and lighting, rent, taxes, and miscellaneous. At the beginning of 1920 there was a considerable increase in the number of commodities, which somewhat broke the continuity of the series. Prices are as a rule provided by correspondents of the Central Statistical Office. 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 four persons with an income of about 1500 kr. in 1914. Monthly index numbers are calculated for food and heating only; quarterly index numbers for the other groups. In all the tables the figures given against the headings July 1914 to July 1920 refer to June. Base: July 1914=100.

New Zealand: *Monthly Abstract of Statistics.*

Groups included in the budget: food (59 items, including 3 laundry items and tobacco), heating and lighting (7), and rent. The local factory inspectors collect prices from retailers in the 25 chief towns (4 towns only for heating and lighting). The average price of each commodity is the average of the prices current in each town, these prices being weighted with the population of the town. The weighting is based on the aggregate expenditure of the whole country from 1909 to 1913; the index numbers are published quarterly and refer to the average of the quarter. Base: 1909-1913=1,000. 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 average of the six months ending with the month in question. The system of weighting is the same in both cases. Base: 1909-1913=1,000.

Netherlands: (a) *Amsterdam: Maandschrift van het Bureau van Statistiek der gemeente Amsterdam.*

There are three distinct index numbers. Table I: The cost of living index number 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 takes changes in consumption into account. For this purpose a series of special enquiries was made each quarter in question into the expenditure of about 30 working-class families, and the results are compared with the data of the standard budget calculated in 1911. This index number was discontinued in September 1920. The figures given here refer to the base 1910-1911, no data having been published for 1914.

Table II: Food index number, 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.

Tables VI to VIII: This cost of living index number is a partial continuation in simpler form of that in table I. It covers the same groups of commodities, but the weighting is that of a single standard budget, based on the enquiry made in March 1920 for the first index number. The published data giving weekly expenditure in florins for a normal working-class family have been used in order to calculate index numbers for the different groups with December 1920=100 as base.

(b) *The Hague: Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek.*

Tables VI to VIII: The cost of living index number for the Hague includes the following groups: food (21 items), clothing, heating and lighting, rent, miscellaneous (taxes, subscriptions and insurance premiums, cleaning, education, amusement, etc.). The prices are in some cases obtained from retailers, in others from official lists or tradesmen's books. The system of weighting is that of the standard budget, based on an enquiry made in December 1920 by

the Hague Statistical Office on 30 working-class families in that town. The cost of living and food index numbers are published with December 1920=100 as base; the index numbers for the other groups have been calculated for this article from the figures giving the detailed expenditure in florins.

Poland : *Miesięcznik Pracy* of the Central Statistical Office.

(a) Tables I and II : Warsaw. Groups included in the budget : food (16 items), clothing (7), heating and lighting (2-3), rent, miscellaneous (7, including cleaning and travelling expenses, education, amusements, etc.). Prices are as a rule obtained from State and municipal establishments. Official prices are used for State-controlled goods; when the official ration is less than the amount in the standard budget, the balance is reckoned at the trade price, either ordinary or illicit. The system of weighting is that of a theoretical budget for a working-class family of four persons in Warsaw. Index numbers for the separate groups, except food, have not yet been published. Base : 1914=100.

(b) Table VII : The index number for the 38 towns only includes food and heating and lighting. Those for Lodz and Posen include the following groups : food, heating and lighting, rent, and miscellaneous, and in addition, for Posen, clothing. The method used for all three is similar to that for the Warsaw cost of living index number. The original bases are respectively : 38 towns : January 1921=100 ; Lodz : February 1921=100 ; Posen : December 1920=100.

United Kingdom : *Labour Gazette* of the 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.

Prices are obtained as follows. For food, they are reported by the Employment Exchange Officers from all towns with more than 50,000 inhabitants and 530 small towns and rural districts. For clothing, an enquiry form is sent to 500 retailers in 97 towns. For heat and lighting and "miscellaneous", prices are reported by correspondents or obtained directly from a certain number of retailers. For rent, they are based on enquiries made of Property Owners' Associations and Trades Councils. Fluctuations in local rates are also taken into account. The system of weighting is that of the standard budget. It is based on an enquiry made in 1904 by the Board of Trade into the expenditure of 1944 working-class families of five or six persons, supplemented by the results of an enquiry into the cost of living in 1912. The various group index numbers, except that for food, are only approximations. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the first of the following month. From 1914 to 1919 the clothing index number refers to June. Base : July 1914=100.

Sweden : *Sociala Meddelanden*.

Groups included in the budget : food (50), clothing (20), heating and lighting (5), rent, taxes, and miscellaneous (furniture, subscriptions, travelling and medical expenses). Prices are for the most part collected by official investigators, supervised by the Office of Social Affairs (*Socialstyrelsen*) and by local committees. The weighting is that of a standard budget, based on an enquiry made in 1913-1914 into 1,350 households, for a working-class family of four persons with a weekly income of 2,000 Kr. in 1914. The index numbers for food and heating and lighting are monthly; those for the other groups are quarterly. The figures refer to the first of the month following the month stated. In tables I, III and V, the 1914 figures refer to December and those for 1917 to September. Base : July 1914=100.

Switzerland : *Schweizerischer Konsumverein*.

Only two groups are included in the general cost of living index numbers : food (37), and heating and lighting (4, together with soap, which is included in this group). 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 for the whole country. The system of weighting is that of the standard budget, based on an enquiry made in 1912 by the *Secrétariat ouvrier suisse* covering 785 households. 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 following month and relate only to the 23 towns of over 10,000 inhabitants. Base : June 1914=100.

Czechoslovakia : *Monthly Price Bulletin of the Statistical Office.*

No general cost of living index number is as yet published. The index number for foodstuffs includes, however, not only food (21), but also wood, coal, oil, and soap.

Prices are provided by local authorities and by certain workers' organisations in a large number of districts. Only official prices are used for controlled goods. 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, and the general index number is an unweighted average of the average prices. Base : July 1914=100.

Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

In the various countries for which recent data on the movement of wholesale prices are available the general downward tendency continued during December 1921 to February 1922, although the rate of fall seems to have slackened. In some countries, in fact, the index number shows little or no change. Germany is the only country where prices are rising sharply, though it should be noted that there are no really reliable figures available for the other Central European countries, where the movement is most probably of the same character. The Belgian index number, having only recently been commenced, does not yet indicate any general tendency.

In order to show more clearly the present level of prices, the various countries have been arranged in the following table in ascending order of magnitude of the index numbers in December 1921. The following countries are omitted : New Zealand, India, and Japan, for which no sufficiently recent data are available ; China, whose index number has 1919 for base ; Egypt, whose index number includes almost entirely foodstuffs ; Belgium and Switzerland, whose index numbers begin after prices had passed their highest point.

Prices in the United States are nearest to the pre-war level. Australia and Canada come next, with the United Kingdom and the Netherlands ; all four are now at nearly the same level, though the maxima reached in 1920 in the two latter were considerably higher than in the two non-European countries. Close behind are the two neutral countries, Sweden and Denmark, in which still higher maxima were reached. Norway comes in between this neutral group and the ex-belligerent countries. The latter are, in order : France, Italy with an index number still considerably above the preceding countries, and Germany, where prices are still increasing. In these three countries the fall which began in 1920 was checked by a later rise, particularly in

TABLE I. MOVEMENT OF INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES FROM THEIR MAXIMUM TO DECEMBER 1921

Country	Index of Dec. 1921	Maximum		Percentage decrease from maximum to Dec. 1921
		Index	Date	
United States :				
Official	149	272	May 1920	45
Australia	159	274	Aug. »	41
Netherlands	165	296 ^(a)	July »	44
Canada	170	263	May »	35
United Kingdom :				
Official	171	333	May »	49
Sweden	172	366	June »	53
Denmark	178	403	Oct. »	56
Norway	269	425	Sept. »	37
France	325	588	April »	45
Italy	595	670	Nov. »	12
Germany (Official)	3487	3487	Dec. 1921	—

(a) The absolute maximum of 392 was reached in 1918, after which prices fell, and then again rose to the relative maximum of July 1920. There was a total decrease of 58 per cent. on the absolute maximum.

Germany, where the previous, maximum of 1920 has been greatly exceeded.

A glance at the third column of the table shows that the order of magnitude of the maxima is not quite the same as that of the index numbers in December 1921, which determine the order of the countries in the table. The total decrease from the maximum has in fact varied considerably from country to country. This variation is shown in the last column.

NOTES ON THE METHODS OF COMPILING THE INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN THE TABLES

In order to give a clear idea of the meaning of the various index numbers a short explanation of the methods used in different countries is given.

Index numbers of wholesale prices are intended to provide a measure of the changes in the purchasing power of money. The prices of a number of commodities at a certain date are therefore combined so as to show the general movement of the prices of all the commodities with reference to another date. For this purpose a certain period is chosen as "base", and the price-level at this period is put equal to 100. The changes in the corresponding prices for the other periods are then observed, and the relative increase or decrease is calculated for each commodity. The two kinds of mean most generally used are the arithmetic mean (the result of dividing the sum of all the relative prices by their number) and the geometric mean (the root of the product of the various prices, the degree of the root being equal to the number of relative prices). Since the economic importance of the commodities varies, it is generally necessary, in calculating index numbers, to use a process of "weighting": each price is first multiplied by a "weight" proportional to the importance of the commodity in production or consumption, and the sum of these products is then taken (direct weighting). A shorter and simpler method of weighting is to include several quotations for the important commodities, referring either to different markets or to different qualities or brands, or else to different stages in the manufacture of the same article (for instance, raw cotton, yarn, and piece goods). The method of multiple quotations is nearly always

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES
(Base shifted to 1913 = 100 as far as possible)

Date	South Africa	Germany		Australia (Melbourne)	Belgium	Canada	China (Shanghai)	Denmark	Egypt (Cairo)	United States		
		Official	Frankfurter Ztg.							B. of Lab. Stat.	Fed. Res. Bd.	Dun
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
<i>Annual average</i>												
1913	100	100	*	100	*	100	*	100	100	100	100	100
1914	97	105	100	106	100	100	*	100	100	100	*	101
1915	107	142	*	147	*	109	*	138	102	101	*	104
1916	123	153	*	138	*	134	*	164	124	124	*	123
1917	141	179	*	153	*	175	*	228	169	176	*	169
1918	153	217	*	178	*	205	*	293	207	196	*	190
1919	165	445	*	189	*	216	100	294	226	212	206	191
1920	223	1485	1584	228	*	246	106	382	299	243	233	205
1921	—	1411	1505	175	—	182	—	236	180	153	145	139
<i>1921</i>												
Jan.	188	1439	1528	205	*	208	104	290	214	178	163	154
Feb.	*	1376	1461	204	*	199	107	280	196	167	154	151
Mar.	*	1338	1461	190	*	194	108	270	182	162	150	144
Apr.	166	1326	1483	179	*	187	108	257	181	154	143	138
May	*	1308	1438	174	*	183	110	254	179	151	142	137
June	*	1366	1517	170	*	179	111	253	166	148	139	132
July	150	1428	1798	167	*	176	109	254	164	148	141	135
Aug.	*	1917	1813	168	347	174	112	224	166	152	143	135
Sept.	*	2067	2067	168	364	172	111	202	176	152	143	134
Oct.	138	2460	2798	164	368	169	110	186	186	150	141	135
Nov.	—	3446	3348	159	368	168	109	188	181	149	140	136
Dec.	—	3487	3562	159	368	170	—	178	170	149	138	136
<i>1922</i>												
Jan.	—	3663	3953	—	—	169	—	177	—	148	—	—
Feb.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	182	—	—	—	—
Mar.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Apr.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE II (continued)

Date	France	India (Calcutta)	Italy	Japan	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	United Kingdom			Sweden	Switzerland
								Official	Economist	Statist		
(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)
<i>Annual average</i>												
1913	100	*	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	*
1914	102	100	95	96	100	104	105	*	99	98	116	100
1915	140	112	133	97	159	123	145	*	123	127	145	*
1916	188	125	201	117	233	134	222	*	161	160	185	*
1917	262	142	299	149	341	151	286	*	204	206	244	*
1918	339	178	409	196	345	175	392	*	225	226	339	*
1919	356	200	366	240	322	178	297	*	235	242	330	*
1920	509	204	624	268	377	212	281	314	283	295	347	*
1921	345	183	578	201	269	—	181	202	181	188	211	196
<i>1921</i>												
Jan.	407	178	642	204	344	216	213	251	209	230	267	230
Feb.	376	174	613	195	319	210	197	230	192	215	250	219
Mar.	360	175	604	191	312	208	188	215	189	209	237	208
Apr.	347	183	584	190	297	205	176	209	183	200	229	186
May	329	184	547	191	294	204	182	205	182	191	218	185
June	325	178	509	192	294	200	182	202	179	183	218	179
July	330	183	520	197	300	200	176	198	178	186	211	177
Aug.	331	184	542	199	297	197	180	194	179	182	198	181
Sept.	344	—	580	207	287	197	180	191	183	176	182	181
Oct.	331	184	599	219	286	—	169	184	170	163	175	182
Nov.	332	180	595	214	276	—	165	176	166	161	174	178
Dec.	326	—	595	210	269	—	165	171	162	157	172	176
<i>1922</i>												
Jan.	314	—	—	—	260	—	160	167	159	156	170	171
Feb.	301	—	—	—	—	—	—	165	—	—	—	—
Mar.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Apr.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

used when averages have to be calculated. The base period adopted is as a rule fixed, and covers one or more "normal" years. In the "chain system", however, the base is variable, and the relation of the month or year in question to the period immediately preceding is found. At a later stage any of these successive bases may be taken as the initial base of the series.

In the tables which follow, the base has been shifted to 1913=100 whenever possible. Some countries have had to be excepted, for which there are no available data for that year. In order to shift the base, the averages for the various dates are divided by the 1913 average. This introduces a small mathematical error in dealing with index numbers which are averages of relative prices, such as those of, e.g., Canada, France, and Italy. A slightly different and more accurate result would be obtained by calculating the relative price of each article with reference to the new base, and taking the average of these relative prices for the index number.

South Africa : *Quarterly Abstract of Union Statistics.*

Official index number covering 188 commodities (foodstuffs, raw materials, and industrial products). Method of weighting : aggregate expenditure. Base : 1910=1,000.

Germany : (a) *Wirtschaft und Statistik.*

Official index number covering foodstuffs, raw materials and semi-manufactured products ; 38 commodities in 7 groups as follows : vegetable foodstuffs (5 articles), animal foodstuffs (8), groceries (5), hides and leather (4), textiles (6), metals (7), coal and iron (3). The prices quoted are those current in the principal markets ; in some cases the factory or pit-mouth price is given. Official prices are also taken into account. The group index numbers are the simple arithmetic mean of the relative prices of the various articles in the group. The general index number—the only one which is weighted—is the weighted average of the group index numbers. The weights for each group are based on the aggregate expenditure on the commodities in the group. Base : 1913=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

(b) *Frankfurter Zeitung.*

The index number of this journal includes foodstuffs, raw materials, and semi-manufactured goods ; 77 commodities in 4 groups as follows : food, drink, and fodder (26 articles), textiles and leather (16), metals and minerals (18), miscellaneous (chemicals, building materials, etc.) (17). The prices used, most of which are published regularly by the *Frankfurter Zeitung*, are partly market prices, partly those fixed by the State or by producers' organisations. The system of weighting by multiple quotations has been used to some extent by entering several kinds and qualities of certain products of special importance. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the relative prices of the 77 commodities. Base : 1 January 1920=100. An index number has also been calculated for 1914, in order to provide a means of comparison with the pre-war period. The index number given in the tables has been calculated from these data. The monthly index numbers refer to the first of the month following the month stated.

Australia : *Quarterly Summary of Australian Statistics.*

Official index number including 92 commodities, mainly raw materials, in the following groups : agricultural products (16 articles), dairy produce (including honey, eggs, ham, etc.) (9), meat (5), grocery (21), metals and coal (14), textiles and leather (10), building materials (10), chemicals (7). The prices are those current on the Melbourne market. The method of direct weighting is used in calculating the index number. The weights are based on the aggregate expenditure of the years 1906 to 1910. Base : 1911=1,000.

Belgium : *Revue du Travail.*

Official index number dating from August 1921 and including 209 quotations for different kinds or qualities of 131 products, arranged according to their use, in 16 groups, as follows : foodstuffs (16 articles), fuel (7), iron and steel

products (15), oils and similar substances (7), pottery (10), glass-making (3), chemicals (12), artificial manures (5), fats (7), textiles (21), building materials (14), resinous products (2), hides and leather (9) tobacco (1), paper industry (1), raw rubber (1). The prices are given by manufacturers and are average market prices during the second half of the month. The average price for each commodity is the arithmetic mean of the quotations in the various markets for the different kinds or qualities. The relative price is then calculated for each commodity on the "chain system", and the group index numbers and general index number are geometrical means of these various relative prices. The system of weighting used is a variant of the method of multiple quotations. The number of articles in each group is fixed so as to be proportionate to the importance of the group as a whole in the total consumption. This number is based on Belgian statistics of commerce, on the 1910 Census of Industry and Commerce, and on the results of an official enquiry on a large scale on commercial and industrial centres. The general index number, then, is the only one which is weighted. The starting point of the "chain system" is April 1914. The monthly index numbers refer to the second half of the month.

Canada : *Labour Gazette of Canada.*

Official index number including 271 quotations (raw materials and semi-manufactured goods) in 14 groups as follows : grains and fodder (15 quotations), animals and meat (17), dairy products (9), fish (9), fruits and vegetables (25), groceries (25), textiles (20), hides, leather, boots and shoes (11), metals and implements (33), fuel and lighting (10), building materials (48), house furnishings (16), drugs and chemicals (16), miscellaneous (17). The prices are obtained from the daily press and from commercial papers and reports; and from manufacturers and wholesale dealers when these sources fail. The prices given are therefore in all cases market prices, except for a few important articles for which the average import price is taken. Prices are collected on the first of each month, and every week in addition for commodities liable to specially rapid changes. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the various quotations expressed as a percentage of the price at the base period. There is no weighing, but the compilers consider that an index number based on a sufficiently large number of commodities and qualities does not require weighting. Base : 1890-1899=100. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the first of the month following the month stated.

China : *The Statist (London).*

Index number calculated by the Bureau of Markets of the Ministry of Finance at Shanghai, including 147 commodities, mostly manufactured goods. The prices are those of the Shanghai markets at the end of each month. Base : September 1919=100. No data are published for the pre-war period.

Denmark : *Finanstidende.*

The index number of this financial paper includes 33 commodities in 2 groups (raw materials and semi-manufactured goods). The prices are obtained from the produce exchanges and a certain number of traders, so as to get the market prices actually current. The general index number is weighted, the weights being based on the aggregate consumption of the country, but the weighting has been simplified by using only the numbers 1, 2, 3 and 4. The base is the average of the prices on 1 July 1912, 1 January and 1 July 1913, 1 January and 1 July 1914. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the first of the month following the month stated.

Egypt : *Monthly Agricultural Statistics.*

Official index number covering 24 commodities (21 foodstuffs, soap, crude alcohol, and mineral oil). The prices given are the average Cairo prices. Base : January 1913 to July 1914=100.

United States : (a) Index number of the BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS *Monthly Labour Review.*

This index number covers raw materials, semi-manufactured and finished goods. The number of items has been changed several times. In 1919 there

were 328 quotations for about 220 commodities in 9 groups as follows: farm products (32 quotations), food (91), cloths and clothing (77), fuel and lighting (21), metals and metal products (25), lumber and building materials (30), chemicals and drugs (18), house furnishing goods (13), miscellaneous (21). Prices are taken from trade journals or are reported by manufacturers, merchants or Chambers of Commerce, and are often taken from several markets for a single commodity. The method of direct weighting is used. The weights are based on the quantities of the various commodities marketed in 1909. The figures for this purpose are mostly taken from official statistics of production and trade. When several quotations have been collected for a single commodity a weight is chosen for each quotation depending on the nature of the article and the market in question. The aggregates of these products of prices and weights are then taken, but the aggregates for different years cannot be directly compared with the aggregate for the base year 1913, for, as already mentioned, the number and kind of commodities dealt with have not always been the same. The following procedure is therefore adopted: the aggregate for the year in question is compared with the aggregate for the same commodities in the year when the change was made, e. g. 1917. Then this index number with 1917 as base is transferred to the base 1913, using for this purpose the index number for 1917 calculated on the former list of commodities, and having 1913 as base. The ultimate base is thus 1913=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

(b) Federal Reserve Bulletin.

The index number published by the Federal Reserve Board is compiled specially for the purpose of international comparisons. It covers 60 different commodities with 80 or 90 quotations and classified in different ways: origin (goods produced in the country, imported goods), use (exported goods and goods for consumption), and finally, stage of manufacture (raw materials, producers' goods, consumers' goods). It follows that the same commodities are repeated in the different groups. Prices are mainly provided by the Bureau of Labour Statistics and are to a large extent the same as those used in calculating the index number of the Bureau. The method of direct weighting is used for both the group and general index numbers. The weights are based on official statistics of production, import, and export. Separate values are chosen for each group, depending on the point of view adopted in the classification. The weighting for the general index number is based on production and imports. Base: 1913=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the average of the month.

(c) Dun's Review.

The index number published by this financial and commercial journal covers about 200 commodities in 7 groups as follows: breadstuffs, meat, dairy and garden produce, other foods, clothing, metals, miscellaneous; i. e. almost altogether commodities for direct consumption. The prices of the different commodities are weighted approximately with the average consumption per inhabitant and the products are then added. Using these data, the International Labour Office has calculated relative figures with 1913=100 as base.

France : *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de France.*

Official index number covering 20 food stuffs and 25 industrial raw materials (no manufactured goods); 45 commodities in all in 6 groups as follows: vegetable foodstuffs (8 articles), animal foodstuffs (8), sugars, coffee, and cocoa (4), minerals and metals (7), textiles (6), miscellaneous (12). The prices are obtained from the Paris produce exchanges and from the special Commissariat of the Paris central markets, or are taken from economic and commercial journals. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the relative prices of the different commodities, and is not weighted. Base: 1901-1910=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month.

India (Calcutta) : *Statistics of British India.*

Official index number including 75 commodities (foodstuffs, industrial raw materials, and manufactured goods) in the following groups: tea, sugar,

pulses, cereals, other foods, building materials, manufactured goods, metals, hides and skins, cotton goods, raw cotton, jute manufactures, raw jute, other textiles, oils, oil seeds. Base : 31 July 1914=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month.

Italy : *L'Economista*.

Professor Bachi's index number has been completely revised from 1920 onwards. The old index number (from 1913 to 1919 in these tables) includes 38 commodities in 5 groups: cereals and meat, other foodstuffs, textiles, minerals, miscellaneous. It is the arithmetic mean of the relative prices of these commodities, and is not weighted. Base : 1901-1905=100. The new index number includes 76 quotations for 67 commodities in the following groups: vegetable foodstuffs (17 articles, 19 quotations), animal foodstuffs (7 articles, 10 quotations), chemicals (8 articles, 8 quotations), textiles (8 articles, 9 quotations), building materials (4 articles, 5 quotations), minerals and metals (10 articles, 12 quotations), vegetable products other than foodstuffs (4 articles, 4 quotations), miscellaneous industrial products (9 articles, 9 quotations). Prices are collected at the end of each month from the principal Italian chambers of commerce and from the Association of Silk and Cotton Merchants. They are usually the current market prices at the end of the month. Some weighting is effected by the method of multiple quotations. Two series of index numbers are calculated by taking the geometric and arithmetic means respectively of the relative prices on the chain system. Both series start from 1920. The arithmetic mean series has also been calculated with 1901-1905 as base, and it is this series (with its base shifted to 1913) which is given in the tables, in continuation of the earlier series of index numbers. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month.

Japan : *Bank of Japan*.

This index number includes 56 commodities at prices current in Tokio. Base : 1900=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

Norway : *Oekonomisk Revue*.

The index number calculated by this economic journal includes 92 quotations in 11 groups: animal foods, vegetable foods, oil-cake, fuel, iron, other minerals, building materials, textiles, hides and leather, wood, pulp, paper. The general index number is an arithmetic mean, with some weighting by the method of multiple quotations by giving two or more quotations for the more important commodities. Base : December 1913 to June 1914=100. In the tables the yearly index numbers from 1914 to 1921 refer to December.

New Zealand : *Monthly Abstract of Statistics*.

Official index number covering 106 quotations for 86 commodities (foodstuffs, raw materials, and semi-manufactured goods). The various group index numbers include some additional quotations, making 140 in all, grouped as follows: agricultural produce (15 quotations), flour, oatmeal, etc., (4), animal products (wool, hides, butter, etc.) (14), general merchandise and crockery (44), building materials (31), leather (7), chemicals and manures (21), coal (4). The prices ruling during the month are collected from wholesalers in the four principal towns. The method of direct weighting is used for both the general and group index numbers, but on account of the difference in their composition the calculations are made quite separately. The weights are based on the quantity of each commodity sold for consumption in the country. This has been determined by an enquiry made from wholesalers, checked and where necessary completed by official statistics of production, imports, and exports. Base : 1909-1913=1000. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

The Netherlands : *Maandschrift van het centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek*

Official index number covering 53 commodities: 33 vegetable and animal foods and 20 raw materials and industrial products. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the relative prices of the various commodities and is unweighted. Base : 1901-1910=100.

United Kingdom : (a) *Board of Trade Journal*.

Official index number including food, raw materials, semi-manufactured and finished goods ; 150 quotations in all for 54 commodities in 8 groups as follows : cereals (8 articles, 17 quotations), meat and fish (5 articles, 17 quotations), other foodstuffs (10 articles, 19 quotations), iron and steel (4 articles, 24 quotations), other minerals (7 articles, 20 quotations), cotton (3 articles, 16 quotations), other textiles (6 articles, 15 quotations), miscellaneous (11 articles, 22 quotations). Current market prices are taken, except in a few cases where reports of experts are used. The index number is the geometric mean of the different quotations expressed as relative prices on the chain system. The weighting by multiple quotations is done with considerable care and is based on the results of the 1907 Census of Production. The starting point of the series was at first 1920, but was afterwards changed to 1913=100. The monthly figures refer to the average for the month.

(b) *The Economist*.

The index number published by this paper includes foodstuffs, raw materials, and semi-manufactured goods ; 44 quotations in all for 33 commodities in 5 groups as follows : cereals and meat (10 quotations), other foodstuffs (6), textiles (10), minerals (8), miscellaneous (10). The prices used are market prices taken from the London and Manchester markets, and published weekly by the *Economist*. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the 44 quotations expressed as relative prices of the prices in the base period. A certain amount of weighting is effected by giving two or more quotations for the more important commodities. Base : 1901 to 1905=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

(c) *The Statist*.

The index number published by this paper includes only foodstuffs and raw materials. There are 45 quotations for 36 commodities in the following groups : vegetable food (7 articles, 8 quotations), animal food (5 articles, 7 quotations), sugar, coffee, tea (3 articles, 4 quotations), metals and minerals (5 articles, 7 quotations), textiles (6 articles, 8 quotations), miscellaneous (10 articles, 11 quotations). Market prices are used ; in the case of imported goods prices in bond are taken. A certain amount of weighting is effected by giving two quotations for the important commodities. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the various quotations expressed as relative prices of the prices in the base period, which is 1867-1877=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month.

Sweden : *Svensk Handelstidning*.

The index number of this commercial journal covers animal foodstuffs, raw materials and semi-manufactured goods. There are 47 quotations in the following groups : vegetable foods (7 quotations), animal foods (7), manure and oil-cake (4), fuel (3), oil and benzine (2), metals (5), building materials (7), textiles (5), hides and leather (4), wood pulp (3). The prices used are partly semi-official quotations and partly those reported by certain trade associations and large firms in Stockholm. The weights are the approximate quantities marketed in 1913. The index number is the weighted arithmetic mean of the various relative prices, and so differs from that of other countries where the method of direct weighting is used. Base : 1 July 1913-30 June 1914=100. The monthly index numbers refer to the 15th of the month.

Switzerland : *Neue Zürcher Zeitung*.

The index number published by this paper was commenced in December 1920 and is calculated by Dr. Lorenz. It covers raw materials, semi-manufactured and finished goods. There are 71 quotations in 3 groups as follows : (a) agricultural and industrial products for direct consumption : food (18 quotations), clothing (5), and housing (3) ; (b) raw materials for agriculture : fodder (4), manure (8) ; (c) raw materials for industry : minerals and coal (11), textiles and leather (6), miscellaneous (9).

The weights are differently chosen for the different groups. In the first group they are based on the consumption of working-class households according to the official enquiry made in 1919 on 277 working-class families. The weights in the second group are based on figures communicated by the Secretariat of the League of Swiss Peasants and on the value of imports. In the third group the weights are based on reports from correspondents and on statistics of imports. The sub-group "miscellaneous" is not weighted. A weighted index number is first calculated for each sub-group and group. The three group index numbers are then weighted with the numbers 2, 1, 1, in this order and the new average so obtained gives the general index number. Base: July 1914=100. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the 1st of the month following the month stated.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of Unemployment

THE latest figures available show in nearly every country an increase of unemployment compared with the previous months. To some extent this is due to seasonal increase in unemployment which occurs in the winter months, and to the cessation of the seasonal Christmas activities.

Belgium is the only country for which statistics of unemployment among trade unionists show an improvement at the end of December 1921 compared with November. In Germany, France, and the United Kingdom the latest figures show very little change. In Vienna unemployment reached its highest in June 1921, and has shown a continuous decline until December. In India unemployment exists chiefly as a result of famine. The number of persons on famine relief shows a great improvement in October and November as compared with the previous months. In Italy, Switzerland, Canada, Denmark, and Sweden there has been a substantial increase of unemployment in the last months of 1921. For the remaining countries figures for the end of 1921 are not yet available.

Table I shows the percentage of unemployed among trade unionists for all the countries which publish information of this nature. Table II gives information in regard to unemployment for Austria (Vienna), France, Italy, Switzerland, and Czechoslovakia. No reliable statistics exist as to the amount of unemployment in the United States. The United States Employment Service publish, however, each month, a report on the state of employment based on the numbers employed by certain establishments. These figures are given in table III, and table IV gives statistics of famine relief in India.

NOTES TO TABLES AND SOURCES

Though the figures shown in the tables are comparable within each country, they are not to be used for comparisons between different countries, nor can they be taken as representing the total amount of unemployment in a country. Unemployment may exist not in the form of persons out of work, but in the form of persons under-employed (or 'on short time'), and as regards this latter class of unemployment, data are even less complete; in fact, for most countries no statistics of this nature exist. Moreover, any international comparison of unemployment statistics is vitiated by the differences in the definition of unemployment, in the scope and completeness of the returns, and the reliability of the figures. The most important of these differences are indicated in the following notes. The tables do, however, give some indication of the fluctuation of unemployment in the different countries over a period of years.

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

End of month	Germany	Australia	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	2093	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	1343	12000	144
June	5841	364	669	182	299	243	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	237	74	393	1433	12200	154
Oct.	5960	*	748	174	284	176	—	389	1442	12200	149
Nov.	5912	*	755	164	284	*	—	—	1433	11902	133
Dec.	6076	—	757	161	282	—	—	—	1432	11902	—
1922											
Jan.	—	—	763	—	—	—	—	—	1406	11902	—
B. Percentage of above Workers Unemployed											
1913											
March	2.8	6.4	1.5	—	7.8	8.3	1.8	3.4	1.9	3.5	7.1
June	2.7	7.3	2.1	—	3.7	4.5	0.7	3.9	1.9	2.8	2.6
Sept.	2.7	7.0	3.2	—	3.8	5.0	1.2	4.9	2.3	3.7	2.3
Dec.	4.8	5.3	3.5	—	15.1	8.5	3.7	9.1	2.6	4.6	4.4
1919											
March	3.9	6.5	*	5.6	20.5	11.4	2.2	14.2	2.8	*	7.6
June	2.5	8.5	*	2.6	3.6	2.8	1.1	8.7	1.7	*	6.1
Sept.	2.2	6.2	*	2.2	3.1	2.7	1.2	4.5	1.6	*	3.2
Dec.	2.9	5.2	*	3.5	16.5	4.1	2.6	9.0	3.2	6.58	3.8
1920											
March	1.9	5.6	*	3.4	6.7	4.1	1.5	7.7	1.1	3.6	4.5
June	3.9	6.2	*	2.5	2.0	14.6	0.7	5.9	1.2	2.6	3.4
Sept.	4.5	6.2	5.8	3.3	2.7	16.4	1.8	4.1	2.2	3.8	2.9
Dec.	4.1	7.8	17.4	13.1	15.1	29.2	6.8	13.4	6.0	5.8	15.8
1921											
Jan.	4.5	*	*	13.1	19.7	*	11.3	16.5	6.9	8.2	20.2
Feb.	4.7	*	*	16.1	23.2	*	14.9	16.4	8.5	9.5	20.8
March	3.7	11.4	10.4	16.5	23.6	22.1	16.1	13.9	10.0	11.3	24.6
April	3.9	*	12.1	16.3	21.7	*	17.1	11.9	17.6	15.0	24.2
May	3.7	*	14.4	15.5	18.6	*	17.8	9.4	22.2	17.6	25.3
June	3.0	12.5	9.9	13.2	16.8	20.1	20.9	8.1	23.1	17.8	27.9
July	2.6	*	9.5	9.1	16.7	*	17.9	7.6	16.7	14.8	27.8
Aug.	2.2	*	10.3	8.7	17.7	*	17.3	7.3	16.3	13.1	26.8
Sept.	1.4	11.4	9.6	8.5	16.6	19.1	17.1	6.8	14.8	12.2	26.2
Oct.	1.2	*	7.2	7.4	18.3	21.2	—	6.9	15.6	12.8	26.8
Nov.	1.4	*	7.0	11.1	20.8	—	—	—	15.9	15.7	28.7
Dec.	1.6	—	6.6	15.1	25.2	—	—	—	16.5	16.2	33.2
1922											
Jan.	—	—	6.4	—	—	—	—	—	16.8	16.2	—

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

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

TABLE II. OTHER STATISTICS RELATING TO UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (End of Month)	Austria (Vienna)		France		Italy		Switzerland		Czecho- slovakia	
	Number of applicants for work	Number of persons in receipt of benefit	Number of applicants for work	Number of persons in receipt of benefit	Number wholly unem- ployed	Number on short time	Number wholly unem- ployed	Number on short time	Number of applicants for work	Number of persons in receipt of benefit
1921										
January	26,344	42,953	39,844	71,774	*	*	34,652	71,922	95,254	57,047
February	26,840	41,406	44,092	89,289	*	*	42,705	82,930	103,344	59,025
March	24,345	7,894	44,064	88,382	*	*	47,577	95,119	102,180	53,086
April	22,993	8,143	35,270	75,569	250,145	69,270	47,949	95,374	99,896	48,623
May	25,484	8,697	28,218	60,362	*	*	52,635	87,744	107,934	47,203
June	27,404	9,796	21,316	55,439	388,744	238,940	54,039	76,116	403,470	46,428
July	25,146	10,016	20,270	37,226	435,194	226,515	55,605	79,888		
August	23,689	9,595	20,350	27,467	470,542	220,763	63,182	74,309		
September	22,525	8,547	17,718	20,408	473,216	154,350	66,646	69,421		
October	20,083	7,608	14,969	16,518	492,368	131,167	74,238	59,835		
November	18,858	6,834	19,590	12,374	512,260	181,002	80,692	56,569		
December	17,742	9,327	17,373	9,602	541,779	178,662	88,967	53,970		
1922										
January	—	—	48,535	9,068	—	—	96,580	49,181		

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 is a relatively large number 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. The percentages include workers unemployed on account of sickness, accident, etc.

Austria: Vienna: *Ministry of Social Administration.*

The figures, which refer to the last day of the month, are based on returns from the Employment Exchanges, and on those secured in connection with the unemployment insurance system.

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, and refer to the last working day of the month. From March 1921 onwards the percentages relate to wholly unemployed workers only and have been calculated by the International Labour Office.

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.

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

Date	Numbers employed by 1,428 firms, to nearest thousand	Percent. increase (+) or decrease (—) on previous month	Index of employment. (January 1921 = 100)
1921			
January	1,623,000	—	100.0
February	1,613,000	— 1.00	99.1
March	1,588,000	— 1.50	97.5
April	1,581,000	— 0.40	97.1
May	1,574,000	— 0.45	96.7
June	1,527,000	— 2.90	93.8
July	1,510,000	— 1.10	92.8
August	1,526,000	+ 1.08	93.7
September	1,545,000	+ 1.20	94.9
October	1,560,000	+ 1.01	95.8
November	1,567,000	+ 0.46	96.3
December	1,641,000	+ 4.70	100.8

United States : Industrial Employment Survey.

The figures show the numbers employed at the end of each month by 1,428 firms, employing normally over 500 workers each, together with the percentage change as compared with the previous month. The last column, giving an index of employment, has been calculated by the International Labour Office.

France : Journal Officiel.

The figures give for the end of each month the number of unemployed persons remaining on the live registers of the Employment Exchanges, and 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.

TABLE IV. 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	28,583	85,661
» » Aug.	8,715,508	127,987	4,312	65,423
» » Sept.	6,141,888	86,369	3,352	24,129
» » Oct.	1,507,382	49,462	5,325	20,567
» » Nov.	1,256,209	31,371	1,576	11,901

India.

As unemployment in the ordinary sense hardly exists except as a result of famine, the figures showing the number of persons in the famine areas on relief are an indication of the distress arising from want of employment. In addition to famine areas, the affected areas are classified into areas under "scarcity" and "observation and test", where test works are undertaken to see to what extent the need for relief works exists. Where necessary the test works are converted into relief works.

Italy : *Bollettino del Lavoro.*

The figures show the numbers totally unemployed and the number on short time on the first of each month (shown in the table as end of previous month) based on the returns of the Provincial Unemployment Committees.

Massachusetts : *Massachusetts Industrial Review.*

The figures refer to the last day of each period, 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. Since October 1921 the figures have been collected monthly owing to the great extent of unemployment.

Norway : *Meddelelser fra det Statistiske Centralbyra.*

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

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

The figures 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 of numbers covered by the returns 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 of the Ministry of Labour.*

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 compulsory insurance give the number of persons wholly unemployed whose unemployment books were lodged at employment exchanges on the last Friday of the month. Owing to the increase in the number of trades covered in 1916 and again in 1920, these figures are not altogether comparable.

Sweden : *Sociala Meddelanden.*

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

Switzerland : *Le Marché suisse du Travail.*

The figures show the numbers unemployed and on short time at the end of each month, based on returns from municipal Employment Exchanges.

Czechoslovakia : *Bulletin Statistique de la République Tchécoslovaque.*

The figures of unemployed are obtained from the returns of the Employment Exchanges and refer to the last working day of the month. The number of unemployed in receipt of benefit is obtained from the Ministry of Social Welfare; the figures refer to the first working day of the following month and are partly included in the returns of the Employment Exchanges.



MIGRATION

Notes on Migration

THE information available this month on migration includes primarily some recent reports on the statistics of emigration and immigration, namely, on the movement of Jews from Europe, on immigration into the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Canada, Cuba, France, and Paraguay, and emigration from Ireland. Attention is drawn to the decision taken by the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to put the question of the collection of information on migratory movements on the agenda of the next Labour Conference.

The information on legislation includes a general review of the most recent Acts adopted and treaties signed affecting migration. An account is given of legislative measures proposed or adopted in the British Empire and the United States; in the former case the effect has been to draw the mother country closer to her Dominions and colonies; here special attention may be directed to the relations between Great Britain and South Africa, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, and the colony of Kenya; an analysis of the last report of the Oversea Settlement Committee is also given. Finally, the regulations recently issued by Prussia as to aliens are analysed.

The information on the work of philanthropic organisations which aim at assisting or relieving migrants includes some notes on Jewish institutions for the protection of migrants and settlers, especially on the work of the Jewish Colonisation Association (J. C. A.) and on the centralisation of Jewish emigrants' relief work. Some information is also included on the Italian Bonomelli hostels, and on the starting of a trades union emigration office by the Italian Federation of Workers in the Building Trades. The more important recommendations of the Committee on Immigrant Welfare at Ellis Island are given. Finally, the latest model contract drawn up by the German Central Office for Workers, with a view to the recruiting of Polish labour, is summarised.

CENTRALISATION OF INFORMATION

The Governing Body of the International Labour Office has decided to place on the agenda of the next International Labour Conference at Geneva in 1922 the question of the regular communication to the International Labour Office of statistics and of other information on migration, repatriation, and the transit of emigrants. The purpose of the Governing Body in putting this item on the agenda has been to show that any study of migration problems must first be preceded by a compilation of exact and complete information on the subject.

MIGRATION MOVEMENTS

Jewish Emigration

The Jewish populations of eastern Europe have been largely responsible for the sudden great recrudescence of the emigration movement which took place in 1920. The number of Jewish emigrants from eastern Europe passing through European ports of embarkation in the course of this year has been estimated at about 90,000; of these 60,000 were reckoned to have come from Poland, 25,000 from Bessarabia, and 5,000 from the Caucasus, the Crimea, and Bulgaria. Their destination was as follows: 65,000 were going to the United States, 8,000 to Palestine, 8,000 to Canada, 5,000 to the Argentine, and 4,000 to other countries, including many proceeding to Mexico (1).

France

The 1921 official statistics as to immigrant labour in France have recently been published (2). There has been a large decrease in the number of foreign workers who have entered France; the number entering has been exceeded by the number leaving, as a great many persons who had lived in France or come to France since 1914 have returned to their own countries.

The official figures of the entry into, and departure from, France of foreign labour are as follows:

<i>Nationalities</i>	<i>Foreign workers entering</i>	<i>Foreign workers leaving</i>
Belgians	5,947	6,580
Spaniards	1,537	23,097
Greeks	36	702
Italians	7,160	23,197
Poles	9,345	4,113
Portuguese	45	3,934
Miscellaneous	420	913
Total	24,490	62,536

These figures must, however, be looked on only as approximate, for, in spite of the control exercised at the frontier, a considerable number of foreign workers succeed in passing it, either going or coming, each year, without being registered as employed persons.

The chief reason why the influx of foreign labour into France has slackened is the unemployment situation in France itself; the French authorities give preference to their own nationals in filling up vacancies.

According to the official figures, 53,481 foreign workers found employment through the help of the government agencies. This indicates a great falling off by comparison with the previous year, when the corresponding figure was 160,000.

Of these 53,481 persons, 20,595 found their jobs through the help of the Department employment exchanges, and 32,886 through the help of the special offices for foreign workers, the depot at Toul and the Control Office at Modena having dealt with more than half of the latter

(1) Cf. JEWISH COLONISATION ASSOCIATION: *Rapport 1920 de l'Administration centrale*. Paris. Veneziani. 1921.

(2) *Bulletin du Marché du Travail*, No. 212, 4 Feb. 1922. Paris.

cases. The number placed in jobs, grouped by nationalities and according to industries in which placed, is found in the statement below.

<i>Nationalities</i>	<i>No. of workers placed</i>	<i>Industry</i>	<i>No. of workers placed</i>
Belgians	2,058	Coal and iron mining	9,988
Spaniards	4,361	Smelting and metal industries	2,142
Greeks	695	Building and construction	10,479
Italians	10,148	Navy work	2,131
Poles	12,444	Agriculture	3,118
Portuguese	923	Miscellaneous	5,028
Russians	497		
Czechoslovaks	183		
North Africans	318		
Miscellaneous	1,259		
Total	32,886	Total	32,886

Ireland

Recently published statistics for Irish emigration in 1921, referring to natives of Ireland who have emigrated from Irish ports, show that in the first five months of the year there was an increase as compared with 1920; from June onwards there was a decrease, except in October; for the whole year there was a decrease of 1,896 persons. About 61 per cent. of the total number of emigrants were women.

A summary of the figures of the last twenty years shows a gradual decrease in the volume of emigration up to the outbreak of the war, while in 1920 and 1921 it was only half what it was in 1913. Irish emigration, once so marked a phenomenon, has greatly lost its importance of late years.

Total Emigration

<i>Period</i>	<i>Annual average</i>
1900-1904	40,356
1905-1909	31,415
1910-1914	28,731
1915-1919	4,805
1920	15,531
1921	13,635

Emigration of natives of Ireland in 1920 and 1921

<i>Months</i>	<i>No. of emigrants in</i>		<i>Increase or decrease in 1921 compared with 1920</i>
	<i>1920</i>	<i>1921</i>	
Jan.	332	661	+ 329
Feb.	369	1,881	+ 1,512
Mar.	714	2,228	+ 1,514
Apr.	882	1,600	+ 718
May	1,539	1,781	+ 242
June	2,304	884	- 1,420
July	2,090	787	- 1,303
Aug.	1,711	896	- 815
Sept.	1,804	1,085	- 719
Oct.	1,007	1,102	+ 95
Nov.	1,694	498	- 436
Dec.	1,085	232	- 853
Total	15,531	13,635	- 1,896

Of these emigrants by far the larger number went to the United States, both in 1920 and 1921, namely, 12,288 out of 15,531 in 1920 and 11,417 out of 13,635 in 1921. Otherwise, for the year 1920, 2,109 emigrants went to Canada, 582 to Great Britain, 212 to Australia, 203 to New Zealand, 60 to South Africa, and 77 to other countries; during 1921 1,422 went to Canada, 387 to Great Britain, 170 to Australia, 170 to New Zealand, 37 to South Africa, and 32 to other countries.

Canada

Figures for the eight months ending November 1921 show that 76,575 immigrants arrived in Canada, 53,296 at ocean ports and 23,279 from the United States. The number arriving at ocean ports included 16,391 farmers, 3,738 labourers, 5,543 mechanics, 6,098 domestics, 2,507 traders, and 631 miners. The number coming from the United States included 10,663 farmers, 2,983 labourers, 2,524 mechanics, and 1,361 persons engaged in trade. Between 1900 and 1921 immigration totalled 3,577,311 persons, of whom 1,323,531 were from the British Isles, 1,366,508 from the United States, and 887,272 from other countries.

Cuba

The Statistical Section of the Finance Department in Cuba reports the total number of immigrants entering into that country in 1920 as 174,221, of whom 163,949 were men and 10,272 women; 170,618 were between 14 and 45 years of age, 1,542 over 46 years or age, while 2,061 were children under 14. The increase in 1920 over 1919 was 93,733 persons. Classified by nationality, the figures were as follows: 54,721 more Spaniards entered in 1920 than in 1919, making up a total of 94,294 Spanish immigrants for 1920; 25,927 more Haitian, making up a total of 35,791; 2,901 more Jamaican, making up a total of 27,088; and 7,967 more Chinese, making up a total of 9,203. Further, 133,302 of all immigrants entering in 1920 were literate, and 40,919 illiterate. The total amount of money brought into the country by immigrants was 2,531,191 pesos.

Of the 94,294 Spanish immigrants 93,673 came from Spain and 621 from other countries; 5,436 were illiterate; 2,793 had previously lived in Cuba.

Argentina

The Immigration Office of the Argentine Republic has published the following summary of figures on immigration into that country between 1915 and 1921 inclusive. No information is supplied as to nationality, countries of origin, or countries of destination, either for emigrants or immigrants. The figures indicate that emigration exceeded immigration during the period of the war and for a year following; an excess of immigrants over emigrants did not occur until the first half of 1920, the total loss to the population being 66,169 persons in 1915, 32,931 persons in 1917, and 10,374 persons in 1918, and the total gain to the population being 4,880 persons in 1920 and 14,981 persons in 1921^(*).

<i>Years</i>	<i>Immigrants</i>	<i>Emigrants</i>
1915	45,290	111,459
1916	32,290	73,348
1917	18,064	50,995
1918	13,701	24,075
1919	41,299	42,079
1920	32,142	27,262
1921	37,625	22,644

(*) COMMISSARIATO GENERALE DELL'EMIGRAZIONE: *Bolletino dell'Emigrazione*, Oct. 1921, p. 656. Rome.

Brazil

According to statistical information collected by the Settlement and Colonisation Department, 28,059 immigrants entered Brazil during the first six months of the year 1921 ; of these, 4,786 entered through Rio de Janeiro, 12,366 through Santos, 514 through Recife, 304 through Bahia, 80 through Porto-Alegre, 6 through Florianopolis, and 3 through Paranagua.

These 28,059 immigrants included among others 10,782 Portuguese, 4,879 Spanish, 4,348 Italians, 2,800 Germans, 705 Brazilians, 329 Poles, 314 French, 255 Russians, 208 English, 204 Japanese (*).

The settlement of Yapo in the district of Castro in Brazil consists of a variety of nationalities and is an illustration of an immigration policy based on racial fusion (°). The settlement was founded in May 1917 and covers 4,918 hectares of ground, parcelled into 192 rural and 55 urban lots. Settlers of different nationalities occupy 168 of these lots, as follows :

<i>Nationality</i>	<i>Number of families</i>	<i>Number of persons</i>
Germans	20	68
Brazilians	23	290
Belgians, Greeks, English	3	15
Italians	4	25
Portuguese	3	19
Poles	22	130
Russians	40	201
Swiss	3	12
Total	118	760

Paraguay

The Office for Settlement and Colonisation (*Dirección de Tierras y Colonias*) has just published the official figures, referring to the first six months of 1921, of the number of immigrants arriving in Paraguay and registering themselves at the Immigration Bureau in Asuncion. The figures for the last fourteen years are as follows.

<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Immigrants</i>	<i>Year</i>	<i>No. of Immigrants</i>
1908	870	1915	366
1909	634	1916	298
1910	418	1917	326
1911	446	1918	270
1912	704	1919	349
1913	1,512	1920	330
1914	1,616	1921 (first six months)	384

In 1908, 1910, 1912, 1913 and 1914 the largest number of immigrants came from Spain. In 1907, 1909 and 1911 the largest number came from Italy, and Spanish nationals took the second place. In 1915, 1917, and 1918 the largest number came from the Argentine, and Spanish nationals again took the second place. Since 1919 the largest number of immigrants have come from Germany.

Most of the new immigrants arriving in Paraguay are agricultural workers. There are also a certain number of workers in the engineering trades.

(*) *Revista da Associação Commercial de São Paulo*, Dec. 1921.

(°) *O Paiz*, 25 Dec. 1921. Rio de Janeiro.

New Zealand

The number of immigrants entering Auckland, New Zealand, in 1921 was 16,323, as compared with 21,096 in 1920, a decrease of 4,773. The departures were 10,506, as against 12,957, a decrease of 2,451. The movement of emigration is fairly uniform over each of the months of the year.

GOVERNMENT POLICY AND LEGISLATION

As already mentioned ⁽⁶⁾, the resolutions of the International Emigration Commission were submitted in November 1921 to the International Labour Conference held at Geneva. They are now before the Governing Body of the International Labour Office for examination and execution. That body is now engaged in discussing the many suggestions made as to the regulation of migration.

Various governments also appear to be giving more attention to migration problems than ever before. In Great Britain the Speech from the Throne announced that one of the more important legislative proposals to be submitted to Parliament in the near future would be a Bill giving the Government wider powers of active co-operation with other parts of the Empire in relation to emigration and settlement. In describing this proposed legislation the Secretary of State for the Colonies stated that he hoped in the course of the year to place on the statute book an Act which would be the foundation for an important permanent scheme of emigration from the British Isles, elastic enough to be adapted to the requirements of each colony.

In Germany an emigration Bill has been under consideration for a long time, with a view to replacing the legislation now in force, which is already out of date; it will be published shortly.

In France the Emigration Commission, at a meeting recently held at the office of the Under-Secretary for the mercantile marine, unanimously came to the conclusion that a reform of emigration legislation was required.

The Netherlands Government has also drafted a Bill, on which various authorities are being consulted. The semi-official society "*Landverhuizing*" has published an extremely interesting memorandum, indicating the principles on which satisfactory emigration legislation should be based.

New regulations on emigration are announced in Roumania.

A Bill has already been laid before Parliament in Czechoslovakia. Bills are being drafted in Poland and several other European countries, while in Finland one has reached the committee stage.

The Three per Cent. Act in the United States will cease to operate on 30 June 1922, and will probably be renewed in its present form temporarily. There are a great many proposals for its amendment, widening, or restriction before the committees of the two Houses on immigration; the Chairman of the House of Representatives' Committee is personally responsible for more than one proposition ⁽⁷⁾.

In Australia suggestions have been formulated and negotiations begun between the Federal and the State Ministries with a view to complete reform of the legislation and regulations on immigration.

Proposals will be laid before the Uruguayan Parliament in the near future.

⁽⁶⁾ See above p. 629.

⁽⁷⁾ See below, p. 643.

British India has denounced the treaties which had been in force with France and the Netherlands on the transport of foreign labour and proposes to establish fresh legislation on the principle of complete equality of treatment.

In several European and American countries special committees are at work, making a first-hand study of the conditions of emigration and of opportunities for legislation. Several other countries including Brazil, Italy, Greece, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene State have recently revised their legislation throughout.

Some mention must finally be made of the large number of treaties which have been signed between one country and another with a view to ensuring that emigration shall take place under the conditions which are best adapted to the needs of the signatory countries. Treaties to this effect have been signed since the war between France and Poland, France and Italy, France and Czechoslovakia, Italy and Brazil, Italy and Luxemburg, and Austria and Poland. Each of these treaties has some new and interesting principles on the subject of emigration.

Pourparlers with a view to such treaties are also announced from other countries, e. g. Switzerland, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, and Germany; these treaties will gradually cover Europe with a network of bilateral agreements satisfying the special interests of the countries concluding them, while the multi-Power treaties initiated as a result of the International Labour Conferences satisfy general interests. The most interesting of those established recently are the Draft Convention concerning Unemployment, agreed to at Washington in 1919, and the Draft Convention for Establishing Facilities for finding Employment for Seamen (Genoa).

In addition, the League of Nations has just communicated to the governments the Draft Conventions agreed upon at the 1921 International Labour Conference held at Geneva. Those affecting foreign labour include the Convention on compensation for accidents to agricultural employees; this Convention explicitly covers all the employees working in any particular country, and among these will be large numbers of foreign workers.

Emigration Policy of Great Britain and the Dominions

On 10 February a deputation consisting of ex-Governors of the Dominions and representatives of the Empire Migration Committee of the Royal Colonial Institute was received by Mr. Winston Churchill, Secretary of State for the Colonies. Lord Sydenham, on behalf of the deputation, said that the British Isles could no longer support the present population and that it was only by migration that unemployment could be permanently relieved. Sir Arthur Stanley pointed out that in the past financial year public assistance for unemployment had been approximately £330,000,000, and at the same time there were large tracts of the British Empire waiting to be populated. Referring to Labour opposition, he said the Labour Party of Australia saw that the population was largely concentrated in the great cities, and they did not want that disproportionate state of things to be emphasised by immigration; against that genuine objection they had to guard. Some people were afraid that some form of compulsion might be applied, but they might put that on one side as utterly and completely fallacious. Finally, Sir Arthur stated that, in the opinion of the deputation, those who settled in the Dominions should be largely of the producing class, and there should be a continuous policy of co-operation between the Dominions and the Government.

Mr. Churchill, in reply, said he could not but believe that the Government would make substantial provision for furthering the work of Empire settlement. Finance had been promised by the Treasury, and estimates were now being laid before Parliament. Every point of view that had been explained by the deputation would be treated with the fullest consideration. The position was hopeful; a resolution had been passed by the Imperial Conference and a Bill had been announced in the speech from the Throne. Continued persistency and perseverance for generations was required. A year would show practically nothing; ten years would begin to show results; in fifty years great and lasting changes in the groupings of the population of the world might be set on foot, and in a century a revolution might be effected in the balance of population. He agreed that the Bill should be drawn as elastically as possible so that what help they could give to the Dominion Governments might be rendered in the best way.

The Oversea Settlement Committee

The report of the Oversea Settlement Committee (*) for 1921 says that the existing conditions in Great Britain and overseas make it imperative both to provide for a period of years an adequate outlet for the surplus population of the United Kingdom, and to introduce into the Dominions, especially Canada and Australia, fresh population of British birth and British sympathies.

Last year was not a favourable one, generally speaking, from the point of view of Empire settlement and migration. Unemployment the world over and the high cost of ocean travel both militated against migration.

The Government scheme for granting free passages to ex-Service men and women was continued throughout the year. There were 53,187 applications covering about 110,206 persons. The number of warrant books issued was 16,372, covering about 28,776 persons.

With regard to juvenile emigration the report says: "Before the war there was in ordinary circumstances some kind of work for each boy and girl who left school. . . . There is grave reason to fear that in the future many will leave school for whom there will exist no opening at all in this country. If suitable work does not exist within these shores for those who leave school during the next decade, a future must be found for them outside this country and preferably within the Empire". The Committee also urge that "every effort should be made to provide openings upon the land overseas for youths in secondary and public schools". The Committee, after referring with approval to the activities of Dr. Barnardo's Homes and other voluntary organisations, state that from the outset they have done their best to encourage the migration of children and that at their suggestion £47,000 of the National Relief Fund grant was earmarked for that purpose. There is little doubt but that satisfactory co-operation between the Governments of the Empire will lead to an annual settlement overseas of from 10,000 to 15,000 children.

In the case of adults, especially those who have had no previous experience of agriculture, a brief period of preliminary testing immediately prior to departure from this country would be advisable, and the committee believe that about 5,000 pupils could be tested annually at the Hollesley Bay Farm Colony in Suffolk. It is essential, however, that ample opportunities for training should be available overseas, and

(*) *Report of the Oversea Settlement Committee for the year ended 31 December 1921.* London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1922.

the committee support the suggestion of the Director of Migration and Settlement in Australia that the Oversea Governments might undertake the provision of government training farms in the Dominions as a suitable method of co-operating with the Government of the United Kingdom in carrying into effect the policy approved by the Conference of Prime Ministers.

A chance should also be given to family men who have a desire for the soil, and this is a problem of tiding over the preliminary period of training.

The 1921 census figures, showing an excess of women over men of 1,702,802 in England and Wales, made it clear that it was desirable to encourage migration to the Dominions, where there was still some surplus of males, of the largest number of women for whom suitable employment could be found overseas. The Committee are convinced that "any policy of co-operation in Empire settlement which may be adopted by the Governments of the United Kingdom and the Dominions should include provision for a vigorous policy of state aid and encouragement of female migration".

The Committee are convinced that Labour in all parts of the Empire is prepared to regard inter-Imperial migration with sympathy, provided the interests of the migrants are safeguarded, and the standard of living of workers overseas is not depressed. These interests will not be adequately safeguarded unless migration achieves its true purpose, i. e. the settlement on the land of primary producers. There is one representative of Labour interests now serving on the Committee, and the General Council of the Trade Union Congress has also been informally invited to nominate a representative.

Referring to the work of employment exchanges in recruiting and selecting industrial workers for employment overseas, the Committee thinks that the exchanges may become the authorised channel for securing employment overseas, both upon the land and, so far as openings are available, in industry.

With a view to making the medical examination in Great Britain more reliable, the Commonwealth Government have made arrangements for the appointment of about 1,500 medical referees, who will receive full instructions as to the nature of the information they are required to furnish, and will be authorised to charge special fees varying from 10s. a head to £1. 1s. 0d. for a family.

Regarding migration to countries outside the British Empire, reference is made to the resolutions of the International Emigration Commission in favour of state supervision of recruiting agents and of imposing penalties on the dissemination of false information. The report concludes with the observation that it is for the Government to give a lead to the Dominion Governments by the adoption of measures to carry that resolution into effect. The chief steps should be :

- (1) To pass legislation enabling the Government of the United Kingdom to co-operate with the Dominions in a permanent policy.

- (2) To convince Labour both here and overseas that the policy of *laissez-faire*, with its attendant evils, has been abandoned, and that one of the chief objects in view is to provide for the working-classes of the Empire fresh openings and brighter prospects in a healthy life upon the land.

- (3) To develop every stage of the proposed policy in the closest consultation with Labour, and as a first step forthwith to reinforce the representation of Labour on the Oversea Settlement Committee.

- (4) To insist upon improved methods of selection, and improved arrangements for receiving and placing settlers upon the land overseas. (For

the male settler the essential need is the provision of training farms where he can obtain the requisite experience in land work; for women the essential need is the provision of training in household work.

(5) To encourage more particularly the settlement overseas of the young.

South Africa

At the present time there is a tendency in various parts of the Empire to restrict immigration. On 26 January a notice was issued by the High Commissioner of the Union of South Africa in London respecting the conditions of immigration necessitated by the continued congestion of the labour market. The statement points out that the possession of £20 on landing is now regarded as totally inadequate. What is an adequate sum it is not possible to say, as individual cases vary to a great extent, and the sum necessary must vary with the circumstances. In the absence of employment, the intending immigrant must establish the fact that he has sufficient capital to maintain himself for a considerable period after arrival, at least six months. It is clearly to be understood, however, that unless the intending immigrant is able to produce to the Immigration Officer at the port of arrival evidence of adequate capital, or written evidence of definite employment, his entry into the Union will be prohibited. Such evidence must show the nature of the employment and the proposed wage. His ability to carry out his undertaking must be indicated, and, to avoid difficulties, he should obtain the support of a justice of the peace or other competent public official to his written statement. General assurances of friends as to employment, or offers of a home for a time, will not be accepted. Further, the High Commissioner can give no assurance that a person will be allowed to land in the Union. The immigration regulations are administered at the Union ports, and not in London.

On the day following, however, 27 January, the High Commissioner stated that it was to the land that they looked to provide homes for the new settlers. New areas were being opened up, and there were many opportunities for men who are willing and able to go on the land; South Africa wanted as many as possible of the right type. There was a government scheme for training men in South African farming. The immigrant might either go on one of the Government farms, where he would be given free tuition for two years, or else, under an arrangement made with the farmers by the various settlers' leagues, he might become apprenticed to a farmer to get practical experience. There was also plenty of opportunity for those skilled artisans and specialised workers they were unable to obtain locally. The immigration restrictions he had mentioned were due to the special position of South Africa regarding unskilled labour, owing to competition with the native population.

New Zealand

Restrictions have also been imposed on immigration to New Zealand. A memorandum issued in London by the New Zealand Government offices in December last contained a statement that intending immigrants are warned that there is an acute housing shortage in New Zealand and that there will probably be considerable delay in obtaining shipping accommodation. Owing to the conditions at present being experienced in New Zealand any persons unable to secure nomination who might think of proceeding by paying full fares are strongly advised not to do so.

The High Commissioner notified applicants that instructions had been received from the New Zealand Government that no applications for free or reduced rates to the Dominion would be approved at present unless the applicant was assured of accommodation and employment to which to go.

Australia

In Australia, in contrast to the policy of South Africa and New Zealand, steps are being taken to encourage immigration in pursuance of the policy agreed to at the Premiers' Conference.

Mr. Hughes, the Commonwealth Prime Minister, speaking on 28 January at Bendigo stated that the Government was profoundly disappointed at the result of the co-operative arrangement between the Commonwealth and the States for the promotion of immigration. The Government had spent a quarter of a million pounds on developing the scheme, and only ten thousand persons had come to Australia during the last nine months.

A committee, known as the Million Farms Campaign Committee, has been formed at Sydney to urge the proposals of Sir Joseph Carruthers, ex-Premier of New South Wales, which were approved by the inter-State conference of the New Settlers' League in October last, and are supported by Mr. Hughes. These proposals are to make Crown lands accessible by building railways, constructing roads, carrying out waterworks, etc. As land is thus provided with modern communications it is suggested that settlers be placed on it, more settlers being established as communications are pushed further. It is proposed that the project be financed by a joint fund raised half in Australia and half in Great Britain, and that about £30,000,000 be spent in the first six years. It is believed that in twenty or twenty-five years a million new farmers will have been placed on their own farms, and it is estimated that these million men will mean an added population to the Commonwealth of about fourteen millions.

In an interview on 10 February the new Agent-General for Victoria in London said that unless they got a flow of emigrants into the country they would lose it. During the last fifteen years they had spent £11,000,000 on pioneer work. Last year 370,000 acres were irrigated, and a scheme for the irrigation of another 1,500,000 acres was being completed; that meant close settlement and intense culture; there were also about a million acres of Crown lands suitable for wheat growing. According to the speaker, the Government have just completed the settlement of their own soldier settlers, and their policy is to throw the doors open to other desirable settlers; men are wanted who will work hard.

In Western Australia proposals have been submitted to the Commonwealth Prime Minister by the State Government. The State asks for a special advance of £2,000,000 a year to enable it to introduce 25,000 men, women, and children on a basis of 5,000 heads of families of five members each. Similar proposals have been made to the Imperial Government with the idea of settling former British soldiers in the State.

These schemes are the first result of the proposals made by Mr. Hughes to the Premiers' Conference (*).

The Boy Scout headquarters in London are endeavouring, in conjunction with Australia House, to arrange for the emigration of Scout

(*) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 502.

parties to Australia. The Australian Scout organisation hopes that there will be a steady flow of such immigrants, possibly five hundred annually, the boys being carefully selected by the Scout authorities in London.

Canada

A Sub-Committee of the Dominion Cabinet, under the Chairmanship of the Minister of Immigration, has been appointed to prepare a scheme for submission to Parliament during the coming session. It has been instructed to draw up plans to secure suitable immigrants for settlement on the vacant lands still available in Western Canada, and also farm labour for the more settled portions of the country, both in the West and East. Special attention will be given to immigration from the British Isles and United States.

The High Commissioner for Canada in London stated in an interview in January that the unemployment problem would not affect Canadian plans at all; the Commissioner pointed out that Canada's future is dependent upon an inflow of people; that, in spite of seasonal unemployment, there are great opportunities for men willing to go on the land and that the country wants as many as are able to come.

Indians in Kenya Colony

Mr. Churchill, Secretary of State for the Colonies, made a speech on 27 January last in which he referred to the position of the Indian population in British East Africa, or Kenya, as it is now called. He said they had laid down the principle that, so far as was practicable throughout the whole range of the British Empire, colour was not by itself to be a bar. The great Empire of India, with its enormous population, had entered as a partner in the British Empire, and they must be very careful to treat its interests and its citizens with the respect which was their due. He was in communication with the Governor of Kenya on the general question of what was to be done to regulate the position of Indians in East Africa. The British Government were pledged by undertakings to reserve the highlands of East Africa exclusively for European settlers, and they did not intend to depart from that pledge. They wished to apply the principle of equal rights for all civilised men, and that meant that natives and Indians alike who reached and conformed to well-marked European standards should not be denied the fullest exercise and enjoyment of civil and political rights. Future immigration of Indians should be strictly regulated, and the same principle of equal rights and conditions for all civilised men should rule in respect of immigration laws as in all others.

On 14 February, in answer to a question in the House of Commons, Mr. Churchill said that the negotiations, conducted locally by the Governor of Kenya, regarding the Indian question in that colony, had failed to reveal any common ground for a settlement between the European and Indian communities. The application of the resolution of the Imperial Conference ⁽¹⁰⁾ must depend on the local circumstances.

⁽¹⁰⁾ This resolution was as follows:

"The Conference, while reaffirming the Resolution of the Imperial War Conference of 1918, that each community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control of the composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities, recognises that there is an incongruity between the position of India as an equal member of the British Empire and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully

The first part dealing with the control of immigration presented in the case of Kenya as much difficulty as the second part, which dealt with the rights of citizenship of Indians already lawfully domiciled in the territory.

Switzerland

An Order dated 29 November 1921 has modified the regulations governing the residence of aliens in Switzerland in several particulars. Attention may be drawn to Articles 17 and 18, affecting immigrant labour; these articles make it obligatory on the cantonal police authorities, before issuing a licence to an alien worker allowing him to take up an employment, to communicate with the cantonal employment exchanges. The cantons are now permanently empowered to issue residence permits to seasonal workers for the current season, and to women servants for two years.

The Order further suppresses passports and visas between Switzerland and certain countries. A Federal Note of February 1922 states in explanation of this that aliens entering Switzerland, but not for the purpose of seeking employment, require no visa if coming from Belgium, Denmark, the United States, France, Lichtenstein, Luxemburg, the Netherlands and their colonies, Sweden, and Uruguay. The same holds good for persons going to these countries, except in the case of the United States and the Dutch colonies.

Expulsion of Undesirable Immigrants from Prussia

New regulations, dated 21 October 1921, have been issued by the Prussian Ministry of the Interior for the expulsion of so-called undesirable aliens. The present difficult economic situation is referred to in justification, and the general principle established that immigrants shall only be admitted in limited numbers. Aliens already admitted, who have shown themselves undesirable residents, or otherwise burdensome to the general interest, are to be forcibly expelled. Thus expulsion will be carried out in the case of alien criminals, of aliens condemned for food profiteering or other similar offences. Occupation by an alien of excessively large living or business premises, contrary to local requirements, breach of current regulations in connection with the placement of aliens in positions, or residence within the country without proof of useful activity, may all be made cause for expulsion.

Aliens originally of German nationality, or of a family originally German, may be exempt from the operation of the regulations; as may also persons who, though actually aliens, were domiciled in Prussia before 1 April 1914 and have not left the country. Persons who have lost their nationality are treated as aliens in so far as possible in

domiciled in some other parts of the Empire. The Conference accordingly is of the opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the British Commonwealth it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognised.

The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union.

The representatives of India, while expressing their appreciation of the acceptance of the resolution recorded above, feel bound to place on record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa, and their hope that by negotiation between the Governments of India and of South Africa, some way can be found, as soon as may be, to reach a more satisfactory position."

international law, as are persons who have improperly entered the country after 15 November 1921; an exception, however, is made for those of doubtful nationality, who are not therefore in a position to obtain proper certificates from diplomatic representatives.

Arrangements are made for temporary internment in a camp pending expulsion proceedings, but such treatment implies no penalty. National interests are in no way sacrificed, and unnecessary harshness has to be avoided in carrying out the new regulation.

Continental Immigration and Repatriation into Poland

Immigration into Poland is at the moment going on on a large scale. Practically the whole movement is the result of a return of Poles to their own country. Polish nationals returning from Russia number hundreds of thousands. There are also those of Polish race who were living in Germany, and who had left the country now constituting the Polish Republic at a date long previous to the war.

Polish opinion is disturbed at the inconveniences which might arise out of this excessive influx of immigrants. At Poznan the Polish Trade Union Federation has just established, under the presidency of the Palatine of Posnania, a Committee of Re-emigration. The Central Office of this Committee is at Warsaw, and there are local offices at Bialystok, Kovno, Leopold, and Vilna. A bank has also been established under the title of the Credit Association for Re-emigrant Settlers with a view to supporting the action of the Re-emigration Committee⁽¹⁾. In addition, mention may be made of Polish emigration to the United States. This movement attained great heights in the course of the last few months, but has now stopped, as the Polish quota is entirely exhausted.

Emigration from Czechoslovakia

A report by the Ministry of Social Welfare in Czechoslovakia claims that one of the results of the policy pursued has been to help materially in making the unemployment situation less acute, the country having suffered from unemployment since the war ended, but less and less severely since 1919.

The 1920 Convention between France and Czechoslovakia did not at the outset give the results which had been expected by the two countries. The first contingent of 3,000 Czechoslovak workers of various trades sent under the agreement did not appear to give satisfaction, and the French Government made no further arrangements during 1921. Those workers of the first contingent who found jobs in France were able to adapt themselves to their new conditions; the savings sent home by them during 1921 have been estimated by the Czechoslovak authorities at three million kronen.

The seasonal movement of Czechoslovak agricultural workers into Germany continues to be of great importance; such workers find employment offered to them on satisfactory conditions in that country. But the Czechoslovak Government has on several occasions objected to attempts to recruit specially skilled workers and technical specialists with the object of establishing abroad businesses which would enter into competition with certain national industries.

Czechoslovakia has concluded Conventions with Austria for a supply of agricultural labour.

(1) *Kurjev Polski*, 24 Jan. 1922. Warsaw.

Legislative Measures in the United States

Mr. Johnson, chairman of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalisation, introduced a Bill (H. R. 9238) on 21 November which is similar to Bill H. R. 5346 ⁽¹²⁾, but contains some additional provisions. Thus, every immigrant would be obliged to obtain a primary certificate of registration from a United States consular representative before starting on his journey. The Bill would also establish a uniform system for the naturalisation of aliens throughout the United States. A registered declarant would be able to make petition for citizenship after continuous residence for five years.

Mr. Johnson also introduced a Bill (H. R. 9297) on 5 December, which provides that an alien who is refused admission to the United States under the Three per Cent. Act shall be entitled to a refund of the money paid by him as fees for his passport visa.

A third Bill (H. R. 9458), introduced by the same representative on 10 December, would entirely prohibit the immigration of aliens to the United States, after sixty days from the passing of the Act. Government officials, travellers for pleasure, students, and ministers would be excepted. A resident citizen or an alien who has declared his intention of becoming a citizen and has resided three years in the United States would be able to apply for permission to bring over his wife and children. It is further provided that nothing in the Bill is to prevent the importation of skilled labour as provided in Section 3 of the Immigration Act, nor the importation of persons employed as domestic servants.

A court of three Federal judges has upheld the constitutionality of the California Anti-Alien Land Law, which forbids aliens ineligible for citizenship from owning or leasing agricultural land.

Speaking at a meeting of the Women's Section of the National Civic Federation on 1 February Mr. Johnson said that Congress would probably continue the present Three per Cent. Act with minor modifications until it has been superseded by some more effective or desirable legislation. Congress would then take up the subject of naturalisation, and "will give us an entirely new code which will include separate naturalisation for women, full rights for American women married to aliens, an English reading and writing test for citizenship, and, probably, a form of registration as part of the naturalisation process". He stated that the Three per Cent. Act had reduced immigration during the first eight months of its operation to 187,129 persons, not counting 1,712 who have been temporarily admitted on bond for humane reasons. [Among the number of those admitted for humane reasons may be noted 1,100 who were released by order of the Secretary of Labour on the eve of the Christmas season. A large proportion of these immigrants were Hungarians, although the quota for Hungary has already been exhausted for the whole year.] The loud protests against the restriction law were coming from the steamship companies and the foreign language press. He was disappointed that the United States was making a large profit from immigration. They had, during the last year, made \$4,000,000, over and above operating expenses, from the visa of passports alone.

Special Taxes on Aliens in the United States

During the 1921 session the California Legislature passed an Act, of which Section 424 imposed an annual poll tax of \$10 on every resident alien of male sex. All moneys, including wages payments, due to such

(12) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 117.

aliens were liable to deduction beforehand, except where payment had previously been arranged. Notice of non-payment could be sent to the employer, who was then obliged to pay the tax and deduct the corresponding amount from his employee's wages; the employee was allowed three days in which to furnish a receipt or proof of payment.

From the outset the Act has been criticised as unconstitutional. The Supreme Court of the State of California has recently discharged a Mexican national, who had been under arrest by the City and County Police of San Francisco for non-payment of the tax. The ruling granting a discharge is based on the text of the Fourteenth Amendment to the constitution of the United States, prohibiting any State to "deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws". The interpretation put on this Amendment by the Supreme Court was that it applied to every person living within the territorial jurisdiction covered by the constitution without distinction of nationality, race, or colour. The Court ruled that the tax was unconstitutional in that it applied to persons of alien nationality only ⁽¹³⁾.

WELFARE AND PROTECTION WORK

The Work of the Jewish Colonisation Association in 1920

The 1920 Report of the Central Committee of the Jewish Colonisation Association, a powerful organisation with connections all over the world, gives a very good idea of the work accomplished in many countries, including the Argentine Republic, Brazil, the United States, Canada, Palestine, Cyprus, Turkey in Asia, Poland, and Roumania. The aim of the society is to better the condition of Jewish populations by means of emigration or home settlement, and to demonstrate that Jewish settlements can contribute greatly to agricultural production.

The Argentine Republic is one of the countries in which the Association has carried on some of its most successful work; here a certain number of agricultural colonies are managed directly by the Association. In 1920 out of a total Jewish population numbering 27,076 persons, there were 17,629 engaged on agricultural work (including dependents); the latter were grouped in eight agricultural settlements, while the remainder, more especially those engaged in trade, have settled in the small towns. These figures show a slight falling off of the number of agricultural settlers by comparison with the previous year, whereas the other classes of the Jewish population show a sensible increase, chiefly in consequence of the arrival of new immigrants, there being 7,995 non-agricultural immigrants in 1919 and 9,448 in 1920.

On the other hand, the report emphasises the progress made by the agricultural settlers in improving their cultivation methods and in acquiring permanent tenure of their farms. The tendency is more and more for settlers to acquire complete ownership of their land by paying off their indebtedness to the Jewish Colonisation Association; during 1920 alone 106 settlers freed themselves of all obligations, whereas the number doing so was only 185 persons for the whole previous period from 1911 to 1919. New public institutions have also been established, such as hospitals, dispensaries, libraries, learned, charitable, and mutual aid societies. The co-operative societies—chiefly of the distributive type—are also progressing; they are by now almost entirely free of any financial obligations towards the Association, and play an

⁽¹³⁾ UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, *Monthly Labour Review*, Dec. 1921. Washington.

important part in building up the economic prosperity of the settlements. The area of cultivation rose from 129,639 hectares in 1919 to 154,774 hectares in 1920 ; cattle-breeding is also practised on a large scale, and the total head of cattle reared greatly increased during the course of the year.

Education (conducted chiefly on a religious basis) has progressed ; there were 4,206 pupils in the schools during the year 1920, as against 2,767 during 1919.

In general, the Association aims at improving the position of the settlers by giving scientific advice and carrying out practical experiments, by providing financial help (especially in the way of extending repayments), and by helping them to reach financial independence at an early date. The Association tries to raise the productivity of the soil, and also has attempted a regrouping of certain settlements with the object of providing settlers with as much land as will enable them to earn a comfortable livelihood, without making it possible for them to sublet and live on the receipt of rents.

In Brazil the Association has two agricultural settlements of no great size, about 600 persons in all.

In the United States the Association is in touch with a great many Jewish societies and institutions, whose work has not relaxed in spite of the great decrease in the tide of Jewish immigration due to the operation of the Three per Cent. Act. The large Jewish population already in the States benefits by the activities of such societies as the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, founded no less than twenty years ago jointly by the Association and the Baron de Hirsch Fund. This society is tending more and more to concentrate on the granting of loans to Jews engaged in agriculture. During the twenty years of its existence it has lent out a total of \$3,476,000 on loan, the amount lent during the year 1920 being \$416,000 : the land held by Jewish settlers in that year was estimated to cover 14,000 hectares. The Society also runs several subsidiary associations, such as the Farm Settlement Bureau, which gives advice to intending settlers, the Farm Finding Bureau, which acts as middleman in the buying of farms, the Farm Labour Bureau, which acts as employment agency for agricultural labour, and the Sanitation Bureau, which carries on health propaganda among Jewish settlers.

The Removal Committee of New York is another society which is in touch with the Jewish Colonisation Association ; this Committee has for twenty years done work in meeting immigrants on their arrival in New York and in helping them to reach their destinations.

In Canada the Association is in touch with the Canadian Committee. Of the settlements founded by this organisation eleven are prosperous. In the year 1920 there were 600 Jewish settlements in existence covering 60,700 hectares and estimated to total \$5,000,000 in value ; they provided support for about 2,500 persons. During the last thirteen years the Canadian Committee has advanced \$387,200 to settlers, the amount advanced during 1920 being \$31,600, while a slightly larger amount was repaid. The Committee also carries on English and Hebrew language courses.

In Palestine the Association has attempted to help the large population of Jewish settlers by advancing loans and buying farms. The settlers lack technical knowledge and capital, and it is the opinion of the central committee of the Association that nothing much can be attempted in Palestine until the political situation has improved and a large amount of capital has been collected.

In Roumania and Poland the Association has confined itself to doing educational and financial aid work on behalf of the Jewish population native to these countries.

Centralisation of Jewish Welfare Organisations

According to the *Zionistische Korrespondenz* ⁽¹⁴⁾ the Executive Committee of the Central Jewish World Relief Conference elected at the last conference at Prague held a meeting at Berlin on 5 December. This meeting chiefly discussed a scheme for uniting the work of all emigration associations. Some doubts were expressed by certain of the speakers in view of the philanthropic character of a number of the associations; however, a resolution was reached to establish a central institution which should include all associations. Arising out of this resolution, a big Emigration Office will immediately be established at Paris; all the organisations, including the Jewish Colonisation Association and the Joint Distribution Committee and the Society for assisting German Jews, will be represented. One of its earliest activities will be to undertake to create a Jewish Emigration bank, by means of which it will be possible to replace philanthropic methods by means of projects of a social and economic kind.

Emigration Office of Building Workers' Federation in Italy

On 23 December 1921 the Italian Federation of Workers in the Building Trades ⁽¹⁵⁾ held a general meeting at which a resolution was adopted to establish a trade union emigration office at Turin for Italian workers in the building trades in connection with the central offices of the Union at Turin. The objects aimed at are briefly as follows: (a) In the first place, emigrants are to leave their country more fully inspired by the spirit of class consciousness, so that international solidarity may be strengthened; (b) care is to be taken that emigrants go provided with their trade union papers in proper order; (c) their union rights are to be maintained on their behalf with foreign unions; (d) information is to be passed through about employment conditions abroad; the emigrant movement is not to injure the position of comrades in other countries, but arrangements are to be made to organise the engagement of labour to go abroad in a collective way; (e) in order, therefore, to regulate the migration of workers, co-operation must be sought with foreign organisations; (f) the interests of emigrant workers must be furthered and advanced with the government authorities; (g) international agreements must be signed which will give all immigrants the advantages of the same social legislation as are enjoyed by native workers; (h) finally, the trade union emigration office proposes to assist emigrants in doing their personal business, for instance, to help them to obtain passports and papers, to make personal enquiries for them or to help them to wind up family business.

The Bonomelli Hostels

During 1921 the hostels run by the Bonomelli (Catholic) institution catered for 43,916 emigrants and migrant workers at the following towns: Bergamo, Bologna, Chiasso, Milan, Domodossola, Ventimiglia. These hostels offer workers cheap beds and cheap meals. In some places travelling agencies and changing rooms have also been established.

⁽¹⁴⁾ No. 8, 13 Dec. 1921.

⁽¹⁵⁾ *Federazione italiana operai edili*.

Conditions at Ellis Island, New York

The Volunteer Advisory Committee on Immigrant Welfare appointed by the Commissioner-General of Immigration ⁽¹⁶⁾ to study welfare work at various ports of entry has made certain recommendations which will be put into effect immediately. They are as follows :

The appointment of an official Director of Information, who under the immediate direction of the Commissioner shall have complete charge of all welfare work at the island.

The appointment of interpreters, speaking several languages and having training in social work, for service among immigrants awaiting inspection, during which time, for obvious reasons, they are not allowed to communicate directly with friends.

The development of a plan for the systematic interchange of permissible information between detained immigrants and their waiting friends, and for keeping families advised as to the condition of members who may be in the hospital.

Separate and greatly improved day and night quarters for women with young children, with a trained dietitian in charge of children's feeding.

The representatives of private welfare agencies authorised to work at the station may, under the direction and supervision of the official Director of Information, assist in general welfare work among immigrants after they are duly examined.

Three separate religious services, Catholic, Jewish, and Protestant, on Sundays, with occasional services for other groups if needed.

When aliens are debarred and deported, the reason therefor shall be explained to them, and, when practicable, to interested relatives or friends.

Some welfare workers shall be on duty at all hours rather than during the day only as at present.

In future immigrants will not be detained on the Ellis Island barges, but in commodious and comfortable receiving rooms in the main building, pending their medical examination.

The Committee has been requested by the Commissioner-General to become a standing committee to advise the Bureau of Immigration in all questions pertaining to the welfare of immigrants.

Polish Seasonal Labour in Germany

The German Central Office for Workers ⁽¹⁷⁾ has drawn up regulations for the hiring of foreign labour. The employer must send in a list of workers required, and may add the names and addresses of any of his last season's workers whom he would like to re-engage. The same sheet of paper has printed on it a 'Model Contract for the Engagement of Polish Workers', which has to be signed by both parties.

The model contract for 1922 includes a great many provisions for the protection of the Polish worker. He, on his side, undertakes to work from the day on which the contract begins to run until all agricultural operations are completed, but not beyond 15 December; he engages to do all the work which is assigned to him by the employer or any representative of the employer, and to agree to accept it either as time work or piece work as it may be offered.

Hours of work, wages rates (including overtime rates and piece-work rates) are mostly settled by district collective agreements. Where no such agreements have been drawn up, conditions are determined by

⁽¹⁶⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 118.

⁽¹⁷⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 312.

current legislative or administrative regulations, generally as follows. Thus the Order on agricultural labour issued on 24 January 1919 allows an average 8-hour day in the four months from November to February, a 10-hour day in March, April, and September, October, and an 11-hour day in May, June, July, and August; these working hours may in all cases be interrupted by two hours for meals. Overtime must be worked in cases of urgency, but is paid for at a higher rate.

Again, failing special wages scales fixed by collective agreement, wages are calculated in two parts. First, there is a basic wage, consisting of free quarters, heating, and products in kind; and, secondly, a cash time-rate or piece-rate wage. The general time-rate is fixed at 1.70 marks per hour for men and strong lads, and at 1.50 marks per hour for women, girls, and boys. This yields a total cash wage of 13.60 marks (men) or 12.00 marks (women) per 8-hour day, of 17.00 marks (men) or 15.00 marks (women) per 10-hour day, and of 18.70 marks (men) or 16.80 marks (women) per 11-hour day. Piece-rates, where not fixed by collective agreement, are arranged as they are needed between the two parties, so as to yield at least 25 to 30 per cent. more wage to the worker of normal capacity than he could earn on the time-rate basis. Wages are paid once a week or once a fortnight, and during the first fifteen weeks the employer may retain 10 marks per week in order to pay it in a lump sum at the end of the engagement, or before the end if he terminate the contract for some reason which is not to the discredit of the worker. He is entitled to refuse to pay a portion both of the basic and of the cash wage if the worker should absent himself from work without cause. The worker may appeal against this. By a special arrangement the worker has for the time being to leave 10 marks per week of his first twenty weeks' wages in the hands of the employer as a kind of pledge for the loan of the implements which he uses in his work.

The employer is bound to provide good quarters, separately for the two sexes, and fitted with tables, chairs, washing apparatus, and locked cupboards, a place for cooking and washing clothes, firing, and a bed, straw mattress, and woollen coverlet for each person. He pays the whole of the journey to the place of employment and the return journey as far as the German frontier.

The employment can be terminated by the employer on account of violent conduct or grave insult, etc., also on account of persistent refusal to work or gross neglect of duty; he may not terminate it on account of any trade union activity displayed by a worker. A worker may terminate the contract if his employer refuses to pay him his wages or continually delays payment; also if he persists in providing bad food or bad quarters. Proposed terminations of contracts require a fortnight's notice and must be submitted to the conciliation authorities. Provision is made in all cases of dispute for supplying to the alien worker a representative of the German Central Office for Workers, or some other person, acquainted with his language, and all disputes of any kind whatsoever must be submitted to the conciliation authorities before being carried into court.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Notes on Industrial Hygiene

LISTS OF INDUSTRIAL POISONS

OFFICIAL lists of industrial poisons, though varying between different countries and at different dates, are all intended to cover the industrial hazards to which workers are exposed. They are, however, frequently far from clear on the subject of the principal diseases, especially tuberculosis, resulting from industrial conditions. A recent comparative study ⁽¹⁾ emphasises the need for co-operation between doctors, health insurance funds, technical experts, and the inspection services, to provide for the prevention of and compensation for industrial disease.

Touching on the science of poisonous substances in industrial processes, Dr. Spörri enlarges on the amount of research required and the difficulties encountered. These difficulties are connected chiefly with changes in factory processes and in the different raw materials used. The chief points to be covered are the means of investigating, and the chances of incurring, poisoning and infection in industry. Two types of case are then available: (1) those deliberately induced and investigated through laboratory experiments; (2) those not deliberately induced, i. e. cases of accidental poisoning, especially those occurring in groups, and cases of accidental infection. The former line of investigation involves pharmacology, physiology, chemical laboratory research, and experiments on animals. Accidental poisoning and infections arise in the most varied spheres: in industry, in the household, among students, and in laboratory and other scientific research.

The author lays stress on the need for lists of industrial poisons, and the value of instructions distributed to workers and of labour inspection in minimising risks. He also emphasises the need of preventive measures, especially in view of the increased frequency of poisoning owing to the use of articles under fancy names and, during the war, of substitutes.

There are still, however, a number of causes, as yet undiscovered, of disabilities and diseases which only reveal their effects when the evil is done, without the appearance of any symptom to warn the victim of his danger. Of late years the knowledge of industrial hazards has increased, thanks to the multiplication and improvement of means of research. The advance of industrial technique and of medicine has now made possible the diagnosis of a larger number of industrial diseases caused by toxic and infectious substances. In the case of mixed

⁽¹⁾ Martin SPÖRRI: *Die Entwicklung der Listen über gewerbliche Gifte; die Frage ihrer Erweiterung (mit besonderer Berücksichtigung der Schweiz)*, Doctor's thesis, University of Zürich. iv.+102 pp. Zug, Speck-Brandenberg. 1921.

infections, however, without clearly defined characteristics, diagnosis becomes much more difficult. Useful as knowledge of the causes of intoxication and infection may be in the prevention of risks, Dr. Spörri points out that there will always be unknown causes at work.

As valuable preventive measures, he mentions education of the workers, supervision of them by works managers, factory inspection, inspection of materials, etc., but in the field of industrial hygiene, even more than elsewhere, the goodwill of workers and employers is essential to the success even of limited preventive measures. Factory legislation, by imposing general sanitary regulations, has already helped to diminish the risks to which the worker is exposed, and to protect workers who are in contact with poisonous substances. Lists of poisons, however, are far more effective in preventing poisoning, since they involve compensation for and notification of cases of poisoning, even when very slight, and the prohibition or rigid limitation of the use of highly poisonous substances.

Dr. Spörri then deals with certain special restrictive regulations, among which may be mentioned prohibition of the use of certain substances in a given industry or in all industries, prohibition of dangerous work for certain categories of specially susceptible workers, such as youths and women, control of the transport and import of poisonous materials, and compulsory notification. Before analysing in turn the different lists of poisons, the author points out the use of such lists in industry and society as a whole. He considers that they are of great assistance to doctors in the diagnosis of industrial diseases, as medical men cannot be expected to keep continually in touch with technical and industrial progress.

Since 1887 there have been four statutory lists of poisons in Switzerland. The one at present in force appeared in 1920. The two earliest lists, which are now only of historical interest, were arranged in numerical order according to the number of recorded cases of poisoning. In addition to chemically poisonous substances, they included certain infections, such as smallpox, glanders, and anthrax. The 1916 list only covers chemically poisonous substances, arranged in alphabetical order. In 1920, when Dr. Spörri's thesis was in the press, a more complete list appeared ⁽²⁾, which is given below.

Acetaldehyde.	Benzoyl chloride and benzoyl bromide.
Acetylene (industrial).	Lead, its compounds and alloys.
Acetylene tetrachloride (tetraline).	Manganese dioxide.
Acridine.	Tartar emetic.
Caustic lime.	Bromine.
Alkalis.	Ethyl bromide.
(1) Caustic potash lye.	Methyl bromide.
(2) Caustic soda lye.	Calcium carbide.
(3) Potash.	Carbolic acid (phenol).
(4) Caustic soda.	Quinine, quinine preparations and derivatives.
Alkaloids.	Chlorine.
Formic acid (concentrated).	Ethyl chloride.
Ammonia.	Chloroformic acid ester.
Aniline and its homologues.	Chloride of lime.
Arsenic and its compounds.	Methyl chloride.
Benzidine.	Chloroform.
Benzine (of petroleum).	
Benzol.	

(2) *Verordnung 1 bis, über die Unfallversicherung vom 20 August 1920.* The list is given in the alphabetical order of the German original.

Potassium chlorate.	Nitrosodiethylaniline.
Sodium chlorate.	Nitrosodimethylaniline.
Sulphur chloride.	Nitrosocresol.
Chromium and its compounds.	Nitrosophenol.
Cyanogen and its compounds.	Paratoluolsulphoacidmethylether.
Cyanamid and calcium cyanamid.	Persulfate.
Diamine.	Phenylhydrazine.
Dianisidine.	Phosgene (carbon oxychloride).
Dimethylsulphate.	Phosphorus (yellow).
Dinitrophenol.	Phosphorous chloride.
Acetic acid (concentrated).	Phosphoretted hydrogen.
Acetic anhydride.	Picric acid (trinitrophenol).
Fluorine and its compounds.	Mercury and its compounds.
(1) Silicon fluoride.	Nitric acid.
(2) Hydrofluoric acid.	Nitrites.
(3) Silicofluoric acid	Hydrochloric acid.
(4) Carbon tetrafluoride.	Carbon disulphide.
Formaldehyde.	Sodium sulphide.
Hydroxylamine.	Sulphuric acid.
Iodine.	Sulphur trioxide.
Ethyl iodide.	Sulphurous acid.
Methyl iodide.	Sulphuretted hydrogen.
Carbon monoxide.	Carbon tetrachloride.
Nitraniline.	Oil of turpentine and substitutes.
Nitro and chlorinated nitro- compounds of benzol and its homologues.	Tar, its fumes and oils, pitch.
Nitroglycerine.	Toluidine.
Nitrous gases.	Toluol sulphochloride.
	Trichlorethylene.
	Tin chloride.

After a detailed analysis of the Swiss lists, the author gives a summary of legislation in certain other countries. In France, Breton in 1901 first drew up a list of acute or chronic poisonings resulting from the manufacture or use of given substances, which were to be considered industrial diseases. The latest French list is dated October 1919. Great Britain also has lists of poisons, but they differ from others mentioned in that they schedule the industries which give rise to poisoning. Germany has no lists of poisons, as poisoning is generally treated as an industrial accident. In the Netherlands compulsory notification of diseases is based on lists similar to those of both France and Great Britain. Certain of the States of America, for example, New York, also have special lists of poisons.

Passing to the question of infection, Dr. Spörri concludes that it is necessary to draw up statutory lists of infections, similar to those of poisons, which would cover those infectious diseases which were to be treated as industrial diseases. The author proposes the following list :

- Anthrax, glanders, smallpox.
- Foot and mouth disease, trichophytosis, actinomycosis, scabies.
- Tetanus, erysipelas, typhus.
- Cholera, typhoid and paratyphoid, dysentery.
- Ankylostomiasis, rabies.
- Tropical diseases: intermittent fever, malaria, yellow fever, relapsing fever, sleeping sickness, Aleppo boil.
- Non-genital syphilis (lips, tongue) in glass blowers.
- Combinations of the foregoing.
- Combinations with diseases due to chemical factors.

Dr. Spörri also devotes a chapter to international lists of industrial poisons, which were first proposed by the International Association for Labour Legislation. At the conference of this Association in 1904 the

problems of phosphorus and of lead were raised, and the Association set up a committee to draft a list of chemical substances which should be regarded as industrial poisons. This list was to be revised from time to time. In 1906 Sommerfeld modified this list so that poisonous products, which had been classified according to the degree of danger involved, were arranged in alphabetical order, and other modifications were made later. The international list, on which many of the national official lists have been based, includes five headings: the name and nature of the product; branches of industry handling poisons; channels of entry of poisons into the body; symptoms of poisoning; and prophylactic measures.

In his conclusion Dr. Spörri points out that the development and extension of social insurance is a clearly marked tendency and need of today. He states that lists of poisons are necessary and useful for purposes of notification, but do not in themselves provide completely for prevention and protection. They afford definite bases for legislation, but they must be revised from time to time in order to allow for changes in industry and in local conditions.

LEAD POISONING IN ACCUMULATOR MANUFACTURE

Side by side with the study of individual cases of industrial lead poisoning, an extension of investigation to groups of workers exposed to the danger of this disease is necessary so that the degree of risk in different industries using lead may be determined. At the same time it will be possible to estimate the importance of signs of lead poisoning from the point of view of diagnosis, prognosis, and prophylaxis. In an investigation of this type in a large French accumulator factory⁽³⁾, of the workers examined 96 were employed on various processes exposing them in different degrees to the risk of lead poisoning (casting, moulding, filling, forming, etc.); of these 72 were men and 24 women; 16 were Arabs, the remainder Europeans.

Among signs indicating latent lead poisoning, the blue line on the gums was present in 65 per cent. of the cases examined. Haematological examination revealed the presence of mononucleosis in 21 per cent. and red corpuscles with basophile granules in nearly half of the subjects (48 per cent.). The investigators draw attention to the importance of these signs, as they are almost peculiar to lead poisoning. They are very rarely met with otherwise, and in such cases are not pronounced. The main problem now is to prove their presence by suitable tests. On the other hand, nuclear red corpuscles, apart from anaemia, were quite exceptional. Tests for lead in the urine gave positive results in 70 per cent. of the cases. In 40 per cent. the proportion was high — 0.05 to 0.12 milligrammes in the total of twenty-four hours' urine. Enquiry into symptoms of definite lead poisoning in the history of the subjects showed lead colic occasionally (7 per cent.), parotiditis rarely (2 per cent.). Hypertension, obviously of more complex origin, was found in 29 per cent. of the cases.

In spite of the large number of workers included in the investigation, some of whom had been in the industry for many years (88 for less than 5 years, 8 from 15 to 30 years), actual symptoms of serious lead

(3) F. HEIM, E. AGASSE-LAFONT, and A. FEIL: *Contribution à l'étude du saturnisme professionnel, résumé d'une enquête sur l'intoxication saturnine dans l'industrie de la fabrication des accumulateurs*, in the *Presse Médicale*, No. 9, 1 Feb. 1922. Paris.

poisoning were entirely absent. It is suggested that workers attacked by the disease would not be found by an investigation of this kind, having been obliged or persuaded to leave the industry. The conclusion drawn is that the investigation should cover all workers who have been employed in a factory during a given period, which should be reasonably long. Such an investigation would naturally require close co-operation on the part of manufacturers, factory doctors, and workers. The investigation also showed that women are less affected than men, that workers of long standing show a higher percentage of signs of poisoning, that the risk is progressively higher in casting, moulding, forming, and filling, and that race has no appreciable influence on the incidence of poisoning.

LEAD POISONING IN THE AMERICAN POTTERY TRADE

A report recently made to the United States Public Health Service on lead poisoning in the pottery trades sums up the results of an investigation which began early in 1919 (*). The conclusion drawn is that workers engaged in certain branches of the pottery trade are seriously and constantly exposed to lead poisoning, chiefly from the lead contained in the glaze, and that this danger can be reduced, provided that certain facilities and methods are altered by the pottery owners and certain precautions taken by the workers. The investigation was first undertaken at the request of the Brotherhood of Operative Potters, which wished to disprove the contention that the trade was extremely dangerous, and that workers in it were liable to lead poisoning. This contention was made a ground for discrimination against certain groups of pottery workers by life insurance companies in issuing policies. The enquiry covered 92 potteries, employing 21,000 persons, or 53 per cent. of the total number of pottery workers in the United States. Only the workers actually in contact with lead were examined, of whom 1,504 were men and 398 women.

The chief means of entry of the lead into the system was found to be the stomach, as the lead was inhaled into the nasal and pharyngeal cavities and later swallowed. Carelessness in personal habits and the eating of contaminated food are contributory means to the absorption of lead. A less important means of entry is the lungs, which absorb lead from fumes as well as dust. Absorption of lead through the skin is possible, but is found to be almost negligible.

The highest percentage of poisoning in men was found among the dippers, the mixers, and odd men, while in women the highest percentage was among the dippers' helpers and ware gatherers. These workers are all brought into direct contact with the glaze. The percentage of lead poisoning drops as the percentage of lead used in the glaze decreases, and lead poisoning may therefore be expected to disappear when leadless glaze is used. The adoption of leadless glazes is not impossible, but certain objections which have hitherto prevented their use in America can only be overcome by radical changes in methods of manufacturing and firing pottery. The use of fritted lead glazes is advocated as a means of decreasing the risk of lead poisoning. In this process it would only be necessary to employ two or three men

(*) UNITED STATES TREASURY DEPARTMENT, PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE: *Lead Poisoning in the Pottery Trades*; Public Health Bulletin No. 116, by B. G. NEWMAN, W. J. MCCONNELL, O. M. SPENCER, F. M. PHILLIPS. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

instead of the large numbers who now come in direct contact with the lead glaze. Methods and formulae for making proper frits are given in the report.

The number of cases of poisoning found in the various divisions of the pottery trade cannot be accepted as an absolute measure of their relative hazard, which is also affected by many other factors. The investigation showed, for instance, that the number of cases of lead poisoning increases with the age of the workers, with the period of exposure, and with the length of the working day. It also showed that poisoning is more prevalent among men than among women, but this is accounted for by a much longer period of exposure for the men. Poisoning was more frequent where toilet facilities, ventilation, lighting, dining accommodation, and dust conditions were bad. Any or all of these factors may play a more or less important part in inducing lead poisoning as the personal habits and tendencies of the individual vary. The authors of the report urge that no one should jump to the conclusion that to remedy any particular condition, except by abolishing the use of lead glaze entirely, would immediately reduce the number of cases of poisoning. The effect of each factor, however, deserves careful consideration. The report closes with recommendations to workers and managers in industry, and the usual preventive measures are indicated.

ABSORPTION OF SALTS OF LEAD AND MERCURY THROUGH THE SKIN

Experiments in the absorption of salts of lead and mercury through the unbroken skin of cats and human beings by rubbing the skin with a lead ointment⁽⁵⁾ gave as a result in both cases, for an average period of one day on a surface of one square decimetre, an average permeability of 0.1 to 0.2 milligrammes. This quantity would be sufficient to induce chronic poisoning in cats, and while the author states that there is no industry affording opportunities for the absorption of such a quantity by the human skin, he emphasises the necessity of avoiding any possibility of lead poisoning through the skin. It is interesting to note that the absorption of metal is almost the same, whether the material used is 50 per cent. lead oleate ointment, a 33 per cent. mixture of litharge and animal fat, or grey mercury ointment—unguents differing very considerably in composition. Without claiming infallibility for the results of such limited experiments, the author draws the conclusion that, after a certain point of saturation of the fatty base with the metal has been reached, any further increase of the metallic content will have no additional effect on the total absorption.

DANGERS TO HEALTH IN VULCANISING WORKS

A clinical study of workers employed in vulcanising rubber goods has recently been published by Dr. Calamita, a member of the medical inspection staff of the Rome Labour Office⁽⁶⁾. His investigations covered seven workshops and twenty workers, and the various methods of vulcanising were all examined. An elaborate clinical examination

(5) Ph. O. SUSSMANN: *Studien über die Resorption von Blei und Quecksilber bzw. deren Salzen durch die unverletzte Haut des Warmblüters*, in *Archiv für Hygiene*, 1921, Vol. 90, p. 175; reviewed in *Hygienische Rundschau*, Vol. XXXI, No. 24, 15 Dec. 1921. Berlin.

(6) Dr. OTTAVIO CALAMITA: *Le Malattie professionali; studio clinico sugli operai in vulcanizzazione*. Rome, Ispettorato medico dell' Ufficio municipale del Lavoro, 1921.

of the employees was followed by detailed blood tests and inspection of the sanitary conditions of the workrooms.

Dr. Calamita states that one-third of the workers examined suffered from chronic poisoning. He considers that this is caused by benzol mixed with other substances (helped by the bad ventilation), rather than by carbon disulphide, of which very little is used, or benzine, which is freely used but not very poisonous. Persons predisposed to the poison are affected sooner than others. The most usual symptoms are debility, oligæmia, diminution of the hæmoglobin, morphological changes in the red corpuscles, reduced resistance of the red corpuscles, eosinophilia (which may be severe), and irritation of the respiratory system.

Among the precautions recommended are either better ventilation of workrooms by localised exhaust pipes, or prohibition of work in premises with insufficient floor and window space; strict exclusion of children under 15; improved vulcanising solutions, a mixture of benzine and benzol being recommended in which the proportion of the latter has been reduced to the lowest limit technically possible; avoidance of the use of the highly poisonous carbon disulphide; frequent medical inspection of the workers and examination for eosinophilia when necessary; temporary exclusion from work of the workers most affected, and instruction of the workers in the poisonous properties of the substances used and the precautions which should be adopted.

TNT POISONING IN THE UNITED STATES

The short period during which trinitroluene (TNT) has been used on a large scale in America has not afforded an opportunity for a thorough investigation of its toxic effects, but Dr. Alice Hamilton's⁽⁷⁾ study describes American experiments during the war in the handling of this explosive. This article summarises the reports furnished by students placed in certain factories for the purpose of observation, but there does not appear to have been any medical organisation in the United States for the supervision of workers exposed to danger. The handling of pure TNT seems harmless compared with that of amatol, a mixture of TNT and ammonium nitrate, a hygroscopic salt. It has been recognised that the skin is of the greatest importance as a means of entry, and that oily substances favour absorption. Observation of negroes has not shown any race immunity. The majority of the workers were men, and therefore it has not been possible to establish any comparison of susceptibility as between men and women. It has been found that young men are more susceptible than older men, so much so that the employment of young men may fairly be described as unprofitable. As in England, it has been proved that workers are more liable to disease during the first three months of their employment. It has not been possible to demonstrate that crude TNT is more toxic than the pure product, or the contrary, but it has been generally recognised that crude TNT is more likely to cause dermatitis. Webster's reaction, which has been used extensively, is a reliable test for the absorption of TNT, but not in cases of acute poisoning, because the test frequently yields negative results in serious cases, owing probably to the suspension of the elimination of TNT from the body in such cases.

⁽⁷⁾ Dr. Alice HAMILTON: *Trinitroto luene Poisoning*, in the *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, Vol. III, No. 3, July 1921. Boston, Mass.

DUST IN PRINTING WORKS

The principal results of an enquiry^(*) into the problem of dust in printing shops led to certain conclusions which may here be summarised. Printing cannot be described as a "dusty" trade; the average quantity of dust in the air is no greater, and in some cases considerably less, than in many occupied rooms. The dust in the air contains very little silica, sometimes a quite negligible quantity, while even the dust in compositors' cases, in machine rooms, and other sources of dust contains less silica than dust collected from an ordinary living room. In view of the presence of lead in the dust in type cases, it is desirable that some apparatus should be used, particularly in large works, for removing the dust from cases and trays. Such apparatus should be so constructed that the dust cannot escape during the process of removal.

MORTALITY FROM ANTHRAX IN ITALY

Consideration of the statistics of deaths from anthrax in Italy leads Dr. Gherardi^(*), of the Workers' Clinic of Milan, to the conclusion that on the whole the number of deaths is steadily diminishing throughout the country. In fact, it is no more than one-third of what it was during the first years of the period studied (1887-1916). This diminution is more striking in the agricultural districts which had suffered most from the disease, and shows that the preventive measures and curative methods employed to combat it have been really successful. Nevertheless, in districts where anthrax is chiefly of industrial and commercial origin, it is found that the death rate is stationary, and in some districts is even on the increase, for example in Liguria. Taking the country as a whole, the reduction of the death rate is more noticeable among women (where infection was almost entirely of agricultural origin) than among men; among agricultural workers than among all kinds of other workers; and in the small agricultural centres than in the big commercial or industrial centres.

The data collected enable the author to draw practical conclusions regarding effective prophylactic measures. Prevention of indigenous anthrax, which is transmitted to man by the infected animals, consists chiefly in anti-anthrax vaccination and in vigorous application of the general and special instructions issued by the government, such as notification of cases of animal anthrax, isolation, disinfection of cattle sheds, and destruction of animals which have died of anthrax. The campaign against anthrax of exotic origin, i. e. caused by animal products, such as hides, hair, wool, bones, etc., imported from abroad, will be carried out by disinfecting the products themselves, the means of transport, and the places in which they are stored and manufactured, also by protecting the persons handling them in the course of transport and manufacture.

On the basis of the statistical results set forth in his article, the author feels justified in concluding that in Italy preventive measures against indigenous anthrax are on the whole adequately and successfully applied, while those aimed at industrial anthrax have been insufficiently

(*) C. B. Roos: *Dust in Printers' Workrooms*, in *Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Jan. 1922. Boston, Mass.

(*) GHERARDI: *La mortalità per carbonchio in Italia*, in *Il Lavoro*, No. 7, 1921. Milan.

observed. This defect in the campaign against industrial anthrax is all the more remarkable in that in the big centres, where the death rate from anthrax is stationary or on the increase, all methods of treatment, general or specific, hitherto considered effective in reducing the death rate to a very low level, are already extensively applied.

RECENT HEALTH LEGISLATION IN THE UNITED STATES

Measures affecting industrial hygiene enacted during 1921 by State legislatures in the United States of America included the following⁽¹⁰⁾. In Oklahoma a financial appropriation was voted for the prevention and eradication of contagious and infectious diseases among animals, including anthrax.

Regulations for the baking industry, involving the standard of products, the sanitation of buildings, the cleanliness of receptacles, etc., were made in California, North Carolina, and Texas. The canning industry has been subjected to strict regulation in Idaho. All matters relating to the sanitation of factories or establishments where food or food products are kept or manufactured are placed under the authority of the Department of Public Welfare; special hygienic precautions are prescribed for rooms in which manufacture is carried on. The use of any structure or room for dry cleaning or dry dying in Indiana and Minnesota is conditional upon the approval of the State fire marshal, who has to inspect the premises before issuing permits.

Safety devices have also been the subject of legislative action. Massachusetts has amended its previous laws concerning hoods, hoppers, and suction devices for the reception of dust. These devices must be approved by the State Department of Labour. Minnesota requires employers to supply and the workers to wear helmets when engaged in any process or occupation in which there is danger of serious injury to the eyes. The design and material of helmets are to be approved by the State Commissioner of Labour.

Child welfare has received a considerable amount of attention, and Rhode Island has regulated the granting of working permits to defective children.

MORBIDITY AND MORTALITY STATISTICS OF AMERICAN INSURANCE POLICY HOLDERS

The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company of New York has for more than seven years been studying the trend of mortality among its policy holders. It has now published some interesting particulars of death rates among its industrial policy holders⁽¹¹⁾. The number of deaths per 100,000 lives exposed in this class was 801.1 in October 1920, 989.4 for the whole of 1920, 791.6 for September 1921, and 770.8 for October 1921. The death rate for October 1921 was almost the lowest for the year, namely, 7.7 per 1,000 industrial policy holders. The chief factor to account for this low figure was the marked decrease in mortality from tuberculosis. This fell from 116.2 per 100,000 lives exposed in October 1920 to 95.3 in October 1921. In the same period the death rate from cancer fell from 72.5 to 69.5. The figures for

⁽¹⁰⁾ DOROTHY KETCHAM: *A Summary of Recent Health Legislation*, in the *Nation's Health*, Dec. 1921, p. 649.

⁽¹¹⁾ METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY: *Statistical Bulletin*, Vol II, No. 11, Nov. 1921. New York.

mortality from Bright's disease were the same on the two dates, while those for organic diseases of the heart rose from 95.0 to 107.8, and for pneumonia from 38.3 to 39.4.

Among its activities the Company includes the development of an Industrial Health Service to co-operate with employers in securing better working and living conditions for their employees, and co-operation with the health and other public officials of States and cities.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND THE CINEMATOGRAPH

Propaganda on behalf of workers' hygiene has found a valuable aid in the motion-picture. The effect of introducing the film into hygiene education has been to render the latter more concrete, more living, and therefore more interesting. The great difficulty is, however, to obtain exact information as to the firms and societies who have produced films on this subject. With the object of facilitating propaganda by film, certain recent films are noted below. The Industrial Hygiene Section of the International Labour Office will be very glad to receive from the managements of firms and societies notices of any films which they have prepared for propaganda work, and which they are about to release.

Primi soccorsi in caso d'infortunio agricolo, Rome, Cassa Nazionale Infortuni.

Unfallverhütung in gewerblichen Betrieben, by Prof. Chajes and Dr. Schmidt; in three parts:

(1) Prevention of accidents in industry (wood working machinery, stamping machinery, circular saws, autogenous welding, removal of gases and fumes); (2) protection of the eyes; (3) prevention of accidents due to electricity. Berlin, Deulig Film Company, November 1921.

The following are American films:—

Dust Explosions in Mills and Elevators.

Explosive Dusts. Treating in a less technical way the subject of the preceding film.

Dust Explosions in Threshing Machines.

LEGISLATIVE NOTES

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I. United States of America : Labour Legislation of 1920

THE United States Bureau of Labour Statistics (Department of Labour) does an important service to those who wish to follow the trend of labour legislation in America, by the annual collections of Federal and State laws affecting labour ⁽¹⁾. They cover a wider field than is commonly regarded as labour legislation and in cases of doubt err on the side of inclusion. Thus we find legislation to protect the interests of the public included, such as barbers' and chauffeurs' licensing laws. Because of its specialised character and importance the subject of workmen's compensation is not included, but is dealt with in separate *Bulletins* ⁽²⁾.

⁽¹⁾ These annual collections form a series of supplements to *Bulletin* No. 148, which, in two bulky volumes, contained the whole of the labour laws of the United States in force at the end of 1913. The labour legislation enacted in subsequent years (1914-1920 inclusive) is collected in *Bulletins* Nos. 166, 186, 213, 244, 257, 277, and 292. Each *Bulletin* contains a cumulative subject index.

⁽²⁾ This subject has been dealt with in several *Bulletins*, the latest of which (*Bulletin* No. 272) contains the texts of all the workmen's compensation legislation of the United States and Canada.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION

Vocational Rehabilitation

Although labour legislation is in general the preserve of the separate States, there were several important Federal laws affecting labour adopted in 1920. One of these, the Vocational Rehabilitation Act, although it merely provides pecuniary assistance to encourage the States to set up systems of vocational rehabilitation, is extremely important for the principle behind it, namely, that citizens disabled by the hazards of industry or occupation should be a care of the community in the sense that every effort should be made to refit them for productive work just as is done in the case of men disabled by war ^(*).

Adjustment of Railway Disputes

A second very important Federal law ^(*), approved 28 February 1920, is that dealing with the adjustment of disputes on railways, which, except in the case of minor railways limited to a single State, are subject to Federal legislation. In the first place, the Act requires "carriers" (i. e. railway companies, express companies, sleeping car companies) to exert every reasonable effort to prevent any interruption of traffic arising out of disputes with their "employees or subordinate officials" (§ 301). If an arrangement cannot be come to, the parties are bound to refer the matter to a "railroad board of labour adjustment" or more shortly called an "adjustment board". Such boards may be established by agreement between a carrier or group of carriers and their employees or their organisations. The appointment of labour adjustment boards is not in any way compulsory nor are there any rules laid down in the Act as to their composition. Their jurisdiction is confined to disputes relating to "grievances, rules, or working conditions", while wages questions are reserved exclusively to a Central Labour Board known as the Railroad Labour Board (§§ 300, 307 (b)). Applications to an adjustment board to adjudicate upon a question in dispute may be made by the chief executive of any carrier or of an organisation of employees concerned in the dispute, or by a petition signed by one hundred unorganised employees. A board may also intervene in a dispute on its own initiative or upon the request of the Railroad Labour Board, if the latter Board considers the dispute likely to interrupt commerce "substantially" (§ 303). In all such cases the adjustment board concerned must decide "as soon as practicable and with due diligence" any dispute within its jurisdiction which it has not been found possible to settle independently of the Board. The Railroad Labour Board acts in cases concerning "grievances, rules, or working conditions" in which an adjustment board has failed to come to a decision, and where no adjustment board exists competent to deal with a dispute. In the latter case the conditions for reference to the Labour Board are the same as those for reference to an adjustment board. In the former case, i. e. where the Labour Board takes up a case because an adjustment board has failed to make a decision, the matter is either passed on by the adjustment board certifying that it has failed, or taken over on the Labour Board's own initiative because it is of opinion that the adjustment

(*) Acts of 1920, 66th Congress, 2nd Session, Ch. 219, approved 2 June 1920. (Statutes, Vol. 41, p. 735.) This law has already been dealt with in the *Review*, so that no further details need be given here. See *International Labour Review*, Vol. I, No. 2, Feb. 1921, p. 259.

(*) Statutes, Vol. 41, pp. 456, 469.

board has failed or is not using "due diligence" in its consideration of the case (§ 307 (a)). The Labour Board has in addition to deal direct with all disputes relating to wages or salaries of employees or subordinate officials (§ 307 (b)). Such disputes are referred to it or can be taken up on its own initiative under the same conditions as provided for other cases. The Railroad Labour Board is thus in no case a court of appeal. It merely acts when no local or partial adjustment board exists or where such a board breaks down, or where the matter in dispute is included amongst those reserved for its direct jurisdiction. (No adjustment boards having as yet been set up, the central Railroad Labour Board is, in practice, the sole agency for the adjustment of railway disputes.)

The constitution of the Labour Board is laid down in the Act (§ 304). It consists of three groups representing respectively labour, management, and the general public. Each group consists of three members and all are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate. The labour and management representatives are selected from at least six nominees proposed respectively by the two parties. The method by which these nominations are to be made is prescribed by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The members of the Labour Board are paid officials and must upon their appointment relinquish all connection with the railway companies or trade unions concerned. They may not have any pecuniary interest in a company or remain active members or employees of any company or trade union interested. They need not, however, relinquish their rights to benefit under any pensions or benefit funds established by the organisations in question. They retire every three years in rotation. Their salaries (\$10,000) are fixed in the Act itself.

The powers and procedure of the Board are also regulated by the Act. The Board is, in fact, a permanent investigating body, with authority "to study the relations between carriers and their employees, particularly questions relating to wages, hours of labour, and other conditions of employment, and the respective privileges, rights, and duties of carriers and employees, and shall gather, compile, classify, digest, and publish, from time to time, data and information relating to such questions."

Both the adjustment boards and the Labour Board are required to base their decisions on standards which, in their opinion, are "just and reasonable" (§ 307 (d)), and certain points are specially mentioned to be taken into consideration, amongst others, in determining the justice and reasonableness of any wages or conditions fixed by the Labour Board or an adjustment board, namely :

- (1) The scales of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries ;
- (2) The relation between wages and the cost of living ;
- (3) The hazards of the employment ;
- (4) The training and skill required ;
- (5) The degree of responsibility ;
- (6) The character and regularity of the employment ; and
- (7) Inequalities of increase in wages or of treatment, the result of previous wages orders of adjustments.

The decisions of adjustment boards and the Labour Board are binding, so that as regards wages fixed by the Labour Board any shortage in wages paid could presumably be recovered by actions in the civil courts. But no penalties are provided for breaches of awards beyond that of publicity. If the Labour Board considers that any decision of its own

or of an adjustment board is being violated by either a carrier or an employee, it may investigate the matter and publish the results. No other sanctions are provided under the Act.

Women's Bureau

Two other Federal Acts of 1920 give appropriations for promoting the interests of wage earners. The first ⁽⁵⁾ authorises the setting up in the Department of Labour of a Women's Bureau with the duty of formulating standards and policies to "promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." The Bureau has authority to make investigations and report to the Department of Labour on all matters pertaining to the welfare of women in industry.

Employment Offices

The second Act ⁽⁶⁾ gives an appropriation for enlarging the existing Federal employment offices system "to enable the Secretary of Labour to foster, promote, to develop the welfare of the wage earners of the United States, to improve their working conditions, to advance their opportunities for profitable employment . . . and to co-ordinate the public employment offices throughout the country by furnishing and publishing information as to opportunities for employment and by maintaining a system for clearing labour between the several States, including personal services in the District of Columbia and elsewhere".

STATE LEGISLATION

Employment of Women and Children

Several States amended their child labour legislation during 1920. The following measures affected the age limit for admission to work and hours of work of children.

Massachusetts. By an Act approved 9 April 1920 children under 16 are excluded from employment in operating, cleaning, or repairing freight elevators ⁽⁷⁾.

Virginia. An Act approved 20 March 1920 allows children over 12 to work in fruit and vegetable canneries for not more than six hours a day when the schools are not actually in session ⁽⁸⁾. This law appears to be in conflict with the intention of the Federal Tax Act ⁽⁹⁾, which imposed a tax of 10 per cent. on the entire net profits for the taxable year in any mill, cannery, workshop, factory, or manufacturing establishment in which children under 14 years of age are employed, in order in effect to prevent such employment. Another Act ⁽¹⁰⁾, approved 25 March 1920, reduced the hours of work of children under 16 to eight a day instead of ten.

The following States amended their laws relating to education and conditions for exemption from school and admission to employment :

⁽⁵⁾ Approved 5 June 1920. Statutes, Vol. 41, p. 987.

⁽⁶⁾ Approved 4 March 1920. Statutes, Vol 41, pp. 1367, 1426.

⁽⁷⁾ Acts of 1920, Ch. 298.

⁽⁸⁾ Acts of 1920, Ch. 390.

⁽⁹⁾ Acts of 1919, 65th Congress, Third Session, No. 254, Title XII; *Bulletin* No. 277, p. 357.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Acts of 1920, Ch. 507.

Kentucky. Formerly children between 14 and 16 could procure employment certificates enabling them to leave school, if the authorities had certain documentary evidence of their age. An Act of 1920⁽¹¹⁾ amends this provision by making it necessary for the child to possess also a medical certificate stating that he has reached normal development for a child of 14 years of age, and is physically fit for the proposed employment. The school law was amended⁽¹²⁾ so as to enable children between 14 and 16 to obtain exemption from school attendance, provided they have procured employment certificates and are actually "lawfully and steadily employed". But if such children have not completed certain school standards they must attend continuation schools for not less than four, and not more than eight, hours each week. The hours of attendance at continuation classes must be between 8 a. m. and 5 p. m., and may not be put on Saturday afternoon or Sunday.

Maryland. An Act approved 9 April 1920 extended to girls a provision allowing mentally retarded boys over 14 to procure temporary work permits although they had not reached the normal school standard⁽¹³⁾.

New York. The law relating to the physical examination of children entering employment was amended to apply to employment in mercantile establishments as well as factories⁽¹⁴⁾.

No important legislation for the protection of women workers in particular was adopted in 1920 by the State Legislatures. The only measure to which attention may be called is the **New York** Act of 10 May 1920⁽¹⁵⁾, which provides that, wherever an employer requires his employees to be medically examined (e. g. on entering employment or in case of absence for illness, or in the case of regular periodical medical examinations), he must allow women and girls to be examined either by a woman physician or in the presence of another woman.

Hygiene and Safety

Kentucky. An Act approved 17 March 1920⁽¹⁶⁾ requires the owners of coal mines, steel mills, foundries, machine shops "or other like business", employing at least thirty persons, where the workers become so dirty that it endangers their health or is offensive to the public if they leave work without washing, to provide suitable wash-rooms at the request by vote of 30 per cent. of the persons concerned. Two or more neighbouring firms may arrange to have a joint wash-room. The wash-rooms must contain double lockers or hangers where the workers may keep their clothing, "if practicable" equipped with steam pipes for drying the clothes; and also suitable shower-baths with hot and cold water, installed in rooms which are sufficiently heated. The installation (except soap and towels) must be provided and maintained at the employer's expense.

Massachusetts. Hygiene in bakeries is the subject of a Massachusetts Act, approved 6 May 1920⁽¹⁷⁾ which, in a general way, requires

(11) Acts of 1920, Ch. 152, amending § 331a — 4 of Kentucky Statutes, Carroll's edition, as amended by Ch. 102, Acts of 1918.

(12) *Ibid.*, Ch. 43.

(13) Acts of 1920, Ch. 434.

(14) Acts of 1920, Ch. 601.

(15) *Ibid.*, Ch. 603.

(16) Acts of 1920, Ch. 20.

(17) Acts of 1920, Ch. 418.

bakeries to be sanitary, properly lighted and ventilated, and, where necessary, screened against flies, and to be provided with suitable wash-basins and sanitary accommodation, not connecting with any room in which the bakery products are exposed. There must also be cloakrooms where the workërs may leave their wearing apparel. These general provisions are to be carried out in conformity with such rules as may be adopted by the Department of Public Health. The Act further prohibits any person from sitting or lying on any tables, shelves, etc., used for the preparation or display of the products, and requires all animals or fowls to be excluded from the premises. The workers must wash their hands and arms before beginning work in preparing or handling any ingredients. The authorities may require persons intending to work or working in a bakery to submit to a medical examination, and no person who is suffering from a contagious or other disease, rendering his employment detrimental to the public health, or who refuses to submit to a medical examination, may be permitted to work in a bakery. The authorities are given power to close insanitary bakeries.

New Jersey. An Act approved 21 April 1920⁽¹⁸⁾ authorised the Department of Labour to establish a State industrial safety museum.

Ohio. An Act of 1913⁽¹⁹⁾ required medical men to report to the State Board of Health all cases of poisoning from lead, phosphorus, arsenic, brass, wood alcohol, mercury, or their compounds, anthrax, or compressed air illness "or any other ailment or disease, contracted as a result of the nature of the patient's employment". An amending Act of 1920⁽²⁰⁾ authorises the State Department of Health to add other occupational diseases to the list of those expressly required to be reported.

Two other Acts of 1920⁽²¹⁾ deal with mining. The first deals with the use of electricity in mines, and the second, approved 18 February 1920, requires rescue stations to be set up by the Industrial Commission.

An Act filed on 29 January 1920⁽²²⁾ contains provisions for safety in case of fire in factories.

Oregon. By an Act approved 20 January 1920⁽²³⁾ occupiers of factories are required to ensure the safety of their workers and to use such devices and processes as are "reasonably adequate" to make the employment safe, and the workers are prohibited from removing any safety device or interfering with its use. The Industrial Accident Commission is given power to supervise the observance of these provisions and may issue all necessary rules and regulations on the subject after public hearings, the procedure for which is laid down in the Act.

Wages

A number of laws of minor importance dealing with wages were adopted in 1920. There were no developments in minimum wages legislation⁽²⁴⁾.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Acts of 1920, Ch. 334.

⁽¹⁹⁾ See *Bulletin* of the Bureau of Labour Statistics, No. 148, p. 1661.

⁽²⁰⁾ Acts of 1919, Reconvened Session, 1919-1920, p. 1129.

⁽²¹⁾ *Ibid.*, pp. 1111 and 1278.

⁽²²⁾ *Ibid.*, p. 1121.

⁽²³⁾ Acts of 1920, Extra Session, Ch. 48.

⁽²⁴⁾ For particulars of minimum wage legislation in the United States see THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Bulletin* No. 285; also *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, Nos. 2-3, May-June 1921, p. 75.

The Legislature of **Texas** by resolution requested the State Minimum Wage Commission not to proceed with the establishment of minimum rates of wages for women and minors until the Act could be amended ⁽²⁵⁾. The **Massachusetts** Minimum Wage Act ⁽²⁶⁾ was amended by a provision authorising the Minimum Wage Commission to proceed to a revision of rates of wages on its own motion, as well as on petition. An Act of **Louisiana** may be noted ⁽²⁷⁾ which requires the wages of discharged labourers or other employees to be paid within twenty-four hours of their discharge; any employer who fails to do so is made liable to pay the employee concerned his full wages up to the time when they are actually offered or paid.

Conciliation and Arbitration : Industrial Organisation

Federal legislation concerning arbitration and conciliation in connection with disputes between railway companies and their employees is described above. Some important legislation on this subject and concerning industrial organisation was also adopted in several States.

Kansas added to its Statute Book during 1920 an Act ⁽²⁸⁾ setting up a system of compulsory arbitration and the consequent prohibition of the right to strike in industries and undertakings declared to be "affected with a public interest" (§ 3). The list of these given in the Act includes more industries than those commonly regarded as public utilities. It includes the manufacture or preparation of food products, the manufacture of clothing in common use by the people of the State, mining or production of any substance in common use as fuel, and the transportation of all food products, clothing, or fuel from the place where they are produced to the place of manufacture or consumption, in addition to all "public utilities" and "common carriers", already defined in the **Kansas** General Statutes of 1915. In respect of all these industries the Court of Industrial Relations set up by the Act has compulsory powers; disputes arising in other industries may be referred to it voluntarily by mutual agreement of the parties.

The Court consists of three judges appointed by the Governor with the advice and consent of the Senate (§ 1). The judges retire in rotation every three years. The Court may make its own rules of procedure, administer oaths, call witnesses, and demand the production of documents, etc. (§§ 5, 11). The object of the Act is declared in Section 6 to be to prevent any interruption in the working of the industries covered. This Section is to the effect that it is "necessary for the public peace, health, and general welfare of the people" of the State that the industries in question shall "be operated with reasonable continuity and efficiency in order that the people of the State may live in peace and security and be supplied with the necessities of life". It is consequently an offence for any person or firm or association of persons to interfere with or suspend the operation of any such industry or to fail to carry out the orders of the Court. Disputes may come before the Court in several ways. Either the Court itself, if of opinion that a dispute is likely to endanger the continuity or efficiency of an industry, may take the initiative and summon the parties before it, or the Court may act upon the complaint of either party to the

⁽²⁵⁾ Ch. 160 of Acts of 1919. See *United States Bulletin* (as cited above), No. 285.

⁽²⁶⁾ Ch. 706 of Acts of 1912. See *United States Bulletin*, No. 285.

⁽²⁷⁾ Act No. 150.

⁽²⁸⁾ Acts of 1920, Extra Session, Ch. 29.

dispute or of any ten citizen taxpayers of the community in which the industries concerned are located, or upon complaint of the Attorney-General of the State, in each case if the Court is satisfied that the parties are unable to agree and that the dispute is likely to endanger the continuity or efficiency of the industry (§ 7). After investigating the case the Court issues findings stating the conditions upon which the industry should be conducted, and at the same time serves on the parties orders respecting the exact changes which it considers necessary in order to bring the industry into conformity with the findings (§§ 7 & 8). If either party is aggrieved by an order, it may appeal within ten days to the Supreme Court to compel the Court of Industrial Relations to make "a just, reasonable, and lawful order" (§ 12). In addition, if, after sixty days' fair trial, either party finds that an order is "unjust, unreasonable, or impracticable", an application may be made to the Court of Industrial Relations for its revision (§ 8). The Act lays down general conditions for the guidance of the Court, namely, that all terms, conditions, and wages shall be just and reasonable, and such as to enable the industries concerned to continue their operations with reasonable efficiency "and thus to promote the general welfare". The Act further declares that it is necessary for the promotion of the general welfare that workers should receive "a fair wage and healthful and moral surroundings", and that the capital invested should receive "a fair rate of return to the owners thereof", and express recognition is given to "the right of every person to make his own choice of employment and to make and carry out fair, just, and reasonable contracts and agreements of employment" (§ 9). Consequently, if, in the course of any proceedings before it, the Court finds that any contract is contrary to this principle, it may by order modify it in such a way as to bring it within the law (§ 9). The orders of the Court are enforceable. If either party fails to obey an order, the Court may bring proper proceedings in the Supreme Court of the State in order to compel compliance (§ 12). If the operation of an industry ceases contrary to the orders of the Court, and if this affects the public welfare, the Court may proceed to take over control of the industry on condition that it pays fair compensation to the owners and a fair wage to the workers engaged in it while the industry is under its control (§ 20). Rates of wages fixed by the orders of the Court can be recovered, if not paid in full, before the ordinary courts. Any person who violates the provisions of the Act or any valid order of the Court is liable to a fine not exceeding \$1,000 or to imprisonment in the county gaol for not more than one year, or to both penalties (§ 18). Trade union officials or employers who endeavour to influence others to violate the Act are liable to still heavier penalties, namely, to a fine not exceeding \$5,000 or imprisonment with hard labour for not more than two years, or both (§ 19).

The Act also deals incidentally with the right of combination (§ 14). It expressly provides that trade unions are to be recognised by the Court as legal entities, and that they may appear before it represented by their proper officers or attorneys. The right of organisations of workers to bargain collectively for their members is likewise recognised. Individual members of a trade union who desire to avail themselves of the right of collective bargaining must entrust some officer or officers of the union, in writing, with authority to enter into collective bargains. These written authorisations must be kept as a permanent record of the organisation. All such collective agreements, however, may be modified by the Court, if they are found to be "unfair, unjust,

or unreasonable" (§§ 9, 14). Striking and picketing in the industries concerned are entirely prohibited under Section 17, which, however, gives any individual employee the right to leave his employment at any time provided that he does not conspire with others to leave at the same time.

The Court may proceed on the same lines in the case of industries for which its jurisdiction is not compulsory, provided that both parties apply to it by mutual agreement (§ 21). Apart from any particular dispute the judges may make investigations in order to become familiar with conditions of industry and industrial problems likely to come before them (§ 24). The Court has to issue a report of its proceedings annually (§ 27).

Another chapter⁽²⁹⁾ of the Kansas Acts of 1920 provides for the permissive incorporation of labour organisations. Such organisations may be incorporated if they consist of five or more persons and if their object is that of promoting the interests and welfare of labour and industry without engaging in business for profit. As already stated, however, it is not necessary for organisations to be incorporated for the purpose of appearing on behalf of their members before the Court of Industrial Relations.

Another chapter⁽³⁰⁾ deals with criminal syndicalism and sabotage. Criminal syndicalism is defined to be "the doctrine which advocates crime, physical violence, arson, destruction of property, sabotage, or other unlawful acts or methods, as a means of accomplishing or effecting industrial or political ends, or as a means of effecting industrial or political revolution, or for profit". Sabotage is defined to be "malicious, felonious, intentional or unlawful damage, injury, or destruction of real or personal property of any employer, or owner, by his or her employee or employees, or any employer or employers or by any person or persons, at their own instance, or at the instance, request, or instigation of such employees, employers, or any other person". It is made unlawful and subject to penalties for any person to advocate the principles or practice of either.

New York. An Act dated 21 May 1920⁽³¹⁾ allowed an appropriation for the appointment by the Governor of a labour board, representing employers, employees, and the public, having the duty of promoting better relations between workers and their employers and, so far as possible, of preventing and adjusting disputes. The establishment of this board was the outcome of a resolution adopted at a conference of citizens interested in the solution of industrial problems.

South Dakota. An Act, approved 30 June 1920⁽³²⁾, authorises the industrial commissioner, when he thinks advisable, to intervene in disputes between employers and employed and endeavour to conciliate the parties. If his efforts to bring the parties together are unsuccessful, he is required to investigate the matter impartially, giving each party ample opportunity to state their case, and to draw up a report and recommendations for settlement. This report must be published and a copy given to each of the two parties. The commissioner may, if he wishes, call in two "capable and disinterested" citizens to advise him and help in the investigation.

⁽²⁹⁾ Acts of 1920, Extra Session, Ch. 24.

⁽³⁰⁾ *Ibid.*, Ch. 37.

⁽³¹⁾ Acts of 1920, Ch. 894.

⁽³²⁾ Acts of 1920, Second Extra Session, Ch. 61.

Texas. On 2 October 1920 ⁽³³⁾ an anti-strike law was adopted in Texas, which prohibits interference with the operation of the "common carriers" of the State (i. e. railways, street-cars, shipping) by any person or association of persons or corporation.

Another chapter of the Acts of 1920 ⁽³⁴⁾, approved on 4 October 1920, sets up an industrial commission consisting of five persons, one representing workers, one representing employers, and three representing the general public. The commissioners are unpaid; they are chosen by the Governor. The Governor may refer controversies between employers and employed, by proclamation, to the commission for hearing and report, if he considers that they are of public concern. The commission must thereupon investigate the matter and for that purpose has power to summon and examine witnesses on oath and to call for the production of documents. The commission makes reports to the Governor as to what action should be taken in reference to the dispute and the recommendations are published. It must also report to the Legislature.

Employment and Unemployment

In addition to the Federal provision made for the promotion of employment exchanges ⁽³⁵⁾, measures dealing with the creation and operation of public employment offices were adopted during 1920 in the following States :

Kansas. An Act of 22 January 1920 ⁽³⁶⁾ established a free employment bureau in the Department of Labour and Industry at Topeka. Not more than four additional offices may be established in other centres "as may be necessary to properly distribute labour necessary for the wheat harvest in the State".

Massachusetts. A single-section Act, approved 6 May 1920 ⁽³⁷⁾, requires the Department of Labour and Industries to inform applicants for employment of the existence of any strike that is in progress in an establishment to which it is proposed to refer them.

South Dakota. By an Act approved 3 July 1920 a State employment service Department was established in South Dakota, under the supervision of the State immigration commissioner. Agents of the service may be located at convenient places "for the handling of the movements of labour of all classes". The county commissioners of any county may, subject to a certain financial limit, maintain likewise free employment agents in connection with the State service. The Department has the further duty of protecting employees from exploitation or improper practices. Statements respecting strikes or lock-outs may be posted at a public employment office at the request of either workers or employers; such statements must first be submitted to the opposite party, who may send a reply to be posted with the statement. The attention of applicants for vacancies in the establishment concerned must be drawn to the posted statements. No fees may be charged to persons making use of the services provided by the Act.

Private Employment Agencies and Emigrant Agents were affected in 1920 by legislation in :

⁽³³⁾ Acts of 1920, Fourth Special Session, Ch. 5.

⁽³⁴⁾ *Ibid.*, Ch. 9.

⁽³⁵⁾ See above, p. 662.

⁽³⁶⁾ Acts of 1920, Extra Session, Ch. 62.

⁽³⁷⁾ Acts of 1920, Ch. 412.

Georgia. The Act of 17 August 1920 ⁽³⁸⁾ requires all private agencies, —whether they charge fees or not (instead of only those which charged fees)—to be licensed and to report to the Labour Commissioner and, in addition, requires persons desiring to secure labour for their own use for work outside the State to notify the Commissioner.

Texas. An Act, approved 19 October 1920 ⁽³⁹⁾, prohibits emigrant agents (i. e. persons who hire labourers or solicit emigrants to be employed outside the State) from carrying on business without a license from the Commissioner of Labour Statistics. Another Act of the same date ⁽⁴⁰⁾ imposes an annual tax on emigrant agents.

II. The Labour Code of Salta (Argentine Republic)

The Federal Government of the Argentine Republic had already enacted legislation relating to the employment of women and children (Act No. 5291 of 1907) ⁽⁴¹⁾ and to industrial accidents (Act No. 9688 of 1915) ⁽⁴²⁾, but under the constitution it is left to each Province individually to adopt these measures as a whole or in part to suit the conditions prevailing in the different districts. Up to the end of 1915 the Province of Salta had adopted only the regulations concerning the notification of accidents ⁽⁴³⁾, but on 7 May 1921 a labour code incorporating the majority of these provisions and further dealing with hours of work, the minimum wage, contracts of work, etc., was adopted by the Legislature of this Province on the proposal of the Executive, under the title of Guemes Act ⁽⁴⁴⁾.

The Federal Act of 14 October 1907 concerning the employment of women and children consisted of two parts, namely, general provisions and special provisions applicable in the capital of the Republic only. These latter have been extended to the Province of Salta, with certain modifications. The principal protective measures embodied in the new Act (§ 125) are: the prohibition of the employment of children under 12 years of age in industrial occupations; of women and young persons under 16 years of age on night-work between 9 p. m. and 6 a. m., with the exception of adult women ⁽⁴⁵⁾ engaged in domestic service, in sick-nursing, and in public places of entertainment; of women and young persons under 18 years of age for more than 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week, or in dangerous and unhealthy trades; and of women during a period of fourteen days following their confinement. In the last-mentioned case employers are required to keep the women's posts open during a period of 20 days before and 30 days after childbirth; they must also maintain suitable rooms where nursing mothers can feed their children at regular intervals during working hours. Sufficient

⁽³⁸⁾ Acts of 1920, p. 118.

⁽³⁹⁾ Acts of 1920, Fourth Special Session, Ch. 13.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ *Ibid.* Ch. 14.

⁽⁴¹⁾ Engl. translation in *Bulletin of the International Labour Office* (Basle), 1908, Vol. III, p. 27.

⁽⁴²⁾ Text. in *Boletín del Departamento nacional del Trabajo*, 1918, p. 137.

⁽⁴³⁾ See *Boletín del Departamento nacional del Trabajo*, 1918, p. 131.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Text in *Cronica Mensual del Departamento nacional del Trabajo*, 1921, p. 701.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ The text in the *Cronica Mensual* reads: "mujeres menores" — obviously a misprint.

seating accommodation must be provided, and all women and young persons under 18 years of age are entitled to a rest interval of two hours in the middle of the day.

A nominal 8-hour day (§ 21), with a minimum rest-interval of two hours (§ 22), is provided for in state undertakings and in factories, workshops, commercial undertakings, and the building industry. It is expressly stipulated that overtime may only be worked with the consent of the employee (§ 23). A 9-hour day is in force for agricultural work (§ 21), but here and in all other out-of-door occupations work must be suspended from 11 a. m. to 2 p. m. during the summer months (§ 24). Any exceptions require authorisation by the Provincial Labour Department (§ 27).

The payment of a fixed minimum daily wage to adult workers is compulsory (§ 28). This varies according to the district and amounts to 4 pesos in the capital of the province, 3 pesos in industrial and agricultural districts, and 2 pesos in certain specified districts, plus an increase of 50 centavos in cattle-breeding areas. These scales of payment do not apply to persons engaged in domestic service (§ 29).

Special sections of the code deal with the contract of work (§§ 2-11), the provision of an employment book (§ 2), and the compulsory registration by the employer of workers (§ 36). It is further provided that payment of wages must be made in legal tender (§ 3), and that advances on wages must not exceed 25 per cent. of the normal daily wage (§ 4). It is optional on the part of the worker to accept payment in kind not exceeding 30 per cent. of his monthly wage (§ 6). Certain measures are taken for the protection of small-holders (*arrendatarios*) and their families, such as the provision that no such person may be discharged until he has gathered in his crop and that the family shall retain the right to use the dwelling for at least a fortnight after discharge (§§ 12-17).

By far the most important part of the code consists of a detailed Workmen's Compensation Law. This is drafted on the same general lines as the Federal Act of 1915, but includes many detailed arrangements for procedure which in the earlier legislation were dealt with in the regulations issued in pursuance of the Act. Occupational diseases are also brought within the scope of compensation much more widely than in the former Act.

The employer is liable for compensation to the worker or his dependents in respect of any accident which arises in the course of employment (§ 31), if the incapacity to work exceeds a period of six days (§ 113), except in case of *force majeure* (not inherent to the work) or misconduct on the part of the worker or some other person (§ 116). The principal employer is always responsible, even if the worker is actually engaged by a subcontractor (§ 32). The scope of the Act covers all persons, including apprentices, habitually employed on account of another, whether in receipt of a wage or not (§ 33), provided that the wage, if any, does not exceed 3,000 pesos per annum (§ 111). Persons engaged in domestic service, in industry not involving the use of power in any form and in agriculture or forestry apart from the transporting and use of mechanical power, are excluded from the scope of the Act.

An interesting list is given of the injuries which entitle a worker to compensation. In addition to the general provisions for accidents properly so-called arising in the course of employment, it covers such cases as poisoning due to gases, fumes or dust; burns; injuries caused by electricity or by excessive light, heat or cold; infection of any kind

arising from the work (§ 31). Compensation is payable in proportion to the seriousness of the accident and the daily average wage serves as a basis for the calculation of the compensation (§ 34). This is determined by dividing the amount of the yearly wage (both in money and in kind) by the number of working days in the year, but compensation must not in any case be based on a sum less than the minimum wage prescribed for the district in question. The employee is entitled to free medical and pharmaceutical attendance and to 50 per cent. of his wages (§§ 42, 44). Both the employer and the injured person or his dependents are bound to notify the accident to the competent authorities; in default of this, the injured person is liable to a reduction of 25 per cent. in the compensation payable and the employer to a fine not exceeding 100 pesos (§§ 45, 46). In case of the death of the injured person the employer must notify the Provincial Department of Labour (§ 51). The employer is liable in such case for funeral expenses not exceeding 100 pesos and for compensation payable to the family equivalent to the total wage earned during the 1,000 days prior to the accident up to a maximum of 6,000 pesos (§ 71). In the event of any serious accident the Department of Labour must send an inspector to draw up a detailed report on the spot (§ 65). Compensation to the dependents of foreign workers is only payable if they were resident in the country at the time of the accident or if reciprocity has been agreed upon by international treaty (§ 72).

Total and permanent incapacity gives rise to the same compensation as the death of the injured person. Compensation for partial and permanent incapacity is calculated in proportion to the seriousness of the injury. A table is given showing the proportionate compensation due for different injuries (§§ 81-88). Employers may transfer their liabilities to approved insurance companies, provided that the compensation is not inferior to that prescribed in the Act (§ 118). In order to protect the employee, provision is made that the amount of compensation payable must be paid into the Provincial Bank by employers, associations of employers, or insurance companies within thirty days from the date of the accident (§§ 89, 90). A guarantee fund maintained by donations from individual persons, subventions from the state, and the receipt of fines imposed by the Labour Department for violations of the code, is responsible for payment in the event of the insolvency of the employer, provided that the injured person or his representatives institute proceedings within a month from the date of the accident (§§ 91, 94).

The worker or his representatives have the right to summon the employer before the competent court in order to claim unpaid compensation when liability is accepted, but it is also provided that before having resort to judicial proceedings the worker or his representatives may request the assistance of the Labour Department (§§ 95, 96). Any advice or assistance given in such matters is gratuitous (§ 98). In the event of disagreement between the parties as to the amount of compensation payable, the case may be submitted to the Labour Department. The Head of the Labour Department or his legal representative acts as arbitrator; an appeal may be lodged against his decision, but the verdict of the court of first instance of the district is final (§§ 101, 102).

The provisions of the Provincial law summarised above, together with practically all other existing legislation on labour questions in the Argentine Republic, have been embodied in a draft Federal Labour Code which has been under consideration by the Argentine Republic since June 1921.

III. Statutory Provision against Unemployment in Western and Central Europe in Recent Years

The organisation of compulsory insurance or the subsidisation of the insurance of workers against unemployment, and the execution of public works on a large scale are the two methods of dealing with shortage of work which have been most widely adopted among European Governments. Non-contributory benefit to the unemployed, other than poor relief, has been granted in normal years in very few countries, though it was resorted to as a temporary measure immediately after the Armistice in several instances. In addition to these three devices, experiments are now being made with a fourth—the granting of subsidies in aid of privately-owned profit-making undertakings.

INSURANCE

Compulsory State Insurance

Those states which have compulsory insurance schemes organised by the government have all either adopted their legislation on the subject, or codified earlier provisions, during the last three years. After a period of unemployment donation paid by the state, coupled with strenuous efforts to prevent reduction of staffs and even to compel the engagement of additional workers, Austria adopted a system of compulsory insurance against unemployment in March 1920. The original Act⁽⁴⁶⁾ (which has been amended three times⁽⁴⁷⁾ in respect of the amount and duration of benefit) provides that the state shall advance the sums requisite for the payment of benefit in the first instance, and that two-thirds of the amount shall be recovered subsequently from employers and workers by means of contributions.

Benefit is due to any employed person who has been engaged in an occupation rendering him liable to compulsory sickness or old-age insurance (i. e. practically all employed persons except those engaged in the public service, in agriculture, forestry, or handicrafts where neither power nor a steam boiler is used, and in domestic service) during twenty weeks in the year before his claim for benefit (or in the two years before war service or internment put a stop to his employment). Twelve weeks' benefit in the year was granted in the first instance, but the maximum has now been raised to thirty weeks. Unemployment benefit is a percentage of sick benefit (which is 75 per cent. of the usual wages); it has been varied several times, and is now fixed at 100 per cent. of sick benefit. Any suitable employment must be accepted; and after eight weeks' benefit the question whether offered work will hinder subsequent return to the worker's original trade is no longer taken into consideration. Workers may be required to undergo training in a new trade for a period of twelve weeks during which they are in receipt of benefit.

Italy also provided for the unemployed in 1919 by a government donation paid through various approved employment offices, public or private. In October 1919 the existing employment exchange service was reorganised, a system of compulsory unemployment insurance was instituted, and the two together were placed under the control of a single

⁽⁴⁶⁾ INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, *Legislative Series* (hereafter cited as *Legislative Series*), 1920 (Aus. 1-7).

⁽⁴⁷⁾ These amendments will be published later in the *Legislative Series*.

government Department⁽⁴⁸⁾. The insurance scheme was not compulsorily applied to home workers, domestic servants, persons regularly employed by public authorities, or salaried employees above a fixed income limit⁽⁴⁹⁾. Seasonal workers were excluded from benefit during slack seasons in their trades, unless supplementary contributions were paid. Provincial funds, to which workers in all trades are admitted, must be established by the joint councils responsible for the administration of the Decree; and trade organisations may also undertake unemployment insurance (§ 29)⁽⁵⁰⁾. The state subsidises all approved funds, to which employers and workers pay equal contributions. This system was organised in detail by the Decree of 9 June 1921⁽⁵¹⁾. Benefit was granted in the first instance for 120 days in the year, after payment of at least 24 contributions. Successive Decrees (dated 30 January and 17 July 1921, and 5 January 1922⁽⁵²⁾) instituted a transitional regime between the system of free grants originally adopted and that of compulsory insurance. These Decrees allowed further instalments of 45 days' benefit to persons prevented by unemployment, military service, or the like, from paying the requisite number of contributions. Under a Legislative Decree of 23 November 1921⁽⁵³⁾ persons who are only intermittently unemployed are admitted to benefit, and in cases of prolonged unemployment benefit is given for an additional period not exceeding 45 days.

The Italian insurance system is closely connected with the employment exchange organisation. The exchanges act as paying offices for benefit to persons who are not members of special trade funds, and employers must apply to them for manual workers if they do not engage their employees direct; the intervention of private employment agencies for the supply of manual workers is prohibited. Collective agreements may be filed at the exchanges, which are thereby bound to refrain from offering employment on lower terms than those agreed upon.

In **Great Britain** a compulsory unemployment insurance system for the building trades and constructional work generally shipbuilders, iron-foundries, mechanical engineering workers, vehicle-builders, and machine woodworkers, was instituted in 1911⁽⁵⁴⁾ and similar but temporary provision was made for munition workers in 1916⁽⁵⁵⁾. These partial schemes were replaced by an Act of 1920⁽⁵⁶⁾, applying to all occupations except agriculture, domestic service, non-manual work at a salary of more than £250 a year, and employment in the service of public authorities, public utility companies, and other bodies with

⁽⁴⁸⁾ Legislative Decree of 19 October 1919, No. 2214. *Legislative Series*, 1920 (It. 2).

⁽⁴⁹⁾ 350 lire a month in original Decree; raised by Legislative Decree of 23 November 1921 to 800 lire. *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 1921, No. 283.

⁽⁵⁰⁾ A Ministerial Decree of 25 July 1921 (*Bollettino del Lavoro*, 1921, XXXVI, Nos. 2-3, p. II-22) grants official recognition as an unemployment insurance organisation for persons employed in the printing and paper trades to the Social Insurance Fund of the Printing Trades Federation, and makes membership of this fund compulsory for all workers in the industries in question.

⁽⁵¹⁾ *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 1921, No. 156, p. 845.

⁽⁵²⁾ *Ibid.*, 1921, Nos. 27 and 174; 1922, No. 11.

⁽⁵³⁾ *Ibid.*, 1921, No. 283, p. 1448.

⁽⁵⁴⁾ National Insurance Act 1911, Part II (1 and 2 Geo. 5, Ch. 55).

⁽⁵⁵⁾ National Insurance (Part II) Munition Workers Act 1916 (6 and 7 Geo. 5, Ch. 20).

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Unemployment Insurance Act 1920 (10 and 11 Geo. 5, ch. 30); *Legislative Series*, 1920 (G. B. 3).

approved superannuation schemes. This Act came into operation on 8 November 1920, after a temporary system of unemployment donation for all ex-Service men and all unemployed persons not covered by the Insurance Acts had been in force for two years. It superseded all previous legislation on the subject, and terminated the donation to all except ex-Service men. It provides for benefit during 15 weeks after payment of at least 12 weekly contributions shared between employer, worker, and state. Unemployed persons are required to accept "suitable" work, but conditions below the standard for the district or trade are defined as unsuitable. Unemployment due to a trade dispute disqualifies for benefit, even in the case of persons who take no direct part in the dispute (e. g. pattern-makers thrown out of work by a strike of brass-founders in the same works). A hierarchy of authorities decides upon appeals. Trade unions are used as agencies for paying unemployment benefit to their members where possible, and authority is given for the institution of joint schemes by employers and workers, whereby a whole industry may deal with its own unemployment. The first special scheme framed under this provision deals with the insurance industry; it was instituted by an Order of the Minister of Labour, dated 24 June 1921⁽⁵⁷⁾.

To meet existing needs, a special provision was included (§ 44), granting 8 weeks' benefit after payment of four contributions during the year ending in August 1921. By an amending Act of 23 December 1920⁽⁵⁸⁾, this temporary provision was relaxed so as to grant 8 weeks' benefit before 31 March 1921 to any person who had been engaged in an employment covered by the principal Act at any time in each of 10 calendar weeks since the end of 1919, or 4 calendar weeks since 4 July 1920, and who was not entitled to unemployment donation (as an ex-Service man, since at this date the donation to civilians had ceased). A further extension was granted by the Act of 3 March 1921⁽⁵⁹⁾, which increased rates of benefit, and continued the payment to civilians out of work for 32 weeks in all during the next sixteen months, subject to their having been engaged to work on a job at any time in each of not less than 20 separate weeks since 1919. Ex-Service men were similarly granted benefit on condition of employment in 10 separate weeks or less, or even no employment at all, if war conditions (including disablement) had prevented such employment. Barely four months later benefit was reduced to the former scale, by an Act passed on 1 July 1921⁽⁶⁰⁾, which at the same time increased contributions and reduced the number of weeks during which exceptional benefit might be granted from a maximum period of 32 weeks to a maximum period of 22 weeks. The waiting period for benefit was also extended from three days to a week, and the minimum number of contributions qualifying for benefit increased to 20. Finally, on 8 November 1921 an Act⁽⁶¹⁾ was passed to authorise extra grants to unemployed persons with dependents during a period of six months from 10 November 1921, in order to put an end to the heavy expenditure

⁽⁵⁷⁾ Unemployment Insurance (Insurance Industry Special Scheme) Order 1921 (Statutory Rules and Orders, 1921, No. 1281).

⁽⁵⁸⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (G. B. 11).

⁽⁵⁹⁾ *Ibid.*, 1921 (G. B. 1).

⁽⁶⁰⁾ Unemployment Insurance (No. 2) Act 1921 (11 and 12 Geo. 5, Ch. 15); *Legislative Series*, 1921 (G. B. 2).

⁽⁶¹⁾ Unemployed Workers' Dependents (Temporary Provisions) Act 1921 (11 and 12 Geo. 5, Ch. 62).

of poor-law authorities in out-relief supplementary to benefit. These grants, paid through the unemployment insurance organisation, were made recoverable by means of contributions from employers and workers, like the normal expenditure on benefit.

The **Luxemburg** scheme was instituted by legislation dated 6 August 1921—a Grand Ducal Decree respecting statutory provision for unemployment benefit, and an Act concerning the proportions of the expenditure on unemployment benefit to be borne by communes, employers, and workers respectively⁽⁶²⁾. Like the Austrian scheme, it provides for a state advance to meet charges in the first instance, and subsequent recovery from communes, employers, and workers, of three-fourths of the cost (one-fourth from the communes; the shares of employers and workers are left to be fixed later). The communal authorities are responsible for granting benefit to the needy unemployed; aliens are eligible, provided that they are domiciled in Luxemburg and have been employed there for at least two hundred days in the last year. On the basis of this latter provision Switzerland has concluded a reciprocal agreement with Luxemburg for the payment of unemployment benefit⁽⁶³⁾. Twenty-six weeks' benefit may be granted in the year; communal joint committees of employers and workers examine the claims, and a government appeal board gives a final decision. Benefit is granted at a reduced rate in case of short time, but seasonal workers are excluded during the slack season in their trade. Unemployed persons must report daily at the communal employment exchange, and accept suitable work.

In **Switzerland** a scheme has been introduced which, unlike all those described above, requires no contributions from workers—an arrangement adopted earlier, in the Federal Resolution of 19 December 1916, for the establishment of an emergency fund for the embroidery trade⁽⁶⁴⁾. The Resolution of 1916 applied only to four cantons specially affected by the depression in the trade in question; but the whole Confederation is dealt with by the Resolution of 29 October 1919, and the Administrative Instructions of 10 November 1919⁽⁶⁵⁾. This Resolution provides benefit both for short time and for total unemployment; like the Czech, Italian, and Luxemburg insurance schemes, it excludes seasonal workers during the slack season in their trade, but it admits them to benefit even then, by way of exception, if temporary employment is not available in any other trade. Aliens are admitted to benefit on a reciprocal basis; in virtue of this provision, administrative arrangements have been made with Luxemburg⁽⁶⁶⁾, Italy⁽⁶⁷⁾, Germany, Liechtenstein, and Czechoslovakia⁽⁶⁸⁾.

Benefit during short time amounts to half the loss of earnings. If 40 per cent. or less of the weekly hours are lost, the employer bears the whole charge; in the event of a greater reduction, the cost of benefit is shared between employer, canton, and Confederation. In case

(62) *Mémorial*, 1921, No. 55. Luxemburg.

(63) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Daily Intelligence*, 8 June 1921, p. 9.

(64) *Gesetzsammlung* 1916, No. 62, p. 613.

(65) *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Switz. 4-5): supersedes Resolutions of 14 March and 5 August 1919 (*Legislative Series*, 1919, Switz. 1 and 2), making similar temporary provision for salaried and wage-earning employees.

(66) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Daily Intelligence*, 8 June 1921, p. 9.

(67) *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Int. 2).

(68) No official texts of these arrangements have been published.

of total unemployment, benefit is paid through the communal authorities, at a rate equal to 60 per cent. or 70 per cent. of the normal earnings of the person in question (under the amending Resolution of 30 September 1921⁽⁶⁹⁾), based on the possible earnings in his trade at the time of benefit). To meet the cost of benefit, the employers' organisations are required to form funds out of contributions from their members in proportion to their wages bills for periods when their undertakings are working full time. Expenses are divided equally between the association, the Confederation, and the canton—the last-mentioned being empowered to charge half its share to the communes. Beneficiaries must accept suitable employment; but if only very low-paid work is available, the communal authority may make up the difference between the wages paid and the benefit which would have been due.

In addition to the Federal regulations which apply throughout the country, there are local arrangements for official unemployment insurance in several places. The towns of Basle, Berne, and Zürich all have municipal funds of varying scope for insurance against unemployment, while both Basle⁽⁷⁰⁾ and Geneva⁽⁷¹⁾ subsidise private (trade and other) insurance funds.

Subsidies to Voluntary Insurance Schemes

The subsidisation of trade and local unemployment insurance funds is much more general than the adoption of general compulsory insurance. In **Belgium** the system includes grants from communal funds either to increase the benefits paid by trade and other provident societies to their members, or to increase by a certain percentage the contributions received. Special provision was made for exceptional unemployment in the years of 1920 and 1921 by a Royal Order of 30 December 1920⁽⁷²⁾ amended by Orders of 6 and 31 March⁽⁷³⁾, and 6 September 1921⁽⁷⁴⁾, encouraging the communes and provinces to establish local insurance funds and make grants to existing organisations. Under this Order the state bears part of the administrative expenses of communal and provincial unemployment funds and pays a subsidy amounting to half the contributions received by trade union unemployment funds affiliated to the local funds. A National Relief Fund is instituted to pay benefit to persons whose benefit from their societies is exhausted, or whose societies have become bankrupt owing to the crisis, and also to make grants for relief works.

Czechoslovakia began with a period of state donation during the process of national reorganisation⁽⁷⁵⁾, and in September 1920⁽⁷⁶⁾ combined it with extensive relief works, acceptance of such employment

⁽⁶⁹⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Switz. 1).

⁽⁷⁰⁾ For Acts concerning the Basle system see *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vols. V (1910), p. 155, and X (1915), p. 113; Orders thereunder, *ibid.*, Vols. V (1910), p. 312; VI (1911), p. 227; VII (1912), pp. 136, 137; IX (1914), p. 284; see also below, p. 680.

⁽⁷¹⁾ Principal Act (operative for ten years), *ibid.*, Vol. V (1910), p. 165; extended for further ten years by Act of 15 September 1919.

⁽⁷²⁾ *Revue du Travail* XXII, 1921, p. 120.

⁽⁷³⁾ Co-ordinated text of original Order and amendments of 6 March and 6 September 1921, *Revue du Travail*, XXII, p. 1092.

⁽⁷⁴⁾ *Ibid.*, XXII, 1921, pp. 322, 456, 1091.

⁽⁷⁵⁾ Act of 10 December 1918 respecting benefit to the unemployed (*Sammlung der Gesetze 1918*, No. 63).

⁽⁷⁶⁾ Order of 1 September 1920 (*Sammlung der Gesetze 1920*, No. 519).

being made compulsory on recipients of benefit. An Act dated 19 July 1921⁽⁷⁷⁾ was eventually passed, to come into operation on a date to be fixed by Order, providing for a state grant in aid of the unemployment benefit paid by trade societies. By this Act benefit paid under approved conditions is made up to two-thirds of the normal wage by a state subsidy. Persons in receipt of the state subsidy must accept suitable employment, though work which would hinder subsequent return to the unemployed person's original trade is not regarded as suitable. Employment on relief works must also be accepted, up to the amount of time for which the benefit received would constitute the proper wages, reckoned at the standard rate.

In Denmark grants from public moneys have been made regularly to unemployment funds since 1907. The provisions on this subject were codified in January, 1920⁽⁷⁸⁾, and combined with those on employment exchanges in December 1921⁽⁷⁹⁾. Down to the end of 1920 approved unemployment funds were granted a state subsidy equal to half the contributions received, and a communal subsidy of one-third of the contributions on condition of their forming a reserve fund for emergencies. Members were required to accept any employment considered suitable by the governing body of their fund. The communes were authorised to assist needy members by paying up to one-third of their contributions. State supervision and co-ordination of funds were compulsory. The codified Act of December 1921 makes few changes in these provisions, but several additions. Benefit for short time (less than two-thirds of the normal hours) is provided. A Central Unemployment Fund is formed by means of a state grant, to operate in times of exceptional unemployment, whether in particular trades or general. The Fund bears the cost of benefit during periods of exceptional unemployment in all cases where the resources of privately organised funds are exhausted, or where individual members have drawn all the benefit to which the rules entitle them. From this Fund grants may be made not only for emergency benefit, but also for relief works, and the organisation of educational and training courses.

In addition to this system of assisted insurance, special benefit was granted during 1921 through the local relief funds—paid by the communes and partly refunded by the Treasury—not only to members of recognised funds, but to other unemployed and under-employed persons⁽⁸⁰⁾.

Privately organised unemployment insurance funds are subsidised in Finland under the Order of 2 November 1917⁽⁸¹⁾. The subsidy amounts to two-thirds of the benefit paid to members with dependents, and one-half of that paid to other members. Benefit must not be paid by approved funds until six months' contributing membership has been completed, and is limited to 90 days a year, a maximum daily sum being prescribed⁽⁸²⁾. Members must accept suitable work, pay-

⁽⁷⁷⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Cz. 5).

⁽⁷⁸⁾ *Ibid.*, 1920 (Den. 1).

⁽⁷⁹⁾ This Act will be published in the *Legislative Series*.

⁽⁸⁰⁾ Acts of 22 December 1920, and 1 April 1921, respecting a provisional state subsidy for the relief of unemployment (*Dansk Lovsamling*, 1920, p. 466; *Dansk Lovtidende*, 1921, No. 147).

⁽⁸¹⁾ *Författningsamling* 1917, No. 95; German translation in the *Bulletin des Internationalen Arbeitsamtes* (Basel), Vol. XVII, 1918, p. 39. French translation in the *Bulletin de l'Office International du Travail*, Vol. XVII, 1918, p. 38.

⁽⁸²⁾ The rate of benefit was varied in May 1920 (*Legislative Series*, 1920, Fin. 1).

ment at proper rates being a condition of suitability. In normal times the communes bear part of the state grant, but a Resolution of the Council of State, dated 14 October 1920⁽⁸³⁾, granted an additional subsidy for the period from 1 January to 30 June 1920, entirely out of national funds. A permanent Unemployment Committee has now been established in the Ministry of Labour to study the whole problem and to watch the labour market⁽⁸⁴⁾.

In France a donation system which is described below⁽⁸⁵⁾ exists side by side with a system of subsidies granted to unemployment insurance funds under a Decree of 9 September 1905⁽⁸⁶⁾, which requires the funds to carry on a free employment agency for their members, and the members to accept offers from the fund of employment in their own trade. A minimum membership and period of operation are fixed (both of these have been temporarily modified during the post-bellum trade depression), and contributions must cover at least one-third of the benefit paid; the subsidy is a varying percentage of the benefit. By the amending Decree of 2 May 1921, subsidised funds may delegate to a public employment exchange the task of placing their members. The whole system is supervised by a central committee of representatives of the funds and of the government Departments concerned.

A Decree of 19 April 1918⁽⁸⁷⁾, authorised the formation of local funds for benefit to persons unemployed owing to lack of fuel and raw materials. State subsidies to these funds are granted only on condition that employers contribute a certain minimum share⁽⁸⁸⁾ of the benefit paid to their workers. According to a Circular issued by the Minister of Labour on 30 June 1920⁽⁸⁹⁾, these funds for benefit in case of unemployment due to shortage of raw materials are in principle to depend mainly on the employers, the state grant being merely supplementary.

In Italy the Royal Decree of 9 June 1921⁽⁹⁰⁾ provides for special subsidies to trade union funds reporting a high percentage of unemployment, to enable them to meet claims for benefit.

An Unemployment Insurance and Employment Exchanges Department was set up in the Netherlands by a Decree of 19 September 1916⁽⁹¹⁾, primarily with the purpose of encouraging private organisations by means of subsidies. Its activities in connection with unemployment insurance were regulated by a Decree of 2 December 1916⁽⁹²⁾,

⁽⁸³⁾ *Social Tidskrift*, 1920, No. 5, p. 602.

⁽⁸⁴⁾ *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek*, Dec. 1921, p. 1552. Amsterdam.

⁽⁸⁵⁾ See below, under "Donations".

⁽⁸⁶⁾ *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. I (1906), p. 14; amendments of 20 April and 31 December 1906, *ibid.*, pp. 188, 472; of 3 December 1908, *ibid.*, Vol. IV (1909), p. 75; of 28 December 1912, *ibid.*, Vol. XI (1916), p. 73; of 21 March and 7 July 1919, *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXVI (1919), pp. 83*, 185*; of 2 May 1921, *ibid.*, Vol. XXVIII (1921), p. 52*.

⁽⁸⁷⁾ *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXV (1918), p. 43*.

⁽⁸⁸⁾ About one-third; the exact percentage has been varied at intervals during the three years' working of the scheme, by the above-mentioned Decrees of 26 January and 17 October 1920 and 25 February 1921.

⁽⁸⁹⁾ *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXVII (1920), p. 120*.

⁽⁹⁰⁾ *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 1921, No. 156.

⁽⁹¹⁾ *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. XII (1917), p. 98.

⁽⁹²⁾ *Ibid.*, Vol. XII (1917), p. 99.

(amended by a Decree of 15 January 1921 ⁽⁹³⁾), as regards the procedure for appeals to the responsible Minister). This Decree authorises the communal authorities to grant subsidies to approved funds, equal to half the members' contributions. Where such grants are made, an equal sum is paid by the state. The communal authorities supervise the operations of the funds, and there is a central advisory committee consisting of representatives of the funds and of local and central authorities. Approved funds are not allowed to pay benefit beyond 70 per cent. of the members' earnings, and employment must not be refused by members in receipt of benefit without sufficient reason (of which the fund is the judge).

An emergency Act of 31 December 1919 ⁽⁹⁴⁾ authorises special grants during the period of depression—shared equally between the state and the communes, as before—to enable the funds to pay special allowances for high cost of living or to continue benefits beyond the statutory maximum period where necessary. By the end of 1920 the resources of many funds were completely exhausted, or nearly so. To remedy this, the Government undertook to make an advance to cover the deficit, at first for a provisional period of four weeks, and subsequently for the whole of 1921, on condition that benefits were reduced in accordance with a prescribed scale ⁽⁹⁵⁾. Half the advance was treated as a subsidy, and half as a loan free of interest. In view of the continued prevalence of unemployment, government assistance is to be extended during 1922 ⁽⁹⁶⁾, one-third of the advance in each case being a grant in aid, one-third a loan free of interest, and one-third recoverable from the communal authorities.

Under Regulations issued by the Minister of Labour on 11 October 1920 ⁽⁹⁷⁾ any employer who pays his workers up to two-thirds of their normal wages during a period of short time or closing down is granted one-third of such payment out of state funds, on condition that the communes of residence of the various workers contribute at least one-tenth. It is stipulated that workers not insured in a subsidised unemployment fund shall receive from the employer 5 per cent. less than other workers at such times.

Approved unemployment funds have been granted state subsidies in Norway since 1906; the principal Act now in operation was issued in 1915, codifying earlier provisions, and has been amended twice, on 29 July 1918 and 30 June 1921 ⁽⁹⁸⁾. To qualify for a subsidy, funds must not pay benefit above half the average daily wage in the member's trade, nor for more than 90 days in twelve months; and the employment exchanges must be notified of unemployed members who are bound to accept work considered suitable by the governing body of the fund. Further, at least half the income of the fund must be derived from contributions. If these conditions are fulfilled, the state grants a subsidy of one-half the sum paid in benefit, and recovers two-thirds of it from the communes of residence of beneficiaries. The amending Act of 1918 allows partial or total exemption of the communes

⁽⁹³⁾ *Staatsblad*, 1921, No. 30.

⁽⁹⁴⁾ *Ibid.*, 1919, No. 620.

⁽⁹⁵⁾ Circular of the Minister of Labour, dated 25 Jan. 1921; *Maandschrift van het Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek*, 1921, Feb., pp. 223-4.

⁽⁹⁶⁾ Further Circular of 5 December 1921; *ibid.*, Dec., pp. 1506-8.

⁽⁹⁷⁾ *Ibid.*, 1920, Nov., p. 1581.

⁽⁹⁸⁾ These three Acts are issued in codified form in the *Legislative Series* for 1921 (Nor. 1).

from the duty of repayment where the burden would be excessive. The Act of 1921 waives the requirement as to two years' residence in Norway in the case of aliens from states which have concluded reciprocal agreements with Norway for the payment of unemployment benefit, or members of foreign trade unions which have made, with the approval of the government, similar agreements with Norwegian organisations.

In Spain, under a Royal Decree of 18 March 1919 and Regulations of 31 March 1919⁽⁹⁹⁾, a state subsidy equal to the income from contributions is granted to all unemployment insurance funds for single or related trades, in respect of their members between 18 and 65 years of age who are either wage earners or employees with an annual salary of 4,000 pesetas or less. The benefit is limited to 60 per cent. of the daily wage, for 90 days in twelve months.

Side by side with the Federal scheme described above⁽¹⁰⁰⁾, grants from public moneys to private organisations are still made in various parts of Switzerland. In the canton of Basle-Town subsidies are granted to approved unemployment funds⁽¹⁰¹⁾, based partly on the contributions received (these grants must be used in the first instance to build up a reserve) and partly on the benefit paid. As a rule funds must not pay more than 70 days' benefit in the year, nor more than two-thirds of the possible earnings in normal conditions at the time. In the Canton of Geneva⁽¹⁰²⁾ registered trade funds are repaid 60 per cent. of their expenditure for benefit, provided that their grants are limited in normal times to 60 days a year, and made only to persons resident in Geneva or members of a similar fund elsewhere in Switzerland for a year previously.

DONATIONS

As stated earlier, recourse was had to non-contributory benefit from public funds, during the period immediately following the Armistice, in Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Italy, and Great Britain.

The temporary granting of undisguised donation has been maintained longer in Czechoslovakia⁽¹⁰³⁾ than in any other country except Germany. Benefit, with allowances for dependents, is granted from state funds to all unemployed persons on condition that they report regularly to the employment exchanges and accept suitable work, while employers are bound to notify the exchanges of vacancies. Unemployed persons must perform work on public utility schemes undertaken as relief works, up to the amount of time for which the benefit would constitute the proper wage, reckoned at the standard rate. Seasonal workers are excluded from benefit, save as may be provided by special

⁽⁹⁹⁾ *Gaceta de Madrid*, 19 March and 6 April 1919.

⁽¹⁰⁰⁾ See under "Compulsory State Insurance".

⁽¹⁰¹⁾ See note (70).

⁽¹⁰²⁾ See note (71).

⁽¹⁰³⁾ By a succession of Acts and Orders, the last of which (superseding all others, and operative until 31 December 1921) was passed on 12 August 1921 (*Sammlung der Gesetze*, 1921, p. 1453). This Act has been extended till 31 March 1922 by an Act of 21 December 1921 (*Sammlung der Gesetze*, 1921, p. 2025), which also introduces an amendment allowing employers to notify vacancies, and unemployed persons to report to trade union exchanges instead of public employment exchanges, if collective agreements are concluded to this effect. For earlier legislation, see the official *Exposé sommaire des travaux législatifs de l'Assemblée Nationale tchécoslovaque*, 28/10/1918—26/5/1920.

Orders. The conditions are on the whole much like those for the state subsidy to trade unemployment funds under the Act of 19 July 1921 ⁽¹⁰⁴⁾.

In **Denmark** special donations have during the last two years been provided for unemployed fishermen whose income or property is below a certain level ⁽¹⁰⁵⁾. The communal authorities pay this benefit to respectable unemployed fishermen who are not indebted to the public funds for poor relief, and recover two-thirds of the cost from the Treasury. Seasonal fishers are excluded from benefit, and those admitted to it must accept any suitable work offered by the employment exchanges.

Sweden has had a donation system in operation since the beginning of the war. During the winter of 1920-1921 this was regulated by a Royal Proclamation of 22 October 1920 ⁽¹⁰⁶⁾, which did not differ fundamentally from that issued on 28 September 1914. All persons over 15 years of age who are fit for work but unemployed, and who are not in receipt of regular poor relief (except on account of illness or a particularly large family), are entitled to benefit out of the moneys set aside by communal and provincial authorities for unemployment relief, and these authorities are entitled to a state subsidy equivalent to the benefit paid, up to a fixed maximum. Benefit is suspended in case of disorderly conduct or insobriety, and is conditional upon attendance at the educational courses arranged by the communal or provincial authority.

The Proclamation of 22 October 1920 has now been superseded by another of 22 June 1921 ⁽¹⁰⁷⁾, which introduces certain new features. The organisation of communal and intercommunal unemployment committees to deal with questions of benefit and relief works is now indicated as the normal procedure, though communal authorities may act directly. The special committees must include representatives of local authorities, voluntary relief organisations, and employers and workers. Provincial relief committees and a state Unemployment Commission supervise their activities. The provision in the Proclamation of 1920, whereby wages could be supplemented by benefit during the first three months in a new trade not yielding a subsistence to an inexperienced worker, has been deleted in the new measure. Special arrangements are now made for assistance to unemployed persons in paying their rent, though this grant is not to be used in any way which will deter beneficiaries from seeking employment away from their place of residence.

The donation system in **France** was instituted early in the war, by a Circular of 20 August 1914 ⁽¹⁰⁸⁾, a Decree of 24 November 1914 ⁽¹⁰⁹⁾, and an amending Decree of 9 January 1915 ⁽¹¹⁰⁾, which were superseded later by a Decree of 19 April 1918 ⁽¹¹¹⁾ (subsequently amended by

⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ See above, under "Subsidies to Voluntary Insurance Schemes".

⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ Act of 28 June 1920 (*Dansk Lovsamling*, 1920, p. 297); operation extended by Acts of 6 May and 1 December 1921 (*Social Forsorg*, 1921, pp. 131, 266).

⁽¹⁰⁶⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Swe. 5).

⁽¹⁰⁷⁾ *Svensk Författningssamling*, 1921, No. 366.

⁽¹⁰⁸⁾ *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXI, 1914, p. 81*.

⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ Decree to fix the conditions with which municipal and Departmental funds must comply in order to benefit by subsidies from the National Unemployment Fund. *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basil)*, Vol. X (1915), p. 71.

⁽¹¹⁰⁾ *Ibid.*, Vol. X (1915), p. 135.

⁽¹¹¹⁾ *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXV, 1918, p. 43*.

Decrees of 14 and 26 January and 17 October 1919⁽¹¹²⁾, and supplemented by Decrees varying the rate of subsidy at half-yearly intervals). The original Decree urged the Departmental and communal authorities (except in communes with less than 5,000 inhabitants) to establish special funds for the relief of the unemployed, and promised a subsidy to approved funds from the National Unemployment Fund, based on the benefit paid. These funds were to be managed by a joint committee—by the existing employment exchange committee, if so desired. Benefit was to be paid only to persons engaged in paid work at a regular wage for a reasonably long period before becoming unemployed. The subsidy from the National Fund was a percentage of the benefits paid up to a maximum limit. The Codifying Decree of 19 April 1918 left this system in the main unchanged, and contained some additional provisions already referred to⁽¹¹³⁾. In pursuance of Article II of the Franco-Italian Treaty of 30 September 1919⁽¹¹⁴⁾ (ratified by France on 25 May 1921), Italians have now the same rights as French workers to benefit from these local funds. The Government continues to encourage the activities of the funds, in view of the persistent trade depression, and the rate of the subsidy is fixed afresh every six months, according to past conditions and prospects for the next half-year.

While donations have been replaced in Great Britain by insurance on extremely liberal terms, it has been found that very heavy charges have been imposed upon the poor law authorities by the economic crisis, and that these charges are likely to continue. In view of this, two special Acts were passed on 10 November 1921, to remain in operation during the winter of 1921-1922. One of these, the Local Authorities (Financial Provisions) Act 1921⁽¹¹⁵⁾, authorises the granting of relief in London on a higher scale than that provided in the Act of 1870, and further empowers local authorities to raise short-term loans for current expenses, and facilitates borrowing for relief works. The Poor Law Emergency Provisions (Scotland) Act 1921⁽¹¹⁶⁾ temporarily suspends certain parts of the existing law which make it impossible for parish councils to grant relief to the able-bodied unemployed, and authorises borrowing for this purpose.

In Switzerland a supplementary grant from Federal funds, to alleviate hardship during the winter of 1921-1922, has been provided for under the Federal Resolution of 21 October 1921⁽¹¹⁷⁾. This grant is intended only for persons in necessitous circumstances who have been totally unemployed during 90 days out of the six months ended 30 November 1921, or employed for so small a part of their time that wages and short-time benefit together have not exceeded the full benefit for total unemployment. The assistance may be given in kind or in money; it varies from 40 francs for a single person up to 120 francs for persons with five or more dependents. The Federal Government pays half of this; if more is given, the canton or commune responsible must bear the additional charge, as well as half of the above-mentioned maximum.

In Germany, as in other states, a donation scheme was introduced immediately after the Armistice, by a Federal Order of 13 November

⁽¹¹²⁾ *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVI, 1919, pp. 61*, 186*.

⁽¹¹³⁾ See under "Subsidies to Voluntary Insurance Schemes".

⁽¹¹⁴⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Int. 2).

⁽¹¹⁵⁾ 11 and 12 Geo. 5, ch. 67.

⁽¹¹⁶⁾ 11 and 12 Geo. 5, ch. 64.

⁽¹¹⁷⁾ *Résumé des Lois Fédérales*, 1921, No. 45, p. 747.

1918⁽¹¹⁸⁾. The provisions of this Order have been amended and recodified several times, the last complete edition appearing on 1 November 1921⁽¹¹⁹⁾, but the donation system is still retained. The communal authorities are required to provide assistance, other than poor relief, for the unemployed; half of the benefit so paid is recoverable from Federal funds, and one-third from State funds. Every person over 16 years of age⁽¹²⁰⁾ who is capable of work and dependent upon his or her exertions for a living, and who is unemployed and in need in consequence of the war, is qualified for benefit, provided that no suitable employment can be found. Benefit is also granted to persons on short time. Unemployed persons are as far as possible to be returned to the districts in which they were resident on 1 August 1914 (so as to relieve undue pressure in munition areas). Employment within the physical capacity of an unemployed person must be accepted, provided that it is properly paid and does not interfere with the requisite care of dependents. Possible hindrance to a subsequent return to the original trade of the person in question is not taken into account in deciding as to the suitability of employment. If removal is necessary, special allowances for this are granted; and extra benefit may be given when the head of a household is temporarily employed away from home. Benefit for total unemployment is normally limited to 26 weeks in twelve months (or 13 weeks in trades where there is a demand for labour); but extension is permitted where necessary, and in June 1921⁽¹²¹⁾ a special grant from Federal funds was authorised for persons who had been unemployed for 26 weeks or more, in order to cover the cost of necessary clothing, etc., which could not be procured out of the weekly benefit. The communes are now required to provide for expenses due to illness, either by keeping up contributions for Federal sickness insurance on behalf of unemployed persons or by paying equivalent sick benefit.

All this imposes a heavy burden upon the local authorities, but the latest amendment of the Order provides for Federal subsidies to overburdened States as well as State subsidies to overburdened communes. Trade unions are allowed to administer the donation system for their own members, thus reducing the work of the communal authorities. Local administration of benefit is controlled by joint committees of employers and workers, co-operating with the employment exchanges. The State Governments are directed to make alternative administrative arrangements in the event of any slackness on the part of subordinate authorities. Benefit, however, is always regarded as a last resort, and relief works have during the last eighteen months played an increasingly prominent part in the struggle against unemployment⁽¹²²⁾.

RELIEF WORKS

In several countries the institution of relief works is left entirely to local effort, perhaps with an offer of assistance from the state if anything is done. Thus in **Belgium** the only national legislation concerning

(118) Order to make provision for the unemployed (*Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1918, p. 1305).

(119) *Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1921, p. 1337.

(120) The original Order gave 14 years as the minimum age.

(121) Circular of the Federal Minister of Labour, dated 10 June 1921, concerning the payment of a special grant in aid of persons who have been unemployed for a long time (*Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*, 1921, No. 19, p. 691).

(122) See below, pp. 686-687.

relief works since the beginning of the present crisis is a clause in the latest edition of the Unemployment Order⁽¹²³⁾, which authorises advances from the National Relief Fund for public works. In **France** no general action has been taken, but relief works are mentioned incidentally, as one possible method of dealing with unemployment, in a recent circular of the Minister of Labour⁽¹²⁴⁾. In **Luxemburg** the Grand-Ducal Decree of 6 August 1921⁽¹²⁵⁾ directs the communes to put relief works in hand where possible, and to co-operate with private organisations and undertakings in the provision of employment.

In **Great Britain** local authorities are left to their own devices, subject to the general limitation of their borrowing powers and the approval of the competent Ministers; but various recent enactments facilitate the undertaking of public works. The Unemployment (Relief Works) Act of 3 December 1920⁽¹²⁶⁾ provides for the prompt acquisition of land for arterial roads and other purposes of public utility. The Local Authorities (Financial Provisions) Act, passed on 10 December 1921⁽¹²⁷⁾, eases the conditions under which loans may be raised for revenue-producing works, and provides that sums borrowed before 1 April 1923 for the purpose of affording employment shall not count as part of the local authority's debt when the permissibility of borrowing for other purposes is under consideration. Conditions of employment on relief works are generally left to the authorities concerned, but the Ministry of Health laid down the principle (in a Circular issued in the autumn of 1921) that not more than 75 per cent. of the standard rate of wages was to be paid to persons employed on relief works. This aroused much ill-feeling, in view of the extent of unemployment among persons skilled in the trades concerned, and some local authorities have disregarded the ruling.

Denmark has made regular provision during the last three years for assistance to local authorities undertaking relief works of public utility, in the form of a subsidy in aid of the payment of interest on the loans for such works. The first Act of this kind was passed on 5 February 1918⁽¹²⁸⁾, and its provisions were subsequently renewed at intervals. A similar Act⁽¹²⁹⁾, granting loans to cover a larger proportion of interest for a longer period (2 per cent. instead of $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. and ten years instead of eight years), was passed on 22 December 1920. During December 1921 the Minister of the Interior was temporarily authorised⁽¹³⁰⁾ to pay a special grant in aid of approved relief works undertaken or assisted by communal authorities, at the rate of not more than 3 kroner a working day for every person employed. Further, an Act of 21 December 1921⁽¹³¹⁾ authorised communal authorities to

⁽¹²³⁾ National Emergency Fund: codified text of the Orders relating to its organisation, 6 September 1921 (*Revue du Travail*, Vol. XXII (1921), p. 1092).

⁽¹²⁴⁾ Circular dated 12 February 1921, respecting the establishment of Departmental unemployment committees (*Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXVIII (1921), p. 21*).

⁽¹²⁵⁾ See note (62).

⁽¹²⁶⁾ 10 and 11 Geo. 5, ch. 57.

⁽¹²⁷⁾ 11 and 12 Geo. 5, ch. 67.

⁽¹²⁸⁾ *Aarbog for Rigsdagssamlingen*, 1917-1918, p. 107.

⁽¹²⁹⁾ Act respecting state aid for the putting in hand of work, 22 December 1920 (*Dansk Lovsamling*, 1920, p. 467).

⁽¹³⁰⁾ By the Act of 1 December 1921, respecting a provisional state subsidy on account of unemployment (*Social Forsorg*, Vol. XVII, 1921, p. 266).

⁽¹³¹⁾ Act respecting land improvement undertakings (*Social Forsorg*, Vol. XVII, 1921, p. 267).

guarantee loans for land improvement during the period ending 31 March 1922. Where such work is undertaken on approved lines (a local committee of employers, workers, and officials being the judge), exceptional benefit under the Unemployment Insurance Act of 22 December 1921 ⁽¹³²⁾ is prohibited unless it can be shown that the persons for whom it is claimed are unsuitable for employment under the land improvement scheme. Part III of the Act deals with relief works and other methods of combating exceptional unemployment. It provides for the creation of a Central Fund by contributions from employers and state grants, and this Fund may be used in the event of unemployment in a particular industry or locality, or throughout the country. Grants may be made from the Fund, not merely for continued benefit to the unemployed, but to enable communes to put in hand work which would otherwise have remained undone. Country committees of employers and workers are appointed to decide what undertakings may properly be regarded as relief works, and to assist in the work of organisation and supervision. The grants in aid of wages authorised by the Act of 1 December 1921 ⁽¹³³⁾ are made a permanent feature of the relief works schemes; and it is laid down as a general principle that conditions of employment on relief works must be more attractive than total unemployment with benefit, but less attractive than normal employment.

In Czechoslovakia grants were made for relief works (chiefly road construction) during the early part of 1919, not under the Unemployment Benefit Acts, but separately ⁽¹³⁴⁾. In Act No. 569 of 1919 (the Unemployment Benefit Act of 17 October) ⁽¹³⁵⁾ donations and relief works were combined in one scheme. The district authorities were authorised to require the subordinate authorities to undertake public utility works at once, giving preference to workers who would otherwise receive unemployment benefit; in return, a subsidy was granted at the rate of two-thirds of the wage of each such person engaged, up to a daily maximum wage. Under an Order of the Standing Committee of the National Assembly, issued on 1 September 1920 ⁽¹³⁶⁾, the arrangements for employment on relief works were varied. All persons in receipt of state benefit were required to accept employment on public utility schemes in return for the benefit, working the number of hours each week for which the state grant constituted the standard wages. This arrangement was embodied in the Act of 12 August 1921 ⁽¹³⁷⁾, with the additional provision that the employer had to pay an allowance per hour amounting on a full day's work to half the maximum benefit for a family. The Ministry of Social Welfare was empowered to make a grant to the employer for each unemployed person engaged, in aid of wages, not exceeding half the maximum family benefit. The Act of 19 July 1921 ⁽¹³⁸⁾, which was not operative during 1921, provides that unemployed persons in receipt of the state supplement to benefit may be required to accept

⁽¹³²⁾ See note (79).

⁽¹³³⁾ See note (130).

⁽¹³⁴⁾ By Acts Nos. 156, 209, and 319 of 1919 (dated 13 March, 15 April, and 23 May) respecting measures to combat unemployment among wage-earners; referred to in the *Exposé sommaire des travaux législatifs de l'Assemblée Nationale tchécoslovaque 28/10/1918—26/5/1920*.

⁽¹³⁵⁾ *Ibid.*, p. 11.

⁽¹³⁶⁾ *Sammlung der Gesetze*, 1920, No. 107, p. 1525.

⁽¹³⁷⁾ See note (103).

⁽¹³⁸⁾ See note (77).

so much employment on relief works as the supplement will pay for at the standard rate, but no provision is made for a subsidy to the employer.

Extensive provision for relief works has of late been made in Italy. Under the Unemployment Insurance Act of October 1919⁽¹³⁹⁾ loans for relief works were authorised. In the course of 1921 special grants were made for the initiation of public works to combat the increasing unemployment⁽¹⁴⁰⁾. An Act of 20 August authorised the granting of loans amounting to 500 million lire in 1921-1923, for hydraulic engineering, communications, agrarian improvements, and housing. The procedure for the requesting and granting of loans was laid down in detail in this Act, and simplified by a Legislative Décrée of 19 November.

Switzerland has undertaken relief works on an unusually large scale during the last eighteen months. Early in 1921 a sum of fifteen million francs was voted by the Federal Government for relief works⁽¹⁴¹⁾; fifteen millions more were voted on 24 June⁽¹⁴²⁾, and eighty-six millions on 20 and 21 October⁽¹⁴³⁾. The Resolution of 19 February laid down certain rules for grants from these votes to local authorities—the canton must contribute a sum equivalent to the Federal grant, the unemployed must as far as possible be left to their own cantons, and no extra grants in aid were allowed unless cantonal employment regulations were drawn up and approved. In approved cases grants might be made to cover the loss due to the low output of inexperienced workers. The proportion of the advance to the cost of each scheme varied according to the nature of the work; 20 per cent. of the cost was the limit for most schemes, and 10 per cent. for housing schemes, the grant in aid of wages being additional. Under the Resolution of 20 September⁽¹⁴⁴⁾ the wages grant might amount to 20 per cent. of the sum paid to the unemployed persons so taken into employment, provided that the canton made an equivalent grant. An Order in pursuance of this Resolution⁽¹⁴⁵⁾ required that subsidised relief works be carried out exclusively with Swiss materials by workers settled in Switzerland, except where it is absolutely essential to procure either materials or staff from abroad.

Relief works—"productive provision for the unemployed"—have received an increasing share of attention in Germany of late. The latest general provisions on the subject are contained in the Federal Order of November 1921⁽¹⁴⁶⁾, which supersedes all earlier Orders on the same matter, and the Administrative Regulations under § 15 of this Order, as amended down to 7 June 1921⁽¹⁴⁷⁾. This Order requires the communal authorities to make provision for the relief of the unemployed by means of work wherever possible, benefit being granted only as a *pis aller*. Section 15 empowers the Federal Government to make advances for relief works, which must be met by proportionate State

(139) See note (48).

(140) Act of 20 August 1921, No. 1177 (*Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 1921, No. 212, p. 1093); Legislative Decree of 19 November 1921, No. 1704 (*ibid.*, No. 285, p. 1470).

(141) Federal Resolutions concerning measures to prevent unemployment, dated 18 and 19 February 1921 (*Recueil des lois fédérales*, 1921, No. 9, pp. 132, 133).

(142) *Recueil des lois fédérales*, 1921, No. 30, p. 538.

(143) *Ibid.*, No. 45, pp. 749, 750.

(144) *Ibid.*, No. 40, p. 680.

(145) *Ibid.*, No. 41, p. 683.

(146) *Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1921, No. 107, p. 1337.

(147) *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*, 1921, No. 17, p. 626.

and local contributions. The Federal grant is based on the economy in respect of benefit effected by the engagement of unemployed persons. The Regulations exclude profit-making undertakings from participation in grants. Public authorities which adopt schemes for relief works are instructed not to employ direct labour as a rule, but to see that the contractor for the works does not make an unreasonably large profit. Workers must be engaged through the public employment exchanges, but their names are kept on the registers of these offices, in order that they may be transferred to regular work in due course. Wages on relief works have to be based on output as far as possible, and must be sufficient for subsistence, but not so high as to remove the incentive to seek other employment. The largest possible number of workers must be employed, alternate days' or weeks' employment being given where there is exceptionally great unemployment. A Circular of the Minister of Labour, dated 8 June 1921 ⁽¹⁴⁸⁾, offers a grant-in-aid based on $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the saving effected by the engagement of persons who have been unemployed for 26 weeks or more, in view of the decline in the working capacity of such persons in consequence of their long unemployment.

OTHER MEASURES

Measures affecting Engagements and Dismissals

During the years 1919-1921 steps were taken in the Central European states to check dismissals as far as possible and especially to prevent the permanent reduction of staffs. In Austria a series of Orders ⁽¹⁴⁹⁾, renewed at intervals of three or four months with slight modifications, requires occupiers of industrial undertakings as a rule to engage a new worker in place of each worker dismissed. The requirement is waived if the requisite long notice proportionate to length of service has been given, and a substantial leaving grant is paid; and the district industrial commissions set up under the Unemployment Insurance Act of March 1920 are empowered to grant exemption to particular undertakings or groups of establishments on grounds of hardship, and to approve collective agreements deviating from the legal provisions. Long periods of notice and leaving grants, both proportionate to length of service, are also required for commercial employees under other Orders ⁽¹⁵⁰⁾, though the replacement of persons dismissed is not obligatory in respect of this class. By a third series of Orders ⁽¹⁵¹⁾, absence on military service is not a lawful cause for the dismissal of commercial employees, and persons returning to employment after war service must be paid a prescribed increase of salary (the ratio of increase has been varied several times as the depreciation of the currency has continued).

⁽¹⁴⁸⁾ *Ibid.*, No. 19, p. 690.

⁽¹⁴⁹⁾ The latest Orders now in operation are those of 16 October 1919 and 16 August 1920 (*Staats-Gesetzblatt*, 1919, No. 489, and 1920, No. 392), respecting the maintenance of the wage-earning staffs of industrial undertakings. The operation of these Orders has been extended periodically, the latest extending Order being issued on 10 November 1921 (*Bundes-Gesetzblatt*, 1921, No. 616).

⁽¹⁵⁰⁾ The latest Order on this subject appeared in December 1920 — Order of the Ministries of Justice and Social Administration respecting restrictions on the giving of notice to terminate certain contracts of employment (*Bundes-Gesetzblatt*, 1921, No. 33). For earlier Orders see *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Aus. 10).

⁽¹⁵¹⁾ Order of 18 November 1918 (*Staats-Gesetzblatt*, 1919, No. 27), respecting the continuance of contracts of employment under the Commercial Assistants' Act during the war and the demobilisation period; continued and amended by Orders of 28 November 1919 (*Staats-Gesetzblatt*, 1919, No. 537) and 29 December 1920 (*Bundes-Gesetzblatt*, 1921, No. 16).

In **Czechoslovakia** limitations were imposed upon dismissals of commercial employees, as in Austria, during the early part of 1919⁽¹⁵²⁾, by means of the exaction of long periods of notice; but these provisions were not continued beyond the end of June 1919. The example of Austria was followed also in the prohibition of dismissal on account of absence on military service, and in the prescription of an increase of salary on return to employment⁽¹⁵³⁾.

In **Germany** several groups of Orders have been issued during the reconstruction period. As in other states, employers were from the first⁽¹⁵⁴⁾ required to take back employees returning from military service, imprisonment, or internment. Short time was to be substituted for the dismissal of regular workers on account of re-engagements, as far as possible, and also for reductions of staff. The local demobilisation committees were authorised to require occupiers of all but quite small undertakings to engage additional workers and keep them for a prescribed minimum period. In addition, action was taken to restore the pre-war distribution of the population, both geographically and industrially. The Unemployment Order of 13 November 1918⁽¹⁵⁵⁾ directed that persons who had moved into new districts since the beginning of the war should as far as possible be passed back to their former communes of residence if unemployed. The amending Order of 15 April 1919⁽¹⁵⁶⁾ varied this by allowing four weeks' benefit in the new commune of residence, or at the place of demobilisation in the case of ex-Service men, and waived the requirement of removal in all cases where the whole household of the unemployed person had migrated with him and settled in the new district before his unemployment began, a provision which is retained in the latest codification of the Order⁽¹⁵⁷⁾.

Under another series of Orders dating from March 1919⁽¹⁵⁸⁾ demobilisation committees are empowered to require employers (in districts where unemployment is considerable) to dismiss persons not regularly trained in their trades, especially those engaged in agriculture, forestry, mining, or domestic service at the outbreak of war, and also those who have come from other localities or who were formerly employed in another trade where there is now a shortage of labour.

⁽¹⁵²⁾ Orders of 9 January and 28 February 1919, respecting limitations upon the giving of notice to terminate certain contracts of employment (*Sammlung der Gesetze*, 1919, Nos. 1 and 108).

⁽¹⁵³⁾ Order of January 1919 (*Sammlung der Gesetze*, 1919, No. 4) respecting the continuance of contracts of employment under the Commercial Assistants' Act during the war and the demobilisation period; continued and amended by Orders of 24 June and 30 December 1920 (*ibid.*, 1920, Nos. 395 and 694), 23 June and 29 December 1921 (*ibid.*, 1921, Nos. 218 and 498). A special Order on the same lines was passed on 26 October 1921 (*ibid.*, No. 383) and repealed as from 27 November by an Order of 19 December (*ibid.*, No. 462) in connection with last autumn's mobilisation.

⁽¹⁵⁴⁾ Orders respecting the engagement and dismissal of wage-earning and salaried employees during the period of economic demobilisation—first issued on 4 January 1919; latest codification 12 February 1920 (*Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1920, p. 218).

⁽¹⁵⁵⁾ *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, 1918, p. 3; *Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1918, p. 1305.

⁽¹⁵⁶⁾ *Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1919, p. 399.

⁽¹⁵⁷⁾ *Ibid.*, 1921, p. 1337.

⁽¹⁵⁸⁾ Orders respecting the making available of posts during the period of economic demobilisation. The latest in force is that of 25 April 1920 (*Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1920, p. 708), with an amending Order of 5 March 1921 (*ibid.*, 1921, p. 222).

The works council has to be consulted respecting proposed dismissals under this Order. In connection with agriculture, special Orders have been issued to deal with the lack of workers⁽¹⁵⁹⁾. Under these Orders unemployed persons of either sex who accept employment in agriculture (whether returning to it from another trade or entering it for the first time) are granted free transport to the new place of employment, together with a removal allowance, at the expense of the last commune of residence. Another Order of later date⁽¹⁶⁰⁾ forbids fee-charging employment agencies to co-operate in any way in the placing of foreign migratory workers. Industrial and transport undertakings employing more than twenty persons (except those owned by the Federal or State authorities) are forbidden⁽¹⁶¹⁾ to close down or suspend their operations until the demobilisation authorities have been notified and a definite period has expired. During this period no workers can be dismissed without the consent of the authorities, who are bound to endeavour to investigate the case with the help of all concerned, in the hope of averting the proposed reduction of employment.

France also has passed special legislation concerning the re-employment of men called up for military service. The Act of 22 November 1918⁽¹⁶²⁾ guarantees the renewal of the contract of employment of men on service during the war, and that of 23 June 1921⁽¹⁶³⁾ makes similar provision for all persons called up for military service at any time subsequent to the war, or in the future. In the Circular issued by the Minister of Labour on 30 June 1920, respecting steps to be taken in view of the impending period of unemployment⁽¹⁶⁴⁾, employment exchange managers are instructed to watch for opportunities of sending unemployed persons into areas and trades where there is an actual or expected shortage of labour. Cases where the removal of a contingent of foreign workers would avert unemployment have to be reported at once to headquarters. In the Circular of 12 February 1921, respecting the institution of Departmental unemployment committees⁽¹⁶⁵⁾, the replacement of workers in their former trades and a return to the land are mentioned among possible solutions of the problem. A further Circular of 27 June 1921⁽¹⁶⁶⁾ congratulates the public employment exchanges on the number of persons placed in agricultural employment between January and May 1921, which is more than 50 per cent. above the number so placed in the corresponding months of 1920, and incites them to further efforts.

Engagement of Men disabled in the War

In connection with these measures for the relief of unemployment by reorganisation and endeavours to revert to pre-war conditions,

⁽¹⁵⁹⁾ Orders concerning the removal of the shortage of workers in agriculture, dated 10 March and 28 October 1919, and 25 March 1920 (*Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1919, pp. 310, 1833 ; 1920, p. 520).

⁽¹⁶⁰⁾ Order of 26 May 1920, to restrict changes of employment by foreign migratory workers (*Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*, 1920, New Series, No. 3, p. 90).

⁽¹⁶¹⁾ Order of 8 November 1920, respecting the closing down and suspension of undertakings. (*Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1920, p. 1901).

⁽¹⁶²⁾ *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXVI, 1919, p. 1*.

⁽¹⁶³⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Fr. 4).

⁽¹⁶⁴⁾ *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXVII, 1920, p. 120*.

⁽¹⁶⁵⁾ *Ibid.*, Vol. XXVIII, 1921, p. 21*.

⁽¹⁶⁶⁾ Circular of the Minister of Labour respecting the placing of unemployed persons in agricultural employment (*Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Vol. XXVIII, 1921, p. 92*).

reference may be made to two groups of measures which have affected the labour market, though they are not designed merely to reduce unemployment. The first of these groups is that dealing with the employment of men disabled in the war, who would be at a disadvantage in the quest for employment without some legislative support. Acts to compel the employment of a certain percentage of disabled men were passed in 1920 in Austria⁽¹⁶⁷⁾ and Germany⁽¹⁶⁸⁾, and in 1921 in Italy⁽¹⁶⁹⁾ and Poland⁽¹⁷⁰⁾. The compulsory percentage thus fixed is 4 per cent. in Austria (or rather higher, since one disabled man must be engaged for the first twenty employees), 2 per cent. in Germany (in addition to a general preference to be accorded to disabled men, *ceteris paribus*), 5 per cent. in Italy (one for every twenty male employees after the first ten), and 2 per cent. in Poland. Employment under these provisions is of course limited to persons whose degree of disablement is relatively low, and to occupations where it is not essential that workers should be physically fit in all respects.

Employment Exchanges

The second group of measures above referred to is that dealing with the organisation of employment exchanges. Legislation on this subject existed in many countries before the war, but in several cases new Acts have been adopted or earlier provisions codified during the last three years. In Denmark, for instance, the law relating to employment exchanges was amended and codified in December last⁽¹⁷¹⁾, and Roumania passed its law on this subject on 22 September 1921⁽¹⁷²⁾. Spain established a central Employment Exchanges Department in September 1920⁽¹⁷³⁾, and Germany in May 1920⁽¹⁷⁴⁾, while Italy revised the provisions on this subject, and combined them with an unemployment insurance system, in October 1919⁽¹⁷⁵⁾.

Trade Subsidies

State assistance to private undertakings has been adopted only in three Western European countries so far, Great Britain, Belgium and Switzerland. Under the Trade Facilities Act of 1921⁽¹⁷⁶⁾ the British Government is authorised to give guarantees for loans (amounting to £25 millions during the year 1922) to either public or private bodies which are about to undertake any scheme involving capital outlay, provided that such scheme is calculated to promote employment in Great Britain and Ireland. Either the capital undertakings themselves, or purchases in connection with them, may be assisted in this way; the purchase of munitions alone is explicitly excluded from the scope of the Act. In Belgium, under an Act of 7 August 1921⁽¹⁷⁷⁾, the Government is authorised to guarantee sales on credit by Belgian

⁽¹⁶⁷⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Aus. 16).

⁽¹⁶⁸⁾ *Ibid.*, (Ger. 9).

⁽¹⁶⁹⁾ *Ibid.*, 1921 (It. 5).

⁽¹⁷⁰⁾ *Ibid.*, (Pol. 9).

⁽¹⁷¹⁾ See note (79).

⁽¹⁷²⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Rou. 2).

⁽¹⁷³⁾ *Ibid.*, 1920 (Sp. 3).

⁽¹⁷⁴⁾ *Ibid.*, (Ger. 13).

⁽¹⁷⁵⁾ *Ibid.*, (It. 2).

⁽¹⁷⁶⁾ 11 and 12 Geo. 5, Ch. 65; dated 10 November 1921.

⁽¹⁷⁷⁾ *Revue du Travail*, 1921, p. 965. Brussels.

producers to countries with depreciated currencies. The producers are required to bear a part of the risk of the transaction; through their associations, and also to comply with the regulations as to employment drawn up by the national joint industrial councils.

As regards **Switzerland**, assistance to private undertakings which would otherwise be closed down is authorised by the Federal Resolution of 30 September 1921⁽¹⁷⁸⁾. Such assistance is contingent upon a guarantee for the continued employment of workers who would otherwise be dismissed, and it is only granted to save undertakings from running at an actual loss; it may take the form of a grant to be repaid if possible or of a definite loan. The Federal and cantonal authorities share the charge of such assistance as a rule, but in appropriate cases the unemployment funds of the employers' associations may be required to make the requisite advances. Special regulations are to be issued for the assistance of whole branches of industry in accordance with uniform principles. In addition, a special Federal grant of five million francs has been allocated to the watchmaking industry under a Resolution of 6 December 1921⁽¹⁷⁹⁾. A further Resolution of 12 December⁽¹⁸⁰⁾ regulates the distribution of the grant in much greater detail. Subsidies are to be granted to manufacturers of finished watches and clocks, or articles of jewellery used in connection with the watch industry, for regular export, on condition that they employ their whole normal staff on full or short time from the date on which the subsidy is paid. The grant is equivalent to the loss on export due to the difference between the price actually received at the current rate of exchange in the purchasing country and the price which would have been received if the exchange had been effected at the arbitrarily fixed higher rate at which the exporter has been authorised by the Federal Government to conclude the bargain. The subsidy, however, is limited to 30 per cent. of the cost price (defined as including expenses of actual production, a proper share of general charges, and "fair remuneration for the work of the exporting manufacturer"); but it must not in any case exceed the sum which would in default of the grant have been paid in unemployment benefit. Cantons profiting by the saving of benefit are required to bear not more than one-quarter of the cost of the scheme. The work of administration is performed by the employers' associations in the trade and the chambers of commerce of the districts most concerned, under the supervision of a committee of government representatives.

Training of the Unemployed

Education (technical or general) during periods of unemployment has been resorted to in many cases, though not always with the definite purpose of facilitating the transference of unemployed persons to a new trade. The **British** Act of 1920⁽¹⁸¹⁾ empowers local insurance officers to require attendance at approved courses of instruction, held under regulations made by the Ministers of Labour and Education, as a condition of payment of benefit. In **Austria**, under the Act of 1920⁽¹⁸²⁾, an unemployed person who cannot get suitable work in his own or a similar trade on account of lack of skill may be required by

⁽¹⁷⁸⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Switz, 1-2).

⁽¹⁷⁹⁾ *Recueil des lois fédérales*, 1921, No. 52, p. 863.

⁽¹⁸⁰⁾ *Ibid.*, p. 865.

⁽¹⁸¹⁾ See note (56).

⁽¹⁸²⁾ See note (46).

the local unemployment office (subject to the consent of the district industrial commission) to attend a training course of some appropriate kind during a period of twelve weeks. Refusal to attend, or wilful failure to profit by the course, entails an equivalent period of suspension from benefit. In **Denmark**, under the new Unemployment Insurance Act (¹⁸³), somewhat wider provision is made, though only for periods of exceptional unemployment. During such periods the organisation of training courses by the local authorities is to be encouraged by the Employment Committee, and subsidies for this purpose may be granted by the Central Unemployment Fund. The unemployed are required to attend these courses on the instructions of their unemployment funds, in cases where such training will facilitate access to a new occupation. In special cases benefit may be continued for a considerable period, to permit attendance at long courses, even if these are not organised specially for unemployed persons (e.g. instruction at a people's high school).

Under the **Italian** Unemployment Insurance Act (¹⁸⁴) the provincial councils for employment exchanges and unemployment are empowered to require the attendance of particular groups of workers at elementary or technical classes as a condition of benefit. Similarly, in **Germany**, under a provision which first appeared in the Unemployment Order of November 1918 (¹⁸⁵), communal authorities have power to require unemployed persons, especially young persons, to attend training or educational courses as a condition of benefit. In **Switzerland**, only young persons could be required to attend educational courses (trade training was not specified) under the Resolution of 29 October 1919 (¹⁸⁶). The amending Resolution of 30 September 1921 (¹⁸⁷) authorises the cantonal authorities to require unemployed persons of any age to attend educational courses, or to empower the communal authorities to require attendance. **Sweden** also provides for education during unemployment, but does not specifically mention trade training. Under the provisions issued in 1920 (¹⁸⁸) and again in 1921 (¹⁸⁹) the communal committee or governing body is empowered to make such attendance a condition of benefit. The exact purpose of instruction, however, is not indicated. Indeed, it is only in **Austria** and **Denmark** that the principal Acts definitely state that training during unemployment is intended to facilitate entry to a new trade. Where general educational courses only are provided, it may be presumed that their purpose is to prevent mental and moral deterioration owing to lack of occupation.

(¹⁸³) See note (79).

(¹⁸⁴) See note (48).

(¹⁸⁵) See note (118).

(¹⁸⁶) *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Switz. 4 5).

(¹⁸⁷) *Ibid.*, 1921 (Switz. 1).

(¹⁸⁸) *Ibid.*, 1920 (Swe. 5).

(¹⁸⁹) *Svensk Författningssamling*, 1921, No. 366.

BOOK NOTES

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Tenth International Congress of Textile Workers held at Paris, 19-24 September 1921*; Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 25. 23 pp. Geneva. 30 Dec. 1921.

Full summary of the tenth congress of the International Federation of Textile Workers which, after a preliminary meeting of the International Committee on 16 and 17 September 1921, was held at Paris from 19 to 24 September 1921.

CONGRÈS INTERNATIONAL DE LA PROTECTION DE L'ENFANCE (DEUXIÈME), BRUXELLES, 1921 : *Compte rendu sténographié des séances* being Vol. 111 of the *Reports of the Congress*. 684 pp. Brussels, Imp. de l'Office de publicité. 1921.

The first two volumes of the *Reports* of this conference on child protection were noted in the January 1922 number of the *Review* (p. 166). The third volume gives the verbatim reports of the plenary sittings and also of the meetings of the various committees. The report presented by Mr. Maquet on the vocational future of war orphans was the subject of a notice in the December 1921 number of the *Review* (p. 149).

WORLD ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION: *Bulletin XI*. 24 pp. London, published by the Association. February 1922. 1s.

This *Bulletin* includes an article on the new Higher Schools (*Hochschule*) of Germany, by Dr. Karl Brandt, of Göttingen University, who deals with the general principles of reorganisation of the universities and other institutions for higher education in Germany. There are also notes on the classics in adult education, especially among workers, the classes for workers organised by Amherst and Bryn Mawr Colleges in the United States, and the educational work of the Young Men's Christian Association in Wales.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

BELGIUM

MINISTÈRE DE L'INDUSTRIE, DU TRAVAIL ET DU RAVITAILLEMENT, ADMINISTRATION DES MINES: *Statistique des industries extractives et métallurgiques et des appareils à vapeur en Belgique pour l'année 1920*. 48 pp. and 14 tables. Brussels, Gaston Louis. 1921.

We have here, in fourteen tables, the statistical information collected by mining engineers for 1920. The tables contain : (1) the results of the year's working of the coal and metal mines in the Kingdom ; (2) information as to the production and the personnel of coke and briquette works, and of underground and surface quarries and pits ; (3) details of the personnel and de-

scription of metal works and of steel, iron, lead, and silver foundries; (4) a general recapitulation of these three points and a statement of the number of steam engines in Belgium; and (5) detailed statistics of the accidents which occurred in coal mining.

— SECTION DE LA STATISTIQUE : *Index numbers des prix de gros en Belgique*. 11 pp. 1921.

This is a brief sketch of the statistical methods used in preparing the index numbers of wholesale prices in Belgium. It contains a table of the index numbers of 130 products for August 1921, taking (a) April 1914 and (b) December 1920 as bases.

CANADA

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *Employment Bulletin of the Employment Service of Canada*. Ottawa.

This publication, which appears twice a month, beginning 1 August 1921, follows the employment situation in Canada, the information being based on returns from employers, trade unions, and the employment offices. Reports are received from about 5,500 firms employing nearly 700,000 workers and are classified by industries. A chart illustrates the "percentage change in number of persons on pay-rolls as reported by employers making returns" from January 1920 onwards. About 1,500 trade unions, representing over 160,000 persons, also furnish reports as to unemployment among their members. A graphical presentation of the percentage of trade union employment since January 1920 is given. The employment office returns describe the conditions in each Province, and sometimes include statistics of the number of places filled, wages paid, etc. Each number of the *Bulletin* contains a short article on current action regarding unemployment in Canada or abroad.

FRANCE

MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL, OFFICE DU TRAVAIL: *Tarifs de salaires et conventions collectives pendant la guerre (1914-1918)*. Vol. II. 381 pp. Paris, Impr. nationale. 1921.

The first volume of this work was analysed in the February 1922 number of the *Review* (p. 347). The second volume contains documents relating to the thirty-six Departments from Ain to Isère, except those of the Aisne and the Ardennes, which, throughout the war, remained in the zone of operations, or were occupied by the enemy. For each Department industries are classified on the principles adopted by the *Statistique générale de la France*. The majority of the documents have reference to the hide and skin, clothing, metal, and building industries.

SPAIN

MINISTÈRES DU TRAVAIL ET DE L'INTÉRIEUR: *Rapports au sujet du mémoire de l'Union General de Trabajadores*. 28 pp. Madrid, Ernesto Giménez Moreno. 1921.

These two reports, of the Ministry of Labour and of the Ministry of the Interior in Spain, are published in French with a view to an international circulation. The report of the Ministry of Labour describes the Government's mediation in recent industrial conflicts, such as the strikes at Penarroya and Rio Tinto, in the building trade at Madrid, of the miners in Asturias, and of metal workers at Barcelona.

The report of the Ministry of the Interior is intended as a refutation of the statements of the *Union General de Trabajadores* before the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, in the course of which certain charges were made against the Government's treatment of constitutional and labour rights.

UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF EDUCATION: *Report of the Commissioner of Education for the year ended 30 June 1921*. 42 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

The record of the United States Bureau of Education for the year 1920-1921 is one of an ever-growing demand for its services in the face of financial restriction and retrenchment. The Commissioner asks for much larger appropriations for the work of the Bureau, failing which he recommends the Department of the Interior seriously to reconsider the advisability of maintaining the Bureau at all "on the present penurious basis". He maintains that the attempt to economise by making small appropriations to the Bureau has merely been wasteful. On the other hand, he calls attention to the high percentage of illiteracy in the country, the need of health and hygiene education, the importance of Americanising the foreign-born elements in the population, and the critical state of the rural schools, "which constitute more than two-thirds of the schools of the United States" and are in imminent danger of breakdown for lack of financial means.

— *State Laws and Regulations governing Teachers' Certificates*, by Katherine M. Cook; *Bulletin* 1921 No. 2'. 244 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. 25 cents.

A useful comparative tabulation of the regulations governing the issue, duration, and scope of certificates for elementary and secondary school teachers, and the educational and professional qualifications required.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

ARNOU, André: *La participation des travailleurs à la gestion des entreprises: La collaboration ouvrière*. viii + 213 pp. Paris, Action populaire. 15 francs.

In the first half of this work, the author "has tried to set forth the views held by various sections of society on workers' participation in industrial management. He has classified and arranged theories which are very contradictory and often indefinite . . . and has catalogued working-class plans for collaboration according to whether they refer to collaboration in national government, in control of industry, or in the more restricted sphere of works management". The latter half is devoted to a review of "the principal cases where workers' participation in management has been realised in the great industrial countries, especially Russia and Germany, which have recently been peculiarly fertile in experiments". Mention is also made of "Bills at present under consideration and of reform programmes enjoying wide public support".

ARTAUD, Adrien: *Finances et bon sens*. 267 pp. Paris, Payot. 1922. 6 francs.

The author sees the solution of the economic and financial crisis in France in an increase of energy and output in production. He advocates the transfer to private enterprise of the monopolies with which the state is burdened, and considers the 8-hour day an obstacle to the recovery of the country. A chapter is devoted to the number and salaries of civil servants. The rest of the book is chiefly occupied by a study of financial problems.

BERNY, André: *Histoire d'une grève*. 31 pp. Paris, Société d'études et d'informations économiques. 1921.

This booklet gives the employers' view of the strike of metal workers of the Lower Rhine (France), which took place in July and August 1921.

BIDEGARAY, Marcel: *Documents de la I. T. F. — La grande grève des cheminots français, mai 1920*. 34 pp. Amsterdam, Fédération internationale des ouvriers du transport. 1921.

The author relates the story of the French railway strike of May 1920, from the standpoint of the worker.

BOISSONNADE, P.: *Le travail dans l'Europe chrétienne du Moyen Age (Ve-XVe siècles)*. 429 pp. Paris, Alcan. 1921. 18 francs.

This work forms part of the *Histoire universelle du Travail* published under the direction of Georges Renard. "I have attempted", says the author in his preface, "in this essay, based on the results of long years of research and on a direct acquaintance with a large number of documents, to produce the first complete, systematic, and exact account of the evolution of labour in mediaeval Christian Europe. An effort has been made not only to set forth the variations in the legal status of persons and land, to which subject historians have generally confined themselves, but above all to replace the working classes in the historical conditions in which they lived, to emphasise the interplay of political and social institutions, and the effects of commerce, industrial and agricultural production, land and distribution of landed and personal property on those economic changes which have led to new forms of labour and have assured to the masses a place in society such as they had never before enjoyed". The work is well documented, and is terminated by a valuable bibliography.

BRECKINRIDGE, S. P.: *New Homes for Old*. 341 pp. New York and London. Harper. 1921.

This book gives a detailed account of the difficulties experienced by immigrants into the United States in adjusting themselves to their new environment and a description of the various immigrant associations and of other agencies helping towards such adjustment. The names and addresses of the principal racial organisations in the United States are given in an appendix.

BRILLARD DE NOUVION, Lucien: *Bibliothèque d'enseignement technique et professionnel*. Paris, Doin. 1922.

An important series on technical education is in course of being published under the editorship of Mr. Brillard de Nouvion, of which several volumes are already to hand. The preparation of the series has been entrusted to French engineers engaged in teaching the technique of important industries and accustomed to dealing with young apprentices and also to other experts familiar with technical training. The purpose of the publication is to put into the hands of elementary teachers a number of simple text books, written by specialists, on some of the subjects of technical education.

BURGESS, Thomas, GILBERT, Charles Kendall, and BRIDGEMAN, Charles Thorley: *Foreigners or Friends; the Churchman's Approach to the Foreign-born and their Children*. 263 pp. New York, Department of Missions and Church Extension. 1921.

The aim of this book is to point out to the members of the Episcopal Church the practical means of bringing into closer relationship the immigrant population and those citizens who realise their duty to the newcomers in the country. The problem of Americanisation is presented in its moral and religious aspect, and solution is looked for rather from voluntary effort than from any legal or administrative mechanism.

After glancing at the difficulties which beset the newly arrived immigrant, the authors cursorily describe the characteristics of the different races who contribute immigrants, and indicate the gravity and diversity of the questions arising from the contact with each of them. They go on to explain the practical measures which must be taken in order to convert the newcomers into good

citizens and good Christians—two terms which they regard as of almost equal value. These measures rely mainly on personal contact, real collaboration, and respect for the ethnic dignity of the immigrant. Each chapter contains a bibliography of recent technical works, propaganda, fiction, and works on the race history of each group, which it is thought may stimulate the interest of both the immigrant and the citizen.

COMMISSION CENTRALE D'AIDE AUX CHÔMEURS (Genève): *Résumé du rapport présidentiel sur l'activité de la commission*. 14 pp. Geneva, Jarrys. 1921.

UNION SYNDICALE SUISSE: *Guide à l'usage des chômeurs*. 61 pp. Berne.

The first booklet contains information on the work of the Geneva unemployment committee. It discusses the organisation of enquiries, the management and distribution of relief, the income and expenditure of the committee, the appointment of a subcommittee on providing employment, the women's sewing workroom, and propaganda.

The second little handbook contains the text of the various Decrees and regulations on the system of unemployment allowances at present in force in Switzerland. The text is accompanied by a precise and clearly written commentary. An edition in German has also been published.

CONNOLLY, James: *Labour in Ireland*. xxxviii+346. pp. Dublin and London, Maunsel. 1920.

"Labour in Irish History", the first part of this book, is a history from the standpoint of the peasant and the worker. The history of Ireland is presented as the history of a bad system of landownership and its far-reaching consequences. The author contends that Irish leaders in the past confined their attention to political abuses and neglected the far more serious economic grievances arising from the unrestrained exploitation of the peasants. Indeed, they consistently opposed any curtailment of the powers of landowners. They had no sympathy for industrial workers and were actively hostile to the early trade unions. The consequence—that the social reconstruction of Ireland can only be achieved by the working class—is worked out in "The Re-conquest of Ireland", which forms the second half of the book. Accounts are given of some Irish pioneers in socialism and of the beginnings of trade unionism and co-operation in Ireland.

GONNARD, René: *Histoire des doctrines économiques de Platon à Quesnay*. 293 pp. Paris, Nouvelle Librairie nationale. 1921. 10 francs.

The writer explains first of all the economic doctrines of antiquity, and brings out the two characteristics of Graeco-Roman thought, the socialist tradition of the Socratics (Plato) and the individualist tradition of the Latin jurists. He goes on to describe the tendencies of mediaeval economics, with particular reference to property, labour and its remuneration, capital and interest, exchange, money, and population. He passes then to the study of mercantilism; he defines this doctrine, traces its origin, and shows the different forms which it assumed in Spain, Italy, France, England, and Holland. The last chapters are devoted to the forerunners of Liberalism, the neo-mercantilist Cantillon receiving special mention.

GUIRAUD, Gaston, MOREL, Eugène, et DUMOULIN, Georges: *La grève du textile dans le nord*. 157 pp. Paris, Cercles d'études et d'action syndicales de Paris et de Lille. 2 francs.

This is an account, from the workers' point of view, of the strike lasting two and a half months (16 August to 1 November 1921) in the textile industry in the north of France. The object of the authors is to show that the strike was purely non-political in character, and was conducted in a calm and orderly fashion. They demonstrate that the action of the extremists had an unfortunate influence on the issue of the conflict.

HALL, F.: *The League of Nations and its Co-operative Implications*. Second edition. 8 pp. Manchester, Co-operative Union Ltd. 1921.

To the author's mind, in order to achieve peace, justice, and security, both in national life and in international relationships, the universal application of co-operative principles will have to replace the spirit of individualism and competition. If the peace of the world is to be maintained, trade must be conducted on co-operative lines and inspired by the idea of mutual service, i. e. not as a means of helping one country to outstrip another, but as a means of enriching each through the co-operation of all.

HIGH, Stanley: *China's Place in the Sun*. xxix+212 pp. New York, Macmillan. 1922.

The author has travelled widely in China recently, and in the present volume he reviews the development of China since the war. He is particularly concerned with China as a market for American goods. He emphasises, however, that the rôle of America must be that of missionary and educator, as well as that of trader. We are reminded of the great achievements of China's civilisation in the past, and a survey of her human and material resources convinces us of her immense potentialities in the future. China is gradually emerging to national consciousness, a process in which the student movement is a most important factor. Working-class consciousness too is beginning to express itself, in the form of trade unions (which must be distinguished from the ancient guilds) of railway workers and miners. They are non-political in character and aim particularly at education and increase of wages.

KEYNES, John Maynard: *a Revision of the Treaty*. 233 pp. London, Macmillan. 1922.

Mr. Keynes's book is a sequel to his *Economic Consequences of the Peace*, and gives such corrections and additions as recent events have rendered necessary, together with reflections on the present international situation. The questions discussed are of importance to the workers, and closer attention is now being paid by labour organisations to problems affecting the foreign exchanges and international economics generally. In an historical sketch of the various meetings of the Premiers of the Allied Powers during the last two years, the continuous diminution of the claims on Germany is indicated, and the writer is of opinion that the existing agreement (the London Settlement of May 1921) cannot be regarded as a permanent solution, but, like all its predecessors, is bound to need amendment.

Mr. Keynes states that the catastrophe predicted in his earlier book as a consequence of the demands on Germany has not occurred, partly because those demands have undergone considerable modification and partly because of the patience of the common people of Europe.

The author's main proposals for the revision of the Treaty are as follows: (1) Great Britain and, if possible, the United States, to cancel all the debts owing them from the Governments of Continental Europe, and to waive their claims to any share of German Reparation; (2) Germany to pay 1,260 million gold marks per annum for thirty years, and this annual payment to be assigned in shares of 1,080 million gold marks to France, and 180 million to Belgium; (3) Germany to hold a lump sum of 1,000 million gold marks to be available as credits for the restoration of the financial situation in Poland and Austria; (4) Allied troops to be withdrawn altogether from German territory and all rights of invasion waived, except by leave of a majority vote of the League of Nations; but in return the British Empire and the United States should guarantee to France and Belgium all reasonable assistance, short of warfare, in securing satisfaction for their reduced claims, while Germany should guarantee the complete demilitarisation of her territory west of the Rhine.

The book is completed by a list of documents relating to reparation claims on Germany.

MADAY, André de : *La Charte internationale du travail*. 122 pp. Paris, Rieder. 1921. 3 francs.

"We know what our fathers did not know, that the freedom of labour which puts capitalist and proletarian on the same footing necessitates a corrective, labour legislation." In his introduction, Mr. de Maday traces rapidly the development of national labour legislation and indicates that the necessities which urged forward that development are of precisely similar nature to those that rendered international labour legislation not only desirable but inevitable. He outlines the history of the idea and notes the labours of those who have striven for its realisation, from Robert Owen and Blanqui down to the International Association for Labour Legislation of our own times. The rest of the book deals with the origin and history of the Labour Part of the Peace Treaties and with the International Labour Organisation and its work.

Among the most interesting features of the work are the allusions to, and citations of, the opinions of prominent socialists and leaders of organised labour upon the "Charter", the Organisation, and the Conference. The text of the "Charter" is given in an appendix.

MASS, Otto: *A Plea and a Plan for the effective Organisation of American Clerks and Professional Employees. A Study in three Parts. Part 1*. 52 pp. New York, Masmalga Service. 1921.

The principal contents of the first part of this study are brief reviews of the situation of organisations of intellectual workers in America, Australasia, and Europe. Observations are made on the conditions contributing to their success or failure in various countries. For example, it is noticed that the legally recognised system of apprenticeship of clerks in Germany has been the source of great strength to unions of commercial employees, in that it is rendered difficult to improvise substitute labour. The high development of the organisations of intellectual workers in Australasia has been assisted by the sympathy and help given by the manual workers, social differences between the two classes being less pronounced than in the United States. In the author's opinion, public servants are more easily organised than commercial employees, but he holds that the former will not achieve much success, in spite of aid from the manual workers, unless the commercial employees co-operate by themselves organising. An interesting account is given of the work of the *Deutschnationaler Handlungsgehilfen-Verband*.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD: *The Unemployment Problem*. Research Report No. 43. vii+91 pp. New York, Century Co. Nov. 1921.

This is a comprehensive but condensed survey of the unemployment problem in the United States. As far as the inadequate statistics available allow, a general picture is presented of the extent and character of unemployment among wage-earners in manufacturing and mechanical industries. There is a detailed analysis of the causes of unemployment, internal causes arising from conditions within individual factories, including such factors as strikes, faulty management, and displacement of labour by machinery, and external causes, some of economic origin, such as seasonal variations and business depressions, others of political origin, such as immigration policy. Measures are then suggested for reducing the effects of each of the causes previously analysed. The report is well equipped with charts and tables.

Apart from the present unprecedented number of unemployed—according to one estimate it exceeded five million in July 1921—the data indicate that even in normal times there are about 1,800,000 out of work, which means that the average industrial wage-earner loses 42 days per annum. Here is therefore a pressing problem demanding for its solution scientific study founded on more extensive statistical information than at present exists.

— *Changes in the Cost of Living, July 1914 — November 1921*. Research Report No. 44. viii+30 pp. New York, Century Co. Dec. 1921.

This is the eleventh of the series of reports on changes in the cost of living, the first of which was issued in June 1918, subsequent reports appearing in

March, July, and November of each year. The present report shows conditions in November 1921, as compared with the month of July in 1914, 1920, and 1921. The statistics cover food, rent, clothing, fuel and light, sundries, and the complete budget. There is a chart of the cost of living index numbers from July 1914 to November 1921, from which it appears that the maximum increase upon the figures of July 1914 was 104.5 per cent. in July 1920. In July 1921 the increase had fallen to 63 per cent., but from then on to November 1921 it did not alter appreciably.

— *Pour la culture prolétarienne par l'écrit.* 31 pp. Paris, Librairie du Travail. 1922.

The view of the author of this pamphlet is that the literature of advanced political thought is not sufficiently read in France. He enumerates the reasons for this state of affairs, and suggests for a remedy the creation of a "diffusion centre", the organisation and operation of which he describes in detail.

SCHATZ, Albert: *L'entreprise gouvernementale et son administration.* With a preface by Henri FAYOL. 264 pp. Paris, Grasset. 1922.

Mr. Henri Schatz begins by defining the aim of government activity, which is, not to produce nor to regulate, but to govern, i. e. to ensure security at home and abroad, to defend the general interests, and to manage the finances of the country. His analysis of the mechanism of government in France is intended to prove that the state, "overloaded with too many different functions, performs them badly and is perforce led to sacrifice the most essential of all, namely, that of government". The first step in reform must therefore be to relieve the state of its burden. Mr. Schatz considers the state to be hopelessly unsuited for carrying on production, and examines two proposals for divesting it of its productive functions: (1) that put forward by the Economic Labour Council for a system of nationalised industry, which he judges unworkable, and (2) that put forward by Mr. R. Favareille for a system of functional autonomy and responsibility, which he believes to be approximately correct. Mr. Schatz also considers that the state is ill situated for regulating economic activity, and should leave this duty to national bodies, such as trade unions, co-operative societies, etc., and international bodies, such as the International Labour Office.

SÉE, Henri: *Esquisse d'une histoire du régime agraire en Europe aux XVIII^e et XIX^e siècles.* 276 pp. Paris, Giard. 1921. 15 francs.

"In this work", says the author, "my intention has been to indicate the main features of a comparative history of landed property, systems of land tenure, and the condition of the agricultural population in Europe in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. No attempt has been made, however, to study the land tenure of each separate country, but a selection has been made of the principal types most characteristic of different forms of tenure". The book is in two parts; the first examines various types of European land tenure; the second deals with the liberation of the peasant at the end of the eighteenth and during the nineteenth centuries.

UNION DES INDUSTRIES MÉTALLURGIQUES ET MINIÈRES DE LA CONSTRUCTION MÉCANIQUE, ÉLECTRIQUE ET MÉTALLIQUE, ET DES INDUSTRIES S'Y RATTACHANT: *Conséquences de la journée de huit heures dans les industries métallurgiques et mécaniques.* 11 pp. Paris, 1921.

This pamphlet investigates the consequences, direct and indirect, of the 8-hour day in a number of works, including those which had furnaces in continuous blast, on the basis of information gathered from some of the employers members of the Association. The conclusion reached is that the 8-hour Act has markedly raised production costs, besides having an ill effect on industrial processes generally, more especially on the quality of manufactures.

VALOIS, Georges : *L'économie nouvelle*. (Ouvrage couronné par l'Académie française.) 192 pp. Paris, Nouvelle Librairie nationale. 1920. 4 francs.

In the view of the author the social conflicts of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries are to be explained, not, as Marx would have it, by the class war, but by two opposing conceptions of human nature, the one optimist and the other pessimist, which dispute for mastery in the ordering of the world. Liberal economics are founded on false ideas of value, supply and demand, and competition. Marx added the further errors of the theories of surplus value and the class war, which form the basis of present-day socialist economics. These conceptions the author considers obsolete and would substitute the principle of "realist economics"; he argues that "work being the line of greatest resistance, and the law of human nature being to follow the line of least resistance, work is a feature of the social hierarchy, produced by the constraint of one man by another". From these premises the author deduces "realist" theories of value, property, profit, production, and price, and concludes that a necessary condition of economic progress is "the régime of mutual constraint". The latter part of the book treats of various contemporary problems in economics, such as intellectualisation of effort, scientific organisation and freedom from restraint in production, necessity of an employing class, decay of socialism, the dangers of economic imperialism, the idealism of the striker, collaboration of the classes, the dangers of a general combination of employers. The author sees the solution of current difficulties in the organisation of a National Federation for Production, the scheme of which he sketches.

— *La monnaie saine tuera la vie chère*. 127 pp. Paris, Nouvelle Librairie nationale, 1920. 4 francs.

The author studies the relations which exist between the high cost of living and the depreciation of currency. He endeavours to determine the part played by artificial inflation and deflation, points out the risks which these processes entail, and seeks a means of eliminating them. An investigation of the currency problem leads him to think that the return to the gold standard is urgently necessary. An appendix contains a scheme for "the settlement of international transactions in gold through an international issuing body", communicated by Mr. Delacroix, Prime Minister of Belgium in 1920.

VALOIS, Georges et COQUELLE, Georges : *Intelligence et production ; la nouvelle organisation économique de la France*. 268 pp. Paris, Nouvelle Librairie nationale. 1920. 7 francs.

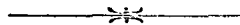
This book contains the authors' reflexions "on labour, its organisation, object, conditions, and remuneration". A large number of ideas—economic, social, political, and mystical—are discussed. The mastery of mind over facts is the theme of the preface. The introduction contains an exposition of the theory of the class war, and demonstrates the danger of this dogma. The first part includes a mass of mixed and detailed comment on the principal labour organisations in France, such as employers' associations, societies of technical and of intellectual workers, of salaried employees and of manual workers, agricultural associations, revolutionary groups, and trade bodies. In the second part is set out the programme of a new economic organisation, "The French Confederation of Intelligence and Production" (C. I. P. F.). The third part is a review of various general problems under the following headings : Economic Warfare, the Hour of Liberation, Means of Economic Creation, Co-operative Societies, Trusts, Remuneration of Labour, the Share of Catholics in the New Organisation, Socialists in the Service of Devastating Militarism, and finally a chapter entitled : "Why we work". An appendix contains a series of documents on the new economic organisation.

WEA, Eugène: *Human Engineering. A Study of the Management of Human Forces in Industry.* xx+378 pp. New York and London, Appleton. 1921.

By human engineering is meant the application of the principles of social psychology (as developed by Le Bon and others) in industry with the object of rendering production as efficient as possible, in the widest sense of that term. The whole art of human engineering is to enlist in the service of production the fullest co-operation of every worker. To secure that co-operation appeal must be made to every side of human nature—physical, mental and moral—through suitable stimuli which will furnish the desired reactions. The surplus redounding from increased efficiency is to be equitably divided between capital and labour. This is not merely an economic system; on the contrary the informing idea of the book is that that alone gives value to life which conduces to self-realisation and progress.

The author offers detailed suggestions for the composition and operation of the various works committees which are to ensure co-operation between management and labour. Some diagrams illustrate the analogy between the principles of human engineering and the simple laws of mechanics.

While human engineering as such is its subject matter, the first half of the book is occupied with a sketch of the psychological evolution of industry and a review of present conditions in England and the United States.



PUBLICATIONS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE

I. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR REVIEW (*Monthly*).

The *International Labour Review* treats of all phases of labour and industry so far as they concern labour. Articles contributed by well-known publicists, economists, employers, and workers on subjects of immediate importance constitute a special feature. The body of the Review is made up of text matter and statistical tables prepared in the International Labour Office dealing with prices, cost of living, unemployment, wages and hours of labour, industrial hygiene and accidents, activities of employers' and workers' organisations, migration, co-operation, education in relation to employment, agricultural problems, and all other subjects connected with labour in the broadest sense. Official publications on labour are noted and the more important are summarised. A bibliography of literature relating to labour in all languages is carried each month. The *Review* has appeared since January 1921 in both English and French.

II. OFFICIAL BULLETIN (*Weekly*).

The *Bulletin* is the official journal of the Office. It contains the texts of official documents, reports of meetings of the Governing Body and the various International Commissions (on unemployment, emigration, etc.), as well as general information with regard to the progress of the work of the Office. It also contains particulars with regard to the action taken by the different nations, Members of the International Labour Organisation, to give effect to the decisions of the Annual Conference. The *Bulletin* has appeared regularly in English and in French since 8 September, and also in German since 20 October 1920.

III. INDUSTRIAL AND LABOUR INFORMATION (*Weekly*).

Industrial and Labour Information contains brief notes on important current events relating to labour and industry. A special supplement on Russian conditions is issued in connection with it every two weeks. The supplement is devoted to general information concerning labour conditions, transport, food supply, finance and general economic conditions in Russia. It consists of translations and summaries from the Russian papers at the disposal of the International Labour Office, and of the reports of relief organisations and other similar bodies.

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VI. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR DIRECTORY.

The *International Labour Directory* is published annually. It contains information with regard to organisations both official and unofficial, which deal with industrial and labour matters. It consists of a *Directory of the*

League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation, a directory of Government Departments and Bureaux in the various countries concerned with labour matters, a directory of the principal employers', workers' and co-operative organisations in each country and also of miscellaneous organisations engaged in work related to labour. The first issue of the Directory appeared in 1921.

VII. REPORTS OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR CONFERENCE.

These Reports comprise : (a) Reports prepared by the International Labour Office for the Annual Conference ; (b) Verbatim Reports of the proceedings of the Conference ; (c) The official texts of the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the Conference.

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Under this heading are included all publications which do not fall into any of the categories mentioned above. Such publications comprise, for example, the Constitution and Rules of the International Labour Organisation, as well as the series devoted to explaining the functions and activities of the Organisation and the International Labour Office.

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