



INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Trade Union Organisations

IMPORTANT features of the trade union movement as noted this month have been the drift toward industrial unionism, further division within the ranks of the French movement, and the definition of quite distinct attitudes toward trade unionism on the part of government employees in New Zealand and Germany. Finland has decided to remain independent of either of the trade union Internationals. The result of the ballot which is just now going on in Norway on the question of affiliation to an international federation will no doubt give an indication of the tendency of the reorganisation which is to take place next year ⁽¹⁾. In Australia and New Zealand labour is organising itself on a "one big union" basis, and in the United States the Chicago Federation of Labour has recommended the re-organisation of American workers in industrial unions. In Great Britain also the movement to unify and strengthen the organisation of transport workers, initiated at the beginning of the year by the formation of a great industrial union of inland water transport and vehicle workers, is to be completed by an alliance of the three railwaymen's unions to the National Transport Workers' Federation.

The split which has occurred in the French Postal Federation exemplifies the division in French trade unionism on the question whether the French labour movement shall identify itself with the aims of the Moscow International or with those of the Amsterdam International. New Zealand postal workers have decided to affiliate with the New Zealand Alliance of Labour, thereby implying that their position as servants of the state does not prevent their pursuing tactics which are normal for trade unionists who work for private employers. A majority of German civil servants, on the other hand, have adopted the view that the status of the civil servant implies a special obligation, and precludes his taking part in wage strikes.

INTERNATIONAL POLICY

The Finnish Federation of Trade Unions (*Suomen Ammattijärjestö*) early last year decided by ballot to withdraw from the Amsterdam International ⁽²⁾. In October the Saw Mill, Transport, Factory, and General Workers' Union, with a membership of 22,000, voted in favour of joining the Moscow International, and at the same time asked the Federation to ballot a second time on the question of affiliation to an international organisation ⁽³⁾. The Executive Committee decided

⁽¹⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, p. 932.

⁽²⁾ *Ibid.*, Vol. II, No. 1, April 1921, p. 18.

⁽³⁾ *Ibid.*, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, pp. 269-270.

that a ballot should be taken in February this year. Out of a membership which was 48,589 at the end of 1921, only 18,276 or 37 per cent. took part in the ballot, and of these about 12,000 voted in favour of joining the Moscow International and nearly 6,000 against. The Executive Committee of the Federation, meeting on 10 April, determined that, in view of the small number of votes cast, the affiliation of the Federation to the Moscow International should be indefinitely postponed.

The Norwegian Confederation of Labour (*Arbeidernes Faglige Landsorganisation i Norge*) is also in doubt whether it should remain in the International Federation of Trade Unions. Its Executive Committee recommended on 1 April by 9 votes to 4 that it should withdraw. Apparently the metal, wood, and general factory workers and the moulders favour the Moscow International. If the Confederation should eventually change its allegiance, complications might arise in the relations of the various Norwegian craft federations with the respective international secretariats to which they are affiliated. The ballot on the question of affiliation was taking place in May.

CHRISTIAN UNIONS

From 29 July to 3 August 1922 there will be held at Luxemburg an international labour congress, convened by the International Catholic League (*Ligue internationale catholique*). It is intended to found a Catholic international mutual insurance organisation, a Catholic journal and a central office for facilitating international relations of Catholic organisations.

The National Christian Federation of Commercial Employees (*Deutschnationaler Handlungsgehilfenverband*), which had a membership in 1921 of 264,367 (all men) is creating a "German Labour Fund" (*Kapitalschatz für deutsche Arbeit*) to be used as "an economic weapon in the hands of the trade union, but to be managed on capitalistic lines". The fund is to be raised by a loan of 50 million marks, subscribed in shares from 100 to 5,000 marks in value. Security for the loan is provided by the whole property of the union, which controls the savings-deposits of its members, amounting to 40 million marks, and owns fixed capital whose selling value is at least 40 or 50 million marks. The union further owns almost all the shares of the Hanseatic Publishing Institute at Hamburg, whose assets are estimated at 15 million marks. In addition the union is chief shareholder in a building society which proposes to build houses for workers during the present year to the value of 700 million marks, and is interested in the journal of the Christian trade unions (*Der Deutsche*) and in the German People's Bank (*Deutsche Volksbank*), which already controls several hundred million marks.

INDUSTRIAL UNION MOVEMENT

Australia

On 25 February the "One Big Union" of Australia, officially entitled the *Australasian Workers' Union*, was formally inaugurated. It will take the place of the Australian Workers' Union, but will continue the policy of industrial unionism on a more comprehensive plan. The new union has at present five departments in operation. Three of these—agriculture, building, and manufacture—already existed in the Australian Workers' Union, while the new departments of mining and

transport will be created from the Coal and Shale Employees' Federation and the Transport Workers' Federation, which are part of the new union. The total membership of the organisation is almost 200,000. National councils for each department and State councils will be set up, and from these again will be formed the General Council. No trade union will be forced to join the "One Big Union", but all will be circularised and invited to come in.

The official constitution of the "One Big Union" declares that "the struggle must continue until capitalism is abolished. Capitalism can only be abolished by the workers uniting in one class-conscious economic organisation to take and hold the means of production, distribution, and exchange by revolutionary, industrial, and political action". Among the objects of the Union are: abolition of sectional contracts with employers; improvement of conditions of work and standard of living; education of unionists with a view to creating in place of capitalism a system of social ownership of the means of production, distribution, and exchange, with control by the workers in their respective industries.

New Zealand

In New Zealand the *Alliance of Labour*, the principal workers' organisation, has aims similar to those of the Australasian Workers' Union. As stated recently by its secretary, its aims are to form "One Big Union", to include the whole working class in each industry, and to place the workers in control of industry. The organisation is to provide machinery for effecting a general stoppage of work, "which is a bludgeon of the One Big Union against society".

United States

On 19 March the *Chicago Federation of Labour*, representing 325,000 workers, adopted a resolution in favour of the amalgamation of craft unions in the various industries, so that there should ultimately remain only one union in each industry. The resolution was as follows:

Whereas the employers throughout the nation have solidly united, being bound together by a solidarity of interest and organisation which leaves no room for divided action or desertions, and, moreover, they are supported by the government, the courts, and the press in any union-smashing undertaking they engage in, and

Whereas they are carrying on a vicious attack upon the Labour Movement, singling out various unions and forcing them to engage in a bitter struggle for self-preservation, and

Whereas these unions, because they are divided against themselves along trade lines and are thus unable to make united resistance against the employers, constantly suffer defeat after defeat, with heavy losses in membership and serious lowering of the workers' standards of living and working conditions, and

Whereas the only solution for the situation is the development of a united front by the workers through the amalgamation of the various trade unions so that there will remain only one union for each industry, therefore be it

Resolved: That we, the Chicago Federation of Labour, in regular meeting, call upon the American Federation of Labour to take the necessary action toward bringing about the required solidarity within the ranks of organised labour, and that as a first step in this direction the various international unions be called into conference for the purpose of arranging to amalgamate all the unions in the respective industries into single organisations, each of which shall cover an industry.

Mr. Gompers, addressing the Chicago Federation on 12 April, stated that behind the resolution was "the propaganda of a radical revolution to overthrow the constitution of the United States", and that Mr. W. Z. Foster, the leader of the 1918 steel strike, was the instigator of the movement. On 1 May a statement by Mr. Gompers was published, to the effect that "W. Z. Foster . . . was building a great secret machine to undermine the American labour movement and turn it over to the Red International". He is accused of harbouring so radical a notion as that of setting up "One Big Union" in the United States. He is supposed to be organising "a thousand secret agents in a thousand communities". Mr. Foster has replied that the secret agents are nothing more than an educational organisation intended to strengthen the trade unions and give them a more militant philosophy.

TRANSPORT WORKERS

At the meeting of the General Council of the *International Transport Workers' Federation* held at Stockholm from 3 to 6 April, a resolution was passed protesting against reactionary tendencies to nullify the achievement of many years' effort to raise the standard of living of workers, and, in particular, against all attempts to reduce wages and prolong hours. The General Council further appealed to organised workers to start an international campaign for the withdrawal of all claims for indemnities (as distinct from reparations), for cancellation of war debts, stabilisation of currencies, abolition of trade restrictions of all kinds, and disarmament.

In March 1922 an international conference of transport workers' unions in the states interested in the navigation of the Danube was held at Vienna, the following countries being represented: Germany, Czechoslovakia, Austria, and Hungary. The object of the conference was to secure joint action in future negotiations concerning wages. The conditions of employment of workmen engaged in the traffic on the Danube have hitherto been regulated by agreements between the Austrian and German unions on one side and the navigation companies on the other. As, however, new companies have been formed in other states, and the Austrian and German unions would have no influence upon the conditions of work of the men employed by those companies, it appeared necessary to establish co-operation with all the unions of transport workers existing in the states in question. The Conference dealt with the improvement of trade union organisation and the means of establishing joint action in wage negotiations.

A scheme to co-ordinate the activities of the railwaymen's and transport workers' unions in Great Britain was approved in April by the various executives concerned, and is being submitted for ratification to the annual conferences of the unions, which take place in May, June, and July. The National Union of Railwaymen, the Associated Society of Locomotive Engineers and Firemen, and the Railway Clerks' Association are to affiliate themselves to the *National Transport Workers' Federation*. It is estimated that the total membership of the Federation will be about 1,100,000, the transport workers accounting for at least 400,000 and the three railway unions for 700,000. It should be recalled that at the beginning of the year many of the biggest unions in the Federation amalgamated to form the Transport and General Workers' Union (4). Thus, if the present scheme should be

(4) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 4, April 1922, p. 593.

ratified, all the organised workers in the inland transport industry (railways, roads, docks, waterways) and many of the organised unskilled factory workers will be brought under the control of a single compact federation of powerful unions.

CIVIL SERVANTS

The second Congress of the *International Union of Postal Workers* will take place at Berlin from 17 to 22 August next. The Russian postal workers' union has asked to be represented. The International Union of Postal Workers itself intends to be represented at the Congress of the Universal Postal Union and the International Telegraphic Union.

The three organisations of postal workers which constitute the French Postal Federation (*Fédération nationale des Postes et Télégraphes*) each held their congresses in Paris in the latter part of April, after which the Postal Federation itself met⁽⁵⁾. The three unions were those of the postal officials, postmen, and manual workers employed in the maintenance of telegraph and telephone lines. The most important question on the agenda of each of these congresses was that of general trade union policy, and both the Federation and the unions had to decide whether they would adhere to the General Confederation of Labour (*Confédération générale du Travail*) or to the new General Confederation of United Labour (*Confédération générale du Travail unitaire*). Already in the middle of January the executive committee of the postmen's union had declared itself in favour of adherence to the General Confederation of United Labour, while the committee of manual workers decided to remain neutral until their congress should decide the issue in April. The postal officials, however, maintained their allegiance to the regular Confederation. The result of the April congresses of the three unions was that each of them split: the majority of the postmen and manual workers and the minority of the postal officials voted for adherence to the General Confederation of United Labour. The three portions which continue faithful to the regular Confederation re-constituted the old Postal Federation under the title of General Federation of Trade Unions of Postal Employees (*Union générale des ouvriers des services techniques des P. T. T.*). The other three portions have also formed a federation, which is, however, only provisional, as it is intended to amalgamate all three shortly into a single union containing all classes of postal workers.

The Federation of Associations of German Civil Servants (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*) held its third Congress in Berlin from 6 to 8 April 1922. The principal matter of discussion was whether civil servants were justified in using the strike weapon. The president of the Federation enunciated the principle that the strike should only be used in defence of the fundamental rights of civil servants or in securing their existence. All wage strikes were incompatible with the status of civil servants. Most of the civil servants' unions agreed with this principle. Opposition was, however, expressed by the unions of railway officials, technicians, law officials, and postal servants; in their view it was impossible

⁽⁵⁾ For the previous congress of French postal workers, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 3, Sept. 1921, p. 49.

to distinguish between a wage strike and a so-called strike for existence. The railway officials (*Reichsgewerkschaft deutscher Eisenbahnbeamter*) strongly supported the right to strike and threatened to leave the Federation. The fact that the president was re-elected by 278 votes to 149 showed that he had the support of the majority of the Federation.

In New Zealand the *Post and Telegraph Officers' Association* decided on 5 April, by a majority of 2,406 in a total vote of 6,390, to affiliate with the Alliance of Labour. The older members of the staff oppose the step on the principle that civil servants should not belong to such an organisation as the Alliance of Labour, and several hundreds of them have already resigned from the Association.

The civil servants of the Canadian Federal Government at Ottawa have been chartered as a Federal trade union by the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada under the name of the *Associated Federal Employees of Canada*. This organisation has been given jurisdiction throughout Canada over all Federal Government civil servants not eligible for membership in other recognised unions (*).

TEXTILE WORKERS IN SCANDINAVIA AND FINLAND

At a general conference of representatives of the textile workers of Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland, it was decided to renew the relations which were interrupted by the war. A general conference of the textile workers of these countries will be held at Stockholm in July this year, when methods of co-operation will be settled. The question of mutual economic support in case of extensive labour disputes will also be discussed. The textile workers of Norway organised in the Norwegian Factory and General Workers' Union have for a long time been planning to set up a union of their own; at the joint meeting measures to that effect will be taken. With this movement of Scandinavian textile workers to establish close relations with each other should be compared the recent action of Scandinavian commercial employees and of foremen tending in the same direction (?). Already by the end of last year alliances covering the three Scandinavian countries had been formed for the following groups of workers: railwaymen (with a total membership of 67,000), policemen, paper workers, shoemakers, bakers, gardeners, metal workers, transport workers, seamen, and electricians.

ORIENTAL SEAMEN IN AMERICAN UNION

The *International Seamen's Union of America* has announced that Japanese and Chinese seamen are to be admitted to membership in the Union and its affiliated organisations, which will establish branch unions in the principal seaports of Japan and China, and immediately launch a campaign for the organisation of Oriental seamen. This is said to be the first occasion on which a union affiliated to the American Federation of Labour has admitted Orientals, although they have frequently applied for membership.

(*) In this connection, compare the decision of the French Council of State on 17 Jan. 1922 to the effect that no organisation of civil servants can claim to be a trade union as defined by law. See *INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. I, No. 5, 3 Feb. 1922, pp. 38-39.

(?) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, pp. 759-760.

Employers' Organisations

THE activities of a number of employers' associations have lately been directed towards the organisation of apprenticeship and technical training. This tendency is particularly noticeable in the United States, and may arise, at least in part, from the recollection of the shortage of skilled labour during the war and after-war period of expansion, partly, also, from an expectation of an early revival in business prosperity. The Metal Trades Association and the New York Building Congress in the United States, and the French chambers of commerce, are among the associations whose activities in this direction are briefly reviewed.

The contention that hours of work must conform to economic exigencies and that costs must be reduced in order to meet international competition are two general trends of opinion also frequently exemplified in the following notes.

Belgium

On the initiative of the Minister for Foreign Affairs, a national congress was held in Brussels on 28 to 30 April 1922 to discuss measures for the amelioration of the Belgian export trade. It was attended by eight hundred delegates, including representatives of industry and labour. A section of the congress, which was appointed to consider the general effect of export trade on the nation as a whole, after hearing the various reports submitted on behalf of employers and workers, issued a report, showing the points on which the section was unanimous and those on which it was impossible to reach an agreement. It was unanimously agreed that the development of export trade was vitally necessary in order to obtain the vast quantities of foodstuffs and raw materials which could not be produced at home; that in order to develop export trade, industrial equipment should be improved and technical education extended; that reciprocal sacrifices must be made by both employers and workers and that an essential condition of the development of export trade was a reduction in costs of production.

The employers maintained that, in addition, temporary modifications must be allowed in the Eight Hour Act in industries where interruptions in the operations and in the expenditure of energy involved make this possible or the conditions of competition demand it. Further, trade unions should co-operate with employers' organisations and place their experience at the disposal of employers for improving the organisation of factories and equipment on scientific lines. Workers' organisations should also co-operate with the unions of other countries and so act that Belgian industry should not suddenly find itself at a disadvantage in labour matters. The conditions laid down by the workers included the retention of the 8-hour day, complete equality between employers and workers in cases of co-operation, and the right to investigate and criticise the operations of foreign trade and the manufacture of commodities intended for export.

Chili

A welfare department has been set up by the *Association of Nitrate Producers* covering almost all the nitrate mines in the country. This is one of the most important industries in the country, employing over

53,000 workers. The new department will study all questions connected with workers' camps, their comfort, cleanliness, etc., and all matters affecting the health and welfare of the workers. It will further encourage education by opening evening classes and education centres. The provision of dispensaries and the free distribution of medicaments is also contemplated.

Czechoslovakia

On 25 April 1922 the Central Committee of the Federation of Czechoslovak Manufacturers (*Ustredni svaz Cechoslovenkych prumyslniku*) met at Prague. Mr. Hodacz, Secretary of the Association, drew attention to the fact that the industrial depression in Czechoslovakia has increased, reports from the Ministry of Social Welfare showing that, whereas in November 1921 only 12,000 unemployed were in receipt of state relief, while 9,000 were being supported by industrial undertakings, the corresponding figures for March 1922 rose to 38,500 and 21,700 respectively. In order to meet the crisis a substantial reduction in wages has been necessary, especially in the mining and metal industries, glass works, textiles, boot and shoe manufactures, and cement works; wages have been reduced from 5 to 15 per cent. in general, and in certain cases in the province of Slovakia, where the crisis is particularly acute and wages unusually high, by as much as 30 per cent. Mr. Hodacz states that a reduction in wages alone will not be sufficient to remedy the critical situation, and that other necessary steps will be a considerable fall in coal prices and transport rates and the abolition of the tax on coal⁽¹⁾.

France

A meeting of presidents of chambers of commerce was held at Paris on 7 March 1922. The meeting discussed at length various apprenticeship schemes, and strongly advocated the principle of the "organisation of apprenticeship by chambers of commerce". A number of chambers of commerce have since expressed opinions on this subject.

The Valenciennes chamber has drawn up a scheme by which chambers of commerce would set up a committee for industrial and technical education consisting of a number of members of the chamber of commerce concerned, an equal number of manufacturers and employers not members of the chamber but nominated by it, and an equal number of persons nominated by the worker electors of the probiviral courts (*conseils de prud'hommes*). The committee thus formed would decide the localities within its district where chambers or councils of crafts (*conseils de métiers*) would appear to be useful. These councils of crafts would organise and supervise courses of technical education.

The Elbeuf chamber of commerce recently passed a resolution to the effect that the "composition of these chambers of crafts should be such as to give the chambers of commerce, which were the real originators of the movement in France, the position which was legitimately theirs". The opinion was also expressed that these chambers of crafts should be free to organise industrial instruction as seemed to them best in the interests of the industries under their jurisdiction, but that their decisions should be subject to appeal. It was also suggested that the partial application of the system should be first tried in certain selected regions or Departments.

The Paris chamber of commerce at its last session adopted a resolu-

(1) See the *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, June 1922, p. 939.

tion in which it decided "to promote the establishment of schools for the preparation of apprentices, to encourage the creation of offices for vocational guidance, to undertake at once in agreement with employers' organisations (*chambres syndicales*) the organisation of apprenticeship, properly so-called, for the purpose of realising by degrees the programme sketched in the report submitted by its apprenticeship committee". The chamber protested against "any legislation which commits the error and injustice of depriving the chambers of commerce of their functions in regard to apprenticeship, and especially their financial functions", and demanded that the Bill on apprenticeship at present before Parliament should be thoroughly revised, and that the chambers of commerce should be officially consulted before any discussion in Parliament took place.

The recently formed Confederation of Artisans (*Confédération générale de l'Artisanat français*), of which mention was made in last month's article, has drawn up the following programme of immediate action, in support of which it intends to work in conjunction with the Artisans' Parliamentary Group :

Legal recognition of artisans.

Amendment of the law with a view to allowing industrial associations to fulfil their economic functions.

Advances by public authorities of the working capital necessary for the operation of auxiliary societies concerned with distribution, credit, and mutual guarantee.

Creation of endowment funds for industrial associations.

Creation, with state aid, of a "Confederal Credit Fund for Artisans".

Extension of the Act of 13 March 1917 concerning mutual guarantee societies for facilitating the grant of credit on security.

Creation of chambers of crafts in accordance with the proposed programme.

Establishment of apprenticeship schools.

Taxation to be related to the productive capacity of artisans and compulsory for all.

Speedy enactment of the Bill modifying the tax on turnover at present before the Senate, with the amendments adopted by the Senatorial Committee of Commerce and Industry.

Revision of the rates of taxation applicable to artisans and the admission of one of their representatives to the permanent Committee.

Legislation requiring the collectors of direct taxes to justify assessments in excess of the average rates allowed for, and granting a period of delay with respect to the total payment during the time it is under discussion.

Enactment before the next parliamentary elections of legislation concerning commercial property.

Legislation on mutual insurance of artisans.

Germany

In a comprehensive report for the year 1921 the Federation of German Employers' Associations (*Vereinigung der deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände*) states that the number of affiliated organisations has increased from 200 in 1920 to 215 in 1921, while the number of subsidiary affiliated organisations has increased from 1,591 to 1,750 during the same period. The Federation is now representative of 100,000 undertakings, employing 8,000,000 workers in all.

Dealing at some length with the Bill concerning hours of work, the Federation expresses the opinion that the Washington Convention on the subject should not be ratified. The Federation is opposed to the

rigid application of the principle of the 8-hour day and demands that it should at least be legally possible to arrange working hours by free agreement so that, without exceeding the statutory 48-hour week, industrial exigencies could more easily be met. It considers that any exemptions from the provisions of the Eight Hour Act decided upon by collective agreements binding an entire industry should take effect irrespective of the recognition or non-recognition of such exemptions by the Act. The Federation also maintains that, in any case, a full 48-hour week should always be worked, and on occasions when shorter hours are worked, on Saturdays and days before holidays, this time should be made up by working longer hours on the other days of the week.

The main activity of the Federation during the year has been in connection with the movement of wages. The expectation that wages might be reduced as a result of the fall in the cost of living index number from April to June 1921 has not been realised, as the abolition of state control of grain in the summer of 1921 made an increase in the cost of living probable. At the end of July the rise in the price of bread, combined with the fall in the mark, led to general increases in the rates of wages fixed by collective agreements. The system of adjusting wages by means of a sliding-scale based on the cost of living was not approved by the Federation. While adhering to the principle of payment by results, a large number of employers had been convinced that the "social wage" system was necessitated by present economic conditions, since married workers, particularly those with several children, were in considerable distress.

At the last Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1921) the Federation accepted an invitation to join the International Organisation of Industrial Employers, whose headquarters are situated in Brussels.

South Africa

At the annual meeting of the *Transvaal Chamber of Mines* at Johannesburg on 27 March the chamber defined the future attitude of the mining industry towards trade unions. It was decided that under no circumstances would recognition be given to the South African Industrial Federation. A number of principles were laid down to govern the policy of the mine owners towards trade unions. These principles stipulate, as a prerequisite to union recognition, that a union must contain in its membership a substantial proportion of the particular class of mine employee which it purports to represent; that persons appointed to official positions in the mines cannot remain or become members of workers' unions; that the constitution of a union must contain proper provision for the holding of a secret ballot of its members before a strike can be declared; and that members of unions must not refuse to work with non-members or countenance a strike in order to enforce unionisation. The chamber also laid down that, in cases where a substantial section of a particular class of mine employees is outside a particular union, such union will not be looked upon as speaking for the whole of the employees in that class, but that the chamber will consider on its merits any point put up by a union and decide whether or not it will deal with that union on that particular point. The chamber will refuse to deal with representatives of unions who have been associated with the "Augmented Executive" of the South African Industrial Federation or with the "Council of Action", nor will it

necessarily recognise as a trade union every organisation which calls itself by that name, as is stated by the chamber, in many cases in order, to disguise political objects.

United States

On 12 April some 400 representatives of trade associations met Mr. Herbert Hoover, Secretary of the Department of Commerce, and other officials of the Department, to discuss measures of co-operation between the Government and the industries of the United States with the object of promoting trade and improving trade practices for the benefit of both business and the public. In his address to the conference Secretary Hoover pointed out that in the re-organisation of the Department of Commerce an endeavour had been made to co-operate with industrial and commercial organisations, agriculture, and labour, in the promotion of marketing abroad, in employment, in transportation, in the elimination of waste and the improvement of industrial technology, in statistical services, and a number of other directions likely to make the Department of greater real service to the public. He stated that to accomplish these aims it was necessary for the Department to be in continual contact with commerce and industry, and that such contact could only be secured through trade and industrial organisations. He held that legitimate trade associations were of vital importance and should be encouraged, but declared that the Department could not establish co-operative relations with associations which maintained certain practices which had been condemned by the courts.

Mr. Hoover made special mention of the so-called "open price associations" which collect data on prices and sales of individual association members and circulate such data to members, together with certain other activities. The exact legal status of these associations under the anti-trust laws was yet to be determined, but the Secretary of Commerce stated that he did not believe that these functions were in the public interest, whether they were in violation of the law or not, and he reminded the conference that the Department of Commerce had laid down the rule nearly a year ago that it could not co-operate with such associations.

The suggestions made during the course of discussion by various representatives of trade associations included proposals —

- to set up a tribunal to decide upon the legality of trade associations and to suppress questionable practices ;

- to repeal the Sherman Anti-Trust Law ;

- to empower the Federal Trade Commission to license and regulate all trade associations and prescribe definitely what such associations might and might not do ;

- to permit trade associations to gather information subject to restriction of law against agreements and understandings in restraint of trade, and subject also to the provision that such information should at the same time be made available alike to producers and consumers.

Practically all the speakers were in agreement as to the desirability of co-operation with the Government. They agreed also that it was undoubtedly demonstrable that the activities of trade associations do result in great savings in cost of production and distribution, and that if trade was to be improved it was necessary to decrease costs still further and eliminate waste in industry.

A supervisory committee of financiers and business men has been formed, to be known as the *National Economic Association*. The

programme of the Association is "to bring to the American people through press, platform, and public exhibits a better understanding of economic questions (taxation, tariff, and European re-adjustment) to the end that sound legislation may be promoted and unsound proposals defeated". The organising committee, which has S. Stanwood Menken, President of the National Security League, as Chairman, and Magnus W. Alexander of the National Industrial Conference Board as Managing Director, includes a number of prominent financiers, business men, and economists.

The convention of the *American Association of Newspaper Publishers* held in New York on April 26 to 28 declared in favour of a further lowering of the cost of production and the elimination of waste. It was stated that publishers generally were in favour of reducing cost of production by securing a larger output from workers rather than by reducing wages. They aimed, therefore, at securing the co-operation of labour to give greater and more efficient returns for the wages paid. They were also in favour of devising some means of attracting and training apprentices to the trades, so that there would be sufficient labour to meet the future demands of the rapidly growing newspaper business. They considered that there was no justification for the 44-hour week in newspaper offices, and it was stated that the full force of the association would continue to be employed against it.

A resolution was adopted in favour of the establishment of an open shop division of the association "under such conditions as will enable it to become a substantial aid to members who desire permanently to operate under open shop conditions, it being definitely understood that this department is under no circumstances to be used as a strike-breaking organisation". The activities of the Committee on Arbitration were endorsed by the convention, which re-affirmed its instructions of last year to negotiate with the various printing unions on the principle that all matters should be subject to arbitration with no restrictions. It was stated that all the unions except the printers' had agreed to form new arbitration agreements on this basis and that negotiations were going on in the hope that the matters of difference with the printers might also be adjusted.

At the meeting of the stockholders of the *United States Steel Corporation* held on 17 April Judge Gary, Chairman of the Board of Directors, reported that between October 1920 and March 1922 the Corporation had reduced the percentage of men working a 12-hour day from 32 to 14 per cent. He stated that these fourteen per cent. were engaged on continuous processes where it was necessary to keep the machinery going constantly, and that there was no other practical way of doing this except by means of the 12-hour shift. He said that the Corporation would "like to eliminate the 12-hour day if practicable, but we meet the opposition of the men themselves, who wish to work longer hours for larger compensation." He concluded: "We have been told by outsiders (and by outsiders I mean those who have never been actually engaged in the industry) that we should force men to work shorter hours or leave their work. We do not believe it. We believe workmen should be considered; theoretical sympathy does not appeal to the working man's judgement. It antagonises him. . . We should like to satisfy public sentiment, but when it comes to the welfare of the workmen themselves, we think they are entitled to be heard".

The annual convention of the *International Metal Trades Association* was held in New York on April 19 and 20. The president of the Association directed the attention of the convention to the important question of hours of work. He stated that the reduction in hours of work during the war could not be maintained if the United States was to produce upon an economic basis and to maintain its position as one of the leading industrial nations of the world. According to this speaker the principle which should govern the question of the length of the working day is, on the one hand, the necessity for every worker to have an adequate period of leisure for rest, recreation, and home life, and, on the other, the economic necessities of particular establishments or industries. The facts gathered and distributed by the National Industrial Conference Board (an employers' research agency) have shown conclusively that in some branches of industry hours might be reduced without curtailing production, but that in other branches the same reduction of hours results in a proportional decrease in production. In arriving at conclusions employers should not be influenced by the desire to obtain undue profits, and it is important that workers should fully understand the economic reasons for the establishment of certain hours of work.

In the report submitted by the Commissioner of the Association with regard to the adjustment of wages it is stated that "the net result of organised labour's activities during the year 1921, according to government figures, was a loss to our industries estimated at four billion dollars", but that during this time there had been no strikes in the plants of any of the members of the Association. Necessary revisions of wage rates and working schedules have been made by many members, and in every case the adjustment has been effected without disturbing existing harmonious relations, in many cases the workers having previously concurred in the revision, regarding the step as an economic necessity. This, the Commission states, is "unanswerable evidence that the wage earner exercises sound and sane judgment when outside influences do not enter into the negotiations between employer and employee. Given an opportunity to earn wages commensurate with skill and productivity, a safe and healthful place in which to work, and accorded fair treatment, he realises that nothing further is to be gained through membership in a labour union. Such a policy of dealing with the worker typifies the open shop principle as advocated by your association. . . .".

Among the addresses delivered to the convention was one by Mr. Magnus W. Alexander, managing director of the National Industrial Conference Board. Mr. Alexander, tracing the decline in wage rates during the past year, pointed out that wage deflation on the railroads and in the coal mines has not kept pace with that in the manufacturing industries. Estimates made by the National Industrial Conference Board showed that on 1 January 1922 the average real wage, that is to say, the purchasing power of the money wage of workers employed in manufacturing industries was 19 per cent. above that of 1914. Against this the purchasing power of the average hourly earnings of the anthracite miner in October 1921 was 60 per cent. above that in 1914, and the average wage of the railroad worker in December 1921 was 44 per cent. above that of 1914.

One of the chief pieces of work carried out by the Association during the previous year has been the completion of a scheme of apprenticeship training. During the period of extraordinary activity consequent on the world war the educational efforts of the Association concentrated

upon training systems which would provide new workers in the minimum of time. It was felt that this special training should be continued, it having been clearly demonstrated that by this means the time necessary for teaching a process or series of operations was shortened, that the operator was able to earn full wages in a comparatively short time, and that it gave better opportunity for the selection of workers showing special aptitude and ability.

Another phase of industrial education needing attention was the provision of highly skilled, all-round mechanics. It was stated that apprentice training to this end has been neglected, and it is an accepted fact that more men must be trained so as to fit them to design, build, and maintain the necessary automatic and semi-automatic machinery in use. Investigation of this matter has led to the conclusion that the interests of all concerned would be best served by establishing certain definite minimum requirements which would ensure a fairly uniform training. A *Manual on Apprenticeship in the Metal Trades* has accordingly been prepared by the Association as a guide and suggestion for the development of apprenticeship courses. At the previous convention two recommendations had been made by the committee on apprenticeship training: first, that a definite number of learners in proportion to those employed be trained in each shop; second, that a committee on industrial training be formed in each branch to deal with matters pertaining to technical, occasional, part-time, and continuation schools, and to consider ways and means of furthering training and education within the plants of the members. The second of these recommendations has been followed in the majority of the branches and the committee urged that action be taken by those districts that for some reason have delayed doing so.

The *New York Building Congress* has recently been engaged in a constructive movement to revive the apprenticeship system in the trades affiliated with the industry. A special committee was appointed on 10 January 1922, composed of persons representing investment, design, construction, labour, material supply, and related interests, in response to the demand on the part of the building industry not to create unnecessary numbers of journeymen mechanics, but rather to develop men better trained in their craft and in citizenship than present-day trade conditions provide or permit. The committee proposes to co-operate with all other committees, organisations, and movements of trade, labour, or educational interest by co-ordinating their activities and overcoming the indifference or inertia which has done much to handicap the best interests of training in the building trades.

As the public continuation schools are designed and equipped to give the necessary part-time instruction to apprentices, it is proposed wherever possible to have the work done in co-operation with these schools, but where such co-operation cannot be obtained, the trades or crafts concerned will use other existing facilities or open their own schools, staffed by instructors of their own choice.

PRODUCTION AND PRICES ⁽¹⁾

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

THE movement of retail prices is, generally speaking, still in a downward direction, but at the same time there are some signs that the rapid decline of the last twelve months is coming to an end. The decline, however, has been less uniform and steady in the case of retail prices than in that of wholesale.

The clearest tendency towards stabilisation is to be seen in the non-European countries; prices in the first quarter of the present year still fell, but relatively little. The present level of retail prices is already about the same in these countries as that of wholesale prices. The food index numbers, for example, are on an average only 40 per cent. higher than before the war.

In Europe the decline in prices in the ex-neutral countries and the United Kingdom is also slackening and shows signs of coming to an end. The index numbers of retail prices fell, in the first four months of the present year, about 10 per cent. in Scandinavian countries, but less than 4 per cent. in the Netherlands and the United Kingdom. The level of these prices, however, is still considerably above that of wholesale prices.

In all other European countries the movement of retail prices has been more irregular. In Belgium, France, and Italy, as well as in the two new states, Finland and Czechoslovakia, the prices have not shown the same steady tendency to fall from their relatively high level, and in the Central European countries (Germany, Austria, Poland) prices are still advancing, and new maxima are reached each month. In Germany, for instance, the cost of living increased from January to April of this year by no less than 75 per cent.

It is interesting to notice that the index numbers for foodstuffs are lower than the index numbers of total cost of living in the countries showing some tendency towards stabilisation, while they are regularly higher in the other countries. The levels of the prices of clothing and of fuel and light are generally above the general level of retail prices, the clothing group having risen most in price in all countries except Canada, Denmark, Finland, and Norway, where items of fuel and light have shown the greatest increase over pre-war figures. The general upward movement of rents noticed during 1921 seems to have been checked in 1922, except in Germany and Austria. In Vienna the rent index number in March last had risen to three and a half times the figure of December 1921, the increase being due partly to the raising

(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.

of rents themselves, and partly to the raising of the new tax on rents from 20 to 40 per cent.

The tables of index numbers given below correspond to those published in previous numbers of this *Review*. Several changes, however, have been made. It has been considered more consistent to include in the table of the cost of living index numbers only those series which are composed of at least three of the chief groups of expenditure. The series for Bulgaria and Switzerland have therefore been omitted from table I and the former is now transferred to table II (food index numbers). In table II, there are now six series of index numbers, namely, Bulgaria, Spain, France (2 series), Switzerland, and Czechoslovakia, which include, in addition to foods, a few additional items (fuel, soap, etc.). The previous general index numbers for Austria have been discontinued, and have been replaced in tables I to V by a new series (see Notes on Austria). As this new series only starts from December 1921, the previous series, shifted to a post-war base, is given for the year 1921 in tables VI to VIII. New series of index numbers are given in tables I to V for Massachusetts, and a recently issued index number of foodstuffs for Spain (Madrid) is added to table II.

The tables have been brought up to date, and the notes on the methods employed in compiling the various index numbers have been revised.

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) was 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, VII, and VIII 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 :

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) (a)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 towns) (a)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	United States		Finland (21 towns)
		(47 towns)	(Berlin)						(51 t.)	(Mass.)	
(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	*	*	404	416	405	400	*
1916	406	*	*	416	*	*	449	436	418	408	*
1917	414	*	*	413	*	*	443	455	442	427	*
1918	418	*	*	448	*	*	464	482	474	452	*
1919	426	*	*	429	*	*	479	241	477	168	*
1920	459	842	4125	433	*	453	492	262	247	198	931
1921	433	963	1125	449	*	370	461	237	180	158	1214
1921											
Jan.	453	944	4122	*	*	450	*	264	*	176	4136
Feb.	449	904	4090	*	*	438	*	*	*	169	4086
Mar.	447	904	4035	458	*	441	477	*	*	163	4104
Apr.	444	894	976	*	*	399	*	*	*	161	4085
May	441	880	990	*	*	389	*	*	180	158	4094
June	436	896	1080	449	*	384	463	*	*	156	4128
July	433	963	4125	*	*	379	*	237	*	158	4214
Aug.	430	1045	4177	*	*	384	*	*	*	158	4249
Sept.	430	1062	4242	443	*	386	465	*	477	157	4278
Oct.	428	1146	4340	*	*	394	*	*	*	156	4279
Nov.	427	4397	4767	*	*	394	*	*	*	156	4234
Dec.	424	1550	4934	440	53300	393	461	*	174	156	4172
1922											
Jan.	422	4640	4903	*	66900	387	*	242	*	—	4124
Feb.	420	4989	2177	*	77000	380	*	*	*	154	4120
Mar.	420	2302	2709	437	77800	371	146	*	167	152	4107
Apr.	422	2804	3177	—	87200	367	—	*	—	156	4109
May	—	3018	3455	—	409300	—	—	*	—	—	4144
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (30 t.) (a)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 t.) (a)	Bulgaria (12 towns) (b)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	Spain (Madrid) (b)	United States		Finland (21 towns)
		(47 towns)	(Berlin)								(51 towns)	(Mass.)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
July 1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
1915	407	*	*	431	*	*	*	405	428	408	98	97	*
1916	416	*	*	430	*	*	*	414	446	415	109	109	*
1917	428	*	*	426	*	*	*	457	466	421	143	138	*
1918	434	*	*	434	*	*	*	475	487	446	164	160	*
1919	439	*	*	447	*	*	*	486	242	468	486	476	*
1920	497	4156	4377	494	*	459	*	227	253	188	215	240	1082
1921	439	1274	1544	461	*	410	1612	454	236	189	445	135	1323
1921													
Jan.	472	1265	4439	484	*	493	4648	490	276	495	169	166	4205
Feb.	465	4194	4357	484	*	482	4596	478	*	196	155	154	4138
Mar.	460	4188	4346	484	*	434	4506	472	*	186	154	141	4169
Apr.	456	4171	4235	473	*	447	4564	465	*	189	149	138	4145
May	452	4152	4244	468	*	407	4570	450	*	183	142	131	4157
June	444	4175	4449	465	*	449	4666	448	*	179	141	129	4188
July	439	4274	4541	464	*	440	4642	454	236	182	145	135	4323
Aug.	434	4399	4592	464	*	427	4762	459	*	184	152	138	4369
Sept.	433	4448	4653	454	*	423	4896	455	*	185	150	135	4404
Oct.	434	4532	4796	—	*	434	2038	449	*	188	150	134	4404
Nov.	429	4914	2227	447	*	442	2149	448	*	184	149	133	4324
Dec.	425	2088	2544	443	57900	438	2187	449	*	—	147	135	4230
1922													
Jan.	421	2219	2622	442	74800	417	2259	443	497	—	439	—	4154
Feb.	419	2727	3054	440	87100	399	2365	442	*	—	439	131	4145
Mar.	419	3152	3580	441	90400	382	—	438	*	—	436	429	4124
Apr.	421	3730	4255	446	104300	378	—	—	*	—	436	433	4127
May	—	4114	4534	—	437400	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	4132
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	—

(a) For these countries only, the index numbers in tables I and II are entirely distinct.
 (b) These index numbers include, in addition to foodstuffs, certain fuel and light commodities.
 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 (Rome) (Milan)		Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns) (a)	Netherlands (Amsterdam) (a)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (40 towns)	Date
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	99	*	117	107	*	*	125	*	1915
*	*	116	*	146	111	*	*	148	139	1916
*	*	146	*	190	119	142	*	180	166	1917
*	*	197	286	253	127	183	*	203	219	1918
238	*	205	280	275	132	195	*	208	257	1919
341	189	313	441	302	149	217	*	255	270	1920
307	177	387	494	302	157	*	25709	222	236	1921
*	169	374	574	*	*	*	14084	251	*	1921
*	162	379	566	*	*	*	17024	241	*	Jan.
338	160	384	568	301	160	*	17974	233	249	Feb.
*	160	411	578	*	*	*	17244	228	*	Mar.
*	167	396	574	*	*	*	17909	219	*	Apr.
307	173	390	506	302	157	*	20270	219	236	May
*	177	387	494	*	*	*	25709	222	*	June
*	180	391	501	*	*	*	30407	220	*	July
295	185	400	520	296	156	*	39817	210	231	Aug.
*	183	415	535	*	*	*	48656	203	*	Sept.
*	182	423	541	*	*	*	47628	199	*	Oct.
297	179	423	539	283	149	*	46740	192	216	Nov.
*	173	430	523	*	—	*	46883	188	*	Dec.
*	165	426	522	*	—	*	48085	186	*	1922
291	165	—	503	266	—	*	52358	182	195	Jan.
—	162	—	—	—	—	*	—	181	—	Feb.
—	163	—	—	—	—	*	—	180	—	Mar.
—	—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	Apr.
—	—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	May
—	—	—	—	—	—	*	—	—	—	June

TABLE II (cont.). FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

France (a)		India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns) (a)	Nether-lands (Amsterdam) (a)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (40 towns)	Switzer-land (23 towns) (b)	Czecho-slovakia (30 towns) (b)	Date
(Paris) (b)	(320 L) (b)		(Rome)	(Milan)									
(15)	(16)		(18)	(19)									
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
120	123	*	95	*	123	112	114	*	132	121	119	*	1915
129	142	*	111	151	153	119	117	*	161	136	140	*	1916
183	184	*	137	210	203	127	146	*	204	171	180	*	1917
206	244	*	203	321	271	139	175	*	210	265	229	*	1918
261	289	*	206	304	290	144	196	*	209	312	261	*	1919
373	388	*	318	445	319	167	210	*	262	288	253	*	1920
306	363	174	402	506	295	164	180	45655	226	230	209	1346	1921
410	*	163	367	571	334	178	193	25140	263	275	237	1643	1921
382	*	156	376	564	308	175	194	31827	249	255	234	1494	Jan.
358	429	154	386	582	299	169	193	32883	238	247	231	1423	Feb.
328	*	154	432	598	300	169	187	31711	232	242	242	1450	Mar.
317	*	162	421	598	292	168	184	32640	218	232	210	1456	Apr.
312	363	169	409	523	290	166	180	35393	220	231	214	1445	May
306	*	174	402	506	295	164	180	45655	226	230	209	1346	June
317	*	177	417	518	297	163	179	53100	225	234	206	1362	July
329	350	183	430	545	290	161	179	60728	210	228	200	1474	Aug.
331	*	180	461	561	288	156	168	75174	200	218	198	1519	Sept.
326	*	179	459	570	281	152	154	75848	195	210	192	1514	Oct.
323	349	176	458	567	268	150	150	74659	185	202	189	1544	Nov.
319	*	169	469	558	257	147	148	73598	179	189	179	—	Dec.
307	*	160	463	562	245	145	149	75157	177	188	177	—	1922
294	324	161	—	525	238	141	143	81269	173	184	167	—	Jan.
304	—	157	455	—	234	144	—	—	172	181	158	—	Feb.
317	—	158	—	—	230	145	—	—	170	171	—	—	Mar.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	Apr.
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	May
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	June

(a) For these countries only, the index numbers in tables I and II are entirely distinct.

(b) These index numbers include, in addition to foodstuffs, certain fuel and light commodities.

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)	Canada (60 t.)	Denmark (100 towns)	United States (32 towns)		Finland (21 towns)
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	*	*	125	110	105	105	*
» 1916	*	*	143	160	120	119	*
» 1917	*	*	167	190	149	143	*
» 1918	*	*	198	260	205	198	*
» 1919	*	*	234	310	215	232	*
» 1920	1316	*	260	355	288	276	1049
» 1921	1077	*	173	248	223	189	1034
Mar. 1921	1077	*	195	*	*	205	1031
» »	1077	*	173	248	233	194	1032
Sept. »	1197	*	173	*	192	184	1090
Dec. »	2188	*	173	225	184	183	1107
Mar. 1922	3385	1174000	173	*	176	174	1098
June »	—	142800	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)		Germany (Berlin)		Austria (Vienna)		Canada (60 towns)		Denmark (100 t.)		Spain (Madrid)		United States (Mass.)		Finland (24 t.)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1916	111	111	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1917	115	115	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1918	128	128	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1919	131	131	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1920	155	155	1158	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1921	176	176	1316	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mar. 1921	176	176	1211	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
June »	*	*	1368	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Sept. »	*	*	2158	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Dec. »	*	*	3263	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mar. 1922	*	*	—	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
June »	*	*	—	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

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.)	United States (Ass.)	Finland (24 t.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	97	*	94	*	85	100	102	101	*
» 1916	96	*	94	*	84	102	102	102	*
» 1917	97	*	95	*	90	105	100	100	*
» 1918	105	*	99	*	100	108	109	105	*
» 1919	110	*	105	*	103	113	114	112	*
» 1920	116	164	115	*	132	130	135	135	335
» 1921	116	182	121	*	142	141	139	154	553
Mar. 1921	116	164	120	*	138	*	*	148	418
» »	*	182	121	*	141	141	159	154	535
June »	*	164	121	*	143	*	160	155	596
Sept. »	*	182	123	*	143	141	161	156	603
Dec. »	*	182	124	400	143	#	160	157	603
Mar. 1922	*	200	—	1400	—	—	—	—	—
June »	*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

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

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 towns)	United Kingdom (97 towns)	Sweden (40 towns)	Date	
		(Rome)	(Milan)					
(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
100	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
296	*	—	221	388	360	310	»	1919
485	299	466	651	336	430	390	»	1920
353	263	495	512	292	280	270	»	1921
398	239	576	696	308	325	295	Mar.	1921
353	263	495	532	292	290	270	June	»
318	268	—	534	280	265	250	Sept.	»
318	261	—	563	271	250	240	Dec.	»
312	253	—	596	260	240	225	Mar.	1922
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	June	»

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

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 t.)	New Zealand (4 towns)	United Kingdom (30 t.)	Sweden (40 towns)	Switzerland (23 towns)	Date	
		(Rome)	(Milan)							
(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	
100	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
164	*	—	220	316	145	*	295	372	»	1919
296	151	178	611	477	177	230	386	387	»	1920
308	176	—	899	366	199	250	220	220	»	1921
319	176	279	1054	388	194	240	316	357	Mar.	1921
308	177	245	899	366	199	260	264	220	June	»
307	176	—	899	337	200	238	231	221	Sept.	»
306	174	—	828	311	195	225	207	218	Dec.	»
302	167	—	580	289	—	215	196	212	Mar.	1922
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	June	»

TABLE V (cont.). RENT INDEX NUMBERS

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 t.)	New Zealand (25 t.)	United Kingdom (25 t.)	Sweden (40 t.)	Date	
		(Rome)	(Milan)						
(14)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	
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
110	165	157	139	161	121	152	155	»	1921
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	129	155	163	Dec.	»
140	165	—	184	168	—	—	163	Mar.	1922
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	June	»

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	Austria	Italy		Netherlands		Poland		
	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	33 towns	Lodz	Posen
Dec. 1920	*	100	100	100	100	*	*	100
Jan. 1921	400	405	404	*	*	400	*	440
Feb. »	*	407	402	*	*	420	400	449
Mar. »	420	408	406	95	95	421	98	422
April »	*	411	409	*	*	419	93	437
May »	*	412	408	*	*	418	86	441
June »	446	400	400	95	94	437	96	485
July »	*	97	96	*	*	475	435	337
Aug. »	*	97	98	*	*	200	152	467
Sept. »	*	404	99	94	90	255	216	645
Oct. »	310	403	405	*	*	*	294	964
Nov. »	*	404	407	*	*	*	266	899
Dec. »	834	403	407	92	86	*	227	908
Jan. 1922	*	99	405	*	*	*	233	886
Feb. »	*	99	404	—	*	*	257	951
March »	*	96	403	—	—	*	277	1093
April »	*	—	401	—	—	*	—	—
May »	*	—	402	—	—	*	—	—
June »	*	—	—	—	—	*	—	—

TABLE VII. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	Austria	Italy		Netherlands	
	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam
Dec. 1920	*	100	100	100	100
Jan. 1921	400	405	402	*	*
Feb. »	414	406	402	*	*
Mar. »	423	412	410	98	95
April »	419	417	411	*	*
May »	426	419	413	*	*
June »	453	408	404	402	96
July »	447	403	97	*	*
Aug. »	472	403	400	*	*
Sept. »	226	408	403	99	88
Oct. »	337	411	412	*	*
Nov. »	578	412	415	*	*
Dec. »	966	411	415	96	84
Jan. 1922	1442	409	411	*	*
Feb. »	1428	407	409	*	*
March »	1457	402	408	99	—
April »	1619	—	405	—	—
May »	2028	—	406	—	—
June »	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE VIII. INDEX NUMBERS FOR OTHER GROUPS

Date	Clothing					Heating and lighting					Rent				
	Austria		Italy		Netherlands	Austria		Italy		Netherlands	Austria		Italy		Netherlands
	Vienna		Milan	Florence	The Hague Amsterdam	Vienna		Milan	Florence	The Hague Amsterdam	Vienna		Milan	Florence	The Hague Amsterdam
Dec. 1920	100		400	400	400	100		400	400	400	100		400	400	400
Jan. 1921	115		89	400	79	128		418	406	96	97		400	400	401
Feb. »	438		68	79	73	136		404	88	83	87		488	400	409
Mar. »	287		68	79	71	273		404	88	88	86		313	400	413
Apr. »	833		73	78	72	266		93	94	84	75		313	100	414
May »	*		76	79	69	*		58	93	82	—		432	409	416
June »	*		—	—	—	*		—	—	—	—		—	—	—

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

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

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

(c) *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 : (a) *Wirtschaft und Statistik.*

Official index number (tables I and II). Groups included in the budget : food (13), fuel (1), lighting (1), and rent. The prices are collected from more than 600 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 five persons. The monthly food index numbers refer to the 15th of the month. Base : average of October 1913, January, April, and June 1914=100.

From March 1922 onwards, certain improvements in this method have been made. The number of towns covered is increased to 71. Groups and items included are : food (13), fuel (2), light (2), and rent (an index for clothing is under preparation). Prices are secured twice a month, illicit trade is no longer taken into consideration, and the articles included are always the same. More uniform methods for the collection of prices and rents are laid down, the base prices are to be re-calculated, an amended system of weighting is to be adopted, and the index numbers previously published are to be revised. Meanwhile, the tables give the old series.

(b) Berlin : *Finanzpolitische Korrespondenz.*

An unofficial index number for Berlin, calculated by Dr. Kuczynski. 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 : food and groceries (46), and rent. The former 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 showing the amounts necessary to purchase what would have cost £1 in 1911. The figures are quarterly averages in the case of cost of living. In tables I and V, the annual index numbers refer to different months each year. The food index number differs from the others in that it covers 30 towns (instead of 6 in the cost of living index), and that it refers to the monthly averages. Base : 1911=100.

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

(a) Index Number of the *Paritätische Kommission.*

A new index number, which is accepted as a basis for adjusting wages in most Austrian industries. Groups included are : food (13), clothing (3), fuel and light (4), and rent. Prices are collected from various co-operative associations and firms, and are the ruling prices on Vienna markets. An average is calculated for each article and weighted according to the theoretical weekly expenditure of a normal person on the principal articles of necessity. In the case of food the articles are chosen so as to contain a certain value in calories and albumen, and the consumption is assumed to remain unaltered from month to month. The price level of 15 December 1921 is taken as base, and the group and general indices are calculated from that base on the "chain system". The weighted prices are also calculated with July 1914=1 as base, and these figures are given in the tables. The monthly index numbers refer to the middle of the month.

(b) Index Number of the *Bundesamt für Statistik.*

Groups included in the budget : food (26), clothing (11), fuel and light (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. 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. Original base : July 1914=100. The general index number was discontinued in 1922, but the figures for 1921 are given in tables VI and VIII with January 1921=100 as base. Only the food index, including also 2 fuel items, is still continued. It refers to a "consumption unit", and is given in table VII with 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.*

No general cost of living index number is published ; but the index given under the heading " food " is based on foodstuffs (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 to 1912. Prices are collected in 12 towns each month. Base : 1901 to 1910=100.

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

Groups included in the budget : food (29), fuel and light (5), rent, clothing (staple lines, footwear), and sundries (starch, household supplies, furniture, furnishings, etc.). Food prices are secured from the retail merchants, and compiled by the Bureau of Statistics, fuel prices obtained from the correspondents of the Department as well as through the Bureau of Statistics, rents are reported by correspondents of the Department, and checked by enquiries made from time to time, and prices for clothing and sundries were recently obtained by a special investigation of the Department. System of weighting : theoretical pre-war budget of a skilled workman's family of 5 persons with an income of \$21.00 per week in 1913. In tables I and III the base is 1913=100, no figures having been published for July 1914 ; the index numbers from 1914 to 1920 refer to December. In the other tables (II, IV, and V) the monthly index numbers refer to the 15th of the month until the end of 1920, and to the 1st of the month after the month in question from January 1921 onwards. They have been calculated by the International Labour Office from the published figures giving the expenditure in dollars for a normal family, with July 1914=100 as base.

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.

Spain (Madrid) : Index Number of the *Instituto Geografico y Estadístico.*

This new index number is not one of general cost of living, as it includes only animal food products (10), vegetable food products (9), and fuel and sundries (9). The prices are those usual on the Madrid markets, and no weighting is used. For the years 1915 to 1920, the index is quarterly ; from 1921, monthly, referring to the 15th of the month. Base : average of 1914=100.

United States : (a) *Monthly Labour Review of the Bureau of Labour Statistics*

The cost of living index number is unusually complete and satisfactory. It includes the following groups : food (22 items until December 1920, 43 from January 1921), clothing (24 items for winter, 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.

(b) **Massachusetts** : Index Number of the *Special Commission on the Necessaries of Life*.

Groups included in the budget : food (37 items), clothing (17), shelter (rent of single, two-family, and three-family houses), fuel, heat, and light (4), and sundries (including ice, car fare, entertainment, medicine, insurance, church, tobacco, reading, furnishings, organisations). Prices are secured by special agents investigating the usual market prices. System of weighting : theoretical budget for hypothetical wage-earner's family of five persons, based on an investigation made by the National Industrial Conference Board in October 1919. The indexes are monthly, and refer to the average of the month. Base : average of 1913=100.

Finland : *Sosiaalinen Aikakaushirja. — Social Tidskrift.*

Official index number including the following groups : food (14), clothing (2), rent, fuel, tobacco, a daily newspaper, and taxes (new group added in 1922). Prices are collected by official agents of the Central Social Board in 21 towns. The system of weighting is that of a standard budget for a working-class family of five persons with a yearly income of 1600-2000 Fmks., based on an official enquiry made in 1908-1909. The State, church and municipal taxes imposed in 1914 on an annual income of 2000 Fmks. are taken as base for the "taxes" group. The indices are monthly, and refer to the average of the month. Base : first half of 1914=100. The index numbers are also calculated with July 1914=100 as base.

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. System of weighting : theoretical budget. The annual indices in tables I, III, IV, and V refer to June. 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.*

Groups included in the budget : food (17), clothing (3), heating and lighting (3), and rent. Prices are collected in 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 mensile, Città di Milano; Bollettino del Ufficio del Lavoro di Roma; Communication from the Ufficio di Statistica, Comune di Firenze.*

(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 uniform lines, according to recommendations of the Statistical Congress of Italian towns held at Milan in July 1920. Weighting is based on a theoretical post-war budget which to some extent allows for variations in local conditions. Index numbers are given for Florence and Milan only. Base : July 1920=100.

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 for the most part provided by correspondents of the Central Statistical Office. The weighting is that of a standard budget 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, 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 to 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 to 1913=1,000. In tables I, IV, and V, the annual index numbers refer to June.

Netherlands : (a) *Amsterdam : Maandbericht 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, beginning from March 1917, 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), clothing, heating and lighting, rent, miscel-

laneous (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), 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.*

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 heating 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 Social Board 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 yearly 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.*

There is, as yet, no general cost of living index number. The index for foodstuffs, however, is composed of two groups, viz., food (37), and heating

and lighting (4, together with soap, which is included in this group). This combined index number is now given in table II; while the fuel and light index is given separately in table IV. 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

THE general tendency, as shown by the latest index numbers in various countries of the world, is towards stabilisation in prices. Divergence in the price-levels of different articles and groups is still rather marked in the various countries but is slowly decreasing.

As will be seen from the tables below, this tendency is somewhat more marked in the non-European countries. The latest index numbers show no change in South Africa and Australia; in Canada, China, Egypt, Japan, and New Zealand, only slight decreases are shown; while in the United States a slight upward movement is noticeable. In these countries prices rose during the war years much less than in most European countries. At present, the average level seems to be about 60 per cent. above pre-war prices, varying between the limits of 31 per cent. in South Africa and 86 per cent. in New Zealand.

In European countries the movement of prices has been considerably less uniform and settled. The trend of prices in the chief ex-neutral countries and the United Kingdom has corresponded most nearly to that outside Europe. The changes shown by the latest index numbers are small, showing a slight decline in most countries, but a slight increase in the United Kingdom.

Another and different group is formed by Belgium, France, and Italy, where prices reached much higher maxima than in the United Kingdom and the ex-neutral countries. The index numbers of the former countries also show more irregular fluctuations. From January to April the Italian index number showed a drop of 50 points, or nearly 10 per cent., while in France the price level, after falling from January to February, has now again risen to the level of January.

In the Central European countries, again, as pointed out in previous numbers of the *Review*, new maxima are being reached every month. In April prices in Germany were about 64 times as high as before the war, while the new Polish index number shows that prices in March were almost 740 times as high.

As stated in the February issue of the *Review*, the table showing the wholesale prices as published in the different countries will be printed every January and July. Table I gives the figures as originally published; table II, which corresponds to the table in previous numbers of the *Review*, shows the index numbers reduced, whenever possible, to a common base, with the year 1913 as 100. The notes on the methods of compiling wholesale prices have been revised and brought up to date. Three new series of index numbers have been added to the list, namely those for Spain, the Presidency of Bombay (India), and Poland. The new Polish index number is an official one and takes the place of that of Professor Fiedorowicz which has been discontinued by its compiler. The new index for India replaces the one for Calcutta because of its broader scope. As the *Review* already carries two other index numbers for the United States, Dun's index number has been dropped from lack of space.

Most of the recent figures are supplied by the courtesy of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

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 items). 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). This method of multiple quotations is nearly always used when geometrical 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 table II, the base has been shifted to 1913 as 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 in 11 groups, viz., metals; jute, leather, hides and skins; grains, meal, etc.; dairy produce; groceries; meat; building materials; chemicals; fuel and light; soft goods; miscellaneous. The prices taken are in general the predominant prices. The average price in the Union for each article is obtained by taking the mean between the Johannesburg average price and the averages of the prices for the coast towns. The method of weighting is by 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

TABLE 1. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES AS PUBLISHED

[illegible]

TABLE II. INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES

(Base shifted to 1913 = 100 as far as possible)

[illegible]

TABLE I (cont.). INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES AS PUBLISHED

[illegible]

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

[illegible]

aggregate expenditure on the commodities in the group. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

Base : 1913=100.

(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. An index number has also been calculated for the middle of 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 Saturday of the month following the month stated.

Base : 1 January 1920=100.

Australia (Melbourne) : *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. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month.

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 monthly index numbers refer to the second half of the month.

The starting point of the "chain system" is August 1921. The index number (347) for August 1921 is based on April 1914=100.

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

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. 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 weighting, but the compilers consider that an index number based on a sufficiently large number of commodities and qualities does not require weighting. The monthly index numbers refer to the middle of the month.

Base : 1890-1899=100.

China (Shanghai) : *Treasury Department's Bureau of Markets.*

Official index number covering 147 commodities in 5 groups, viz., cereals, other food products, textiles, metals, miscellaneous (including fuels, building materials, industrial materials, and sundries). The prices are those of the Shanghai market, and refer to the last Wednesday of the month. The base was originally September 1919 as 100. In order to afford a comparison with the pre-war period, the calculations have been extended back to February 1913, for which month the prices for the 147 articles were investigated and collected.

Base : September 1919=100.

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. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the first of the month following the month stated. The base is the average of the prices on 1 July 1912, 1 January and 1 July 1913, 1 January and 1 July, 1914=100.

Egypt (Cairo) : *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.

Spain : *Instituto Geografico y Estadistico.*

New official index number including 74 commodities. The general index is a simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of these commodities. The monthly indexes refer to the 15th of the month.

Base : 1913=100.

United States : *(a) Monthly Labour Review of the Bureau of Labour Statistics.*

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. The monthly index numbers refer to the average of the month.

Base: $1913=100$.

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 monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month. The index number is the arithmetic mean of the relative prices of the different commodities, and is not weighted.

Base: $1901-1910=100$.

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

Official index number including 43 articles arranged in 11 groups as follows: (a) food groups (15), viz., cereals (7), pulses (2), sugar (3), other food (3); and (b) non-food groups (28), viz., oilseeds (4), raw cotton (5), cotton manufactures (6), other textiles (2), hides and skins (3), metals (5), other raw and manufactured articles (3). The prices are collected from business firms in Bombay. The weighting is obtained by giving several quotations for the more important commodities (e.g. 11 items for cotton out of 43). The annual index numbers refer to the average of the year, the monthly ones, dating from January 1920, to the average of the month.

Base: $1914=100$.

Italy: *L'Economista.*

This index number, compiled by Prof. Bachi, has been revised twice. The old index (from 1913 to 1919 in the tables) includes 38 commodities in 5 groups, and is an unweighted arithmetic mean of the relative prices of these articles. The index for the years 1920 and 1921 includes 76 quotations in 8 groups. From January 1922 onwards, the number of quotations has been increased to 100, distributed as follows: vegetable food (25), animal food (13), chemicals (11), textiles (12), building materials (6), minerals and metals (16), vegetable products other than food (5), miscellaneous industrial products (12). The relative importance of the different groups remains unaltered. Prices are collected from the principal Chambers of Commerce, and the Association of Silk and Cotton Merchants. Some weighting is effected by the method of multiple quotations.

The series is calculated by taking the arithmetic mean of the relative prices on the chain system. The index number has also, from 1920 onwards, been calculated by taking the geometric mean. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month.

Base : 1901-1905=100.

Japan : *Bank of Japan.*

The index number includes 56 commodities. The prices are supplied by merchants and associations in Tokyo and Yokohama. The index is unweighted, being a simple arithmetic average of the relative prices of individual commodities. The monthly index numbers refer to the average for the month.

Base : October 1900=100.

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. In the tables the yearly index numbers from 1914 to 1921 refer to December ; the monthly indexes, to the end of the month.

Base : December 1913 to June 1914=100.

New Zealand : *Monthly Abstract of Statistics.*

Official index number covering 106 quotations for 86 commodities (food-stuffs, 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. The monthly index numbers refer to the middle of the month.

Base : 1909-1913=1,000.

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.

Poland : *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics of the League of Nations.*

A new official index number has recently been commenced and is calculated from September 1921 onwards. The monthly index numbers refer to the end of the month. No further details are available at present.

Base : January 1914=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. Figures for the years 1914 to 1919 have not yet been published. The monthly figures refer to the average for the month.

The starting point of the series was at first 1920, but was afterwards changed to 1913=100.

(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, which is published monthly, 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. The monthly index numbers refer to the 15th of the month.

Base: 1901-1905=100.

(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. The monthly index numbers refer to the 15th of the month.

Base: 1 July 1913 to 30 June 1914=100.

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) products for direct consumption (33): food (22), clothing (5), and housing (6); (b) raw materials for agriculture (12): fodder (4), manure (8); (c) raw materials for industry (26): 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. With this exception, a weighted index number is calculated for each sub-group and group, and the three group index numbers are then weighted with the numbers 2, 1, 1 for the groups (a), (b), and (c), and the new average so obtained gives the general index number. In the tables the monthly index numbers refer to the 1st of the month following the month stated.

Base : July 1914=100.



EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of Unemployment

THE following tables are a continuation of those published in previous numbers of the *Review* completed and brought up to date. In most countries the figures for March and April show that the unemployment situation is gradually improving. Only in Austria (Vienna) is a definite increase shown, though the figures of unemployed trade unionists in the United Kingdom show a slight increase due, more or less, to the stoppage of work in the engineering and shipbuilding industries. The diminution is particularly marked in the Netherlands and Germany; it is substantial, though not so marked, in Denmark, Italy, and Switzerland; and slight in the remaining countries. The extremely low level of unemployment in Germany, viz., 1.1 per cent., should be noticed—the lowest figure recorded since 1918.

This general diminution is due to a large extent to the season of the year, for in most countries the building industry—the one most susceptible to seasonal influences—shows the greatest improvement. It is in a small part due also to a slight revival of trade, for improvement is shown in other and non-seasonal industries.

The above remarks refer to full time unemployment only. The statistics of partial unemployment, so far as they exist (see table II), show little change as compared with previous months, except in the United Kingdom, where the number has declined.

Table I shows the percentage of unemployed among trade unionists and among workers insured against unemployment for all the countries which publish information of this nature. Table II gives statistics of partial unemployment in four countries (Belgium, Italy, the United Kingdom, and Switzerland). Table III gives information from other sources in regard to unemployment for Austria, 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 IV, while table V 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 (i.e. '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

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

End of month	Germany	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	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	2098	53
Sept.	1994	252	76	*	115	177	29	68	943	2218	54
Dec.	1980	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	1394	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											
March	5779	344	668	207	294	237	51	394	1528	12000	165
June	5841	364	669	182	299	243	89	396	1279	12200	145
Sept.	5965	368	746	183	287	237	74	393	1433	12200	154
Dec.	6103	—	757	161	282	209	—	395	1432	11902	144
1922											
Jan.	5798	*	763	159	280	—	—	372	1406	11902	141
Feb.	6159	*	740	163	278	—	—	—	1390	12120	—
March	6284	*	730	158	278	—	—	—	1353	12120	—
April	—	—	720	—	278	—	—	—	1387	11811 ^(*)	—
May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
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	6.1	5.8	15.8
1921											
March	3.7	11.4	10.4	16.5	23.6	22.1	16.1	13.9	10.0	11.3	24.5
June	3.0	12.5	9.9	13.2	16.8	20.1	20.9	8.1	23.1	17.8	27.7
Sept.	1.4	11.4	9.6	8.5	16.6	19.1	17.1	6.8	14.8	12.2	27.3
Dec.	1.6	9.5	6.6	15.1	25.2	24.2	22.9	16.6	16.5	16.2	33.2
1922											
Jan.	3.3	*	6.4	13.9	28.9	—	—	20.0	16.8	16.2	34.8
Feb.	2.7	*	5.8	10.6	33.1	—	—	20.8 ⁽²⁾	16.3	15.2	32.1
March	1.1	9.2	5.2	9.6	27.9	—	—	14.1 ⁽²⁾	16.3	14.4 ⁽³⁾	30.6
April	—	—	3.9	—	24.0	—	—	—	17.0	14.4 ⁽³⁾	28.6
May	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

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

(²) Provisional figures. — (³) Excluding Irish Free State.

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

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF SHORT TIME

Date (End of month)	Belgium	Italy	United Kingdom		Switzerland
	Number	Number	Number	Percentage of insured workers	Number
1921					
April	118,041	69,270	1,077,317	9.0	95,374
June	86,823	238,940	832,340	6.8	76,116
September	60,958	154,350	322,315	2.6	69,421
December	36,232	178,662	315,760	2.7	53,970
1922					
January	36,092	159,231	287,499	2.4	49,181
February	32,100	149,711	266,162	2.2	46,761
March	28,912	151,676 ⁽¹⁾	222,693	1.8	40,315
April	35,308	135,964	188,639	1.6	39,249

(1) Provisional figures.

TABLE III. OTHER STATISTICS RELATING TO UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (End of month)	Austria		France		Italy	Switz- erland	Czecho- slovakia	
	Vienna	Total	Num- ber of applicants for work (¹)	Num- ber of persons in receipt of benefit (²)	Number wholly unem- ployed	Number wholly unem- ployed	Number of per- sons unem- ployed	Number of per- sons in receipt of benefit
	Number of appli- cants for work	Number of appli- cants for work						
1921								
Mar.	24,344	32,052	44,061	91,225	*	47,577	102,180	53,086
June	24,802	32,403	21,316	47,331	388,744	54,039	103,170	46,428
Sept.	24,236	32,802	17,718	21,797	473,216	66,646	70,870	26,085
Dec.	19,618	32,884	17,373	10,032	541,779	88,967	78,312	32,802
1922							⁽³⁾	⁽³⁾
Jan.	29,649	54,525	18,535	9,640	606,819	97,091	102,000	51,000
Feb.	33,783	64,717	18,807	9,224	576,284	99,541	—	—
Mar.	37,482	—	16,605	8,474 ⁽¹⁾	498,606	89,099	—	—
Apr.	39,472	—	14,094	7,861	432,372	77,970	—	—

(1) These figures give the number of applicants for work remaining on the live register.

(2) Revised figures. — (3) Provisional figures.

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

Date (End of month)	Numbers employed by 1,428 firms, to nearest thousand	Percent. increase (+) or decrease (—) on previous month	Index of employment. (January 1921 = 100)
1921			
Mar.	1,588,000	— 1.50	97.5
June	1,527,000	— 2.90	93.8
Sept.	1,545,000	+ 1.20	94.9
Dec.	1,493,000	— 4.70	91.7
1922			
Jan.	1,557,000	+ 4.20	95.6
Feb.	1,565,000	+ 0.57	96.1
Mar.	1,604,000	+ 2.50	98.5
Apr.	1,617,000	+ 0.74	99.3

TABLE V. STATISTICS OF FAMINE RELIEF IN INDIA BY MONTHS 1921

Date (End of month)	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				
Mar.	8,280,445	196,251	45,985	47,753
June	10,275,252	270,126	42,695	79,369
Sept.	6,144,888	86,369	3,352	24,129
Dec.	382,918	7,810	777	1,335
1922				
Jan.	303,375	7,170	1,609	991
Feb.	303,375	2,601	1,896	1,093

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 and the sources used in compiling the tables are indicated in the following notes. The fluctuations of unemployment in the different countries can, however, be followed in the tables, and compared as between one country and another.

Germany: *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt.*

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: *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.

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: *Le Marché du Travail.*

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.

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 Funds.

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 totally 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 June 1921 are exclusive of coal miners, owing to the stoppage in the industry at that date.

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. From 1 April 1922 the figures relate to Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the administration of unemployment insurance in the Irish Free State having been transferred to the Provisional Government.

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

IN the section on *International Action* mention is made this month of Conventions or treaties recently concluded or ratified, and their application. Information is given on the Belgian-French Convention on miners' pensions, on the application of the Franco-Italian Emigration Treaty and the conditions under which it permits Italian workers to proceed to France, on the conditions under which Italian workers are permitted to proceed to Belgium, and on the discussions which have arisen out of the Ouchy Convention between Brazil and Italy to regulate the recruiting of Italian labour for Brazilian employers.

The section dealing with *Migration Statistics* contains notes on the provisional results of the census of 1921 in Algeria and Tunis, on emigration from Germany and Finland, on the numbers of emigrants in transit through the Netherlands, on the increase in the number of stowaways found on ships proceeding to the United States, on immigration into Brazil over a series of years, and on the return of former German settlers to South West Africa.

An account in some detail is given, in the section on *Government Policy and Legislation*, of the Act which has been passed in the British Parliament to encourage imperial colonisation, and there is a certain amount of information on the new regulations and on the discussions which are at present taking place in the legislatures or otherwise of the Dominions and colonies, namely, in South Africa, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Kenya Colony, Tanganyika, and Rhodesia. Particulars of the position or prospects of the foreign worker in Czechoslovakia, Russia, and Asiatic Turkey are also given, as well as some account of the important proposals on immigration legislation which have recently been brought forward in the United States Congress and the discussions to which they have given rise.

Under the heading *Welfare and Protection Work* are considered assistance to settlers in South Africa, arrangements for reciprocal trade union rights between Christian trade unions in Poland and Germany, the establishment of an official Information Bureau on emigration in Denmark, the work of the Italian General Emigration Office, the efforts made by Dr. Nansen to arrange assistance to Russian refugees throughout Europe, the work of the Hebrew Immigrants Aid Society in the United States during 1921, and the training of colonists in colonial centres in Brazil.

INTERNATIONAL ACTION

Belgian-French Convention on Miners' Pensions

The Act authorising the President of the French Republic to ratify the Convention which was concluded on 14 February 1921 between

France and Belgium has recently been promulgated⁽¹⁾. The aim of the Convention is to provide that Belgian and French subjects working in mines should benefit by the special system of miners' pensions which is in force in each of the two countries.

French workers employed in Belgian mines are to receive the bonus known as "*prime d'encouragement*" which is provided for by Belgian pensions legislation, without any condition as regards residence. If they can prove that they have worked for thirty years in the Belgian mines and that they fulfil certain conditions as regards age and continuity of service which are required by the special legislation on pensions for Belgian miners, they will be entitled to grants from the Belgian Government and the provident funds.

Belgian miners working in France are to be divided into two classes for the purposes of the Convention: (a) those who can prove that at the age of 55 they have worked for thirty years in the French mines or that they have been wage earners in France for forty years, of which at least fifteen must have been spent in the mines; (b) those whose total service in the mines of both countries amounts to thirty years. Persons coming under class (a) will receive grants and supplementary allowances from the French Government and from the miners' autonomous pension funds on the same conditions as French miners. Persons coming under class (b) will be entitled to a pension which will be at least equal to the minimum pension provided for by the less favourable of the two legislations. A similar differentiation, according to the length and nature of the period of service of the miner, has been adopted by both Governments in the case of pensions for the widows of Belgian and French miners.

The Convention further provides that any improvements which may subsequently be introduced by legislation in the system of old age pensions at present in force in either country shall automatically include workers belonging to the other country. Any difficulties in the application of the Convention which cannot be settled by mutual agreement are to be submitted to arbitration.

Italian Emigration to France

The Italian General Emigration Office has recently issued a special Circular (No. 16) summarising the conditions under which Italian workers may emigrate to France in accordance with the Franco-Italian Emigration Treaty. This Circular is of interest as showing the practical application of an Agreement which has attracted some attention.

A distinction must be made between the individual and the collective recruiting of workers. Workers recruited individually must have been regularly engaged and must be in possession either of a contract or of a summons with a view to work. This document must be certified both by the French and the Italian authorities, and is considered null and void unless it has received the visa of both countries. It must be produced before an emigrant's passport to France can be issued; the passport does not then require the visa of the French consul.

Collective engagement of workers—as a general rule, interpreted to mean the engagement of at least five workers—is carried out on receipt of a written request from the employer stating the number of

⁽¹⁾ *Journal Officiel*, 12 May 1922. Paris.

workers required, the nature of the work to be done, and working conditions. Employers are supplied with forms for this purpose. Requests are null and void if they have not received the approval of the French and Italian authorities. Unless such a written request from an employer is produced, the engagement is not valid, the worker is not allowed to enter France, nor can he, indeed, obtain a passport from the Italian authorities.

The conditions of admission of Italian workers arriving in France from other countries are the same. Passports issued by other countries and giving the right of transit through France do not entitle the holder to remain in France.

Italian workers employed in France who wish to return home on leave may obtain a certificate, which must receive the visa of the French local authorities and must be presented to the Italian emigration officer at the frontier. This certificate allows the Italian worker to spend six weeks, or three months in winter, in his own country without any further papers. At the end of the period the certificate loses its value as a document authorising return to France.

The worker's family (i.e. his wife, children, and dependent parents or grandparents), whether they are travelling with the head of the family or by themselves, must be provided with certificates from the firm employing the worker, stating that his wages and the accommodation at his disposal are sufficient to provide for their requirements. These certificates must receive the visa of the Mayor or Commissioner of Police of the commune and of the Prefect of the Department; also of the Italian Emigration Office in Paris, of the General Emigration Office, or of some authority acting for these. Passports to relatives are issued on production of these certificates.

Other members of a worker's family must be provided with a declaration from him, which must be drawn up in France, stating that they are coming at his request and that he will provide for them as long as they remain with him. This declaration also requires the necessary visas. Any person who enters France on one of these certificates and subsequently undertakes paid work or carries on a profession is liable to be conducted to the frontier at his own expense. The charge for the visa of the document is 12.50 francs, one-half the ordinary fee.

Italian Emigration to Belgium

A Circular issued by the Italian Commissioner-General of Emigration states that Italian workers who wish to emigrate to Belgium in order to obtain employment will not be given emigrants' passports unless they have concluded a regular contract or unless they have been specially summoned. Passports will only be issued on condition that one or other of the above-mentioned documents receives the visa of the competent Italian consul in Belgium and of an emigration office or an emigration inspector or the General Emigration Office in Italy ⁽²⁾.

Italian Emigration to Brazil

According to the Brazilian press, certain difficulties are being encountered in the application of the various Conventions and Agreements ⁽³⁾ which have recently been concluded between the Italian

⁽²⁾ OPERA BONOMELLI, *Bollettino mensile*, 15 May 1922.

⁽³⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 307.

Government, on the one hand, and the Federal Government of Brazil and certain Brazilian companies, on the other hand.

The Convention on labour and emigration which was signed at Rome on 8 October 1921 by the Commissioner-General for Emigration of the Italian Government and the Brazilian Ambassador to the Italian Government has, in general, been well received. The Convention which was concluded at Ouchy in August of the same year between the Italian Government and a representative of immigration companies of the State of São Paulo and the Agreements which have been drawn up in accordance with it are, however, said to be meeting with a certain amount of opposition. Objections are raised in Brazil to several clauses of the Convention on the ground that they encroach on the national sovereignty of the country. One of the clauses to which objection is taken lays down that planters of São Paulo must give facilities for teaching Italian language, history, and geography to the children of Italian immigrants, although Brazilian law regards all persons born in Brazil as Brazilian subjects. Another clause proclaims the inviolability of the domicile of Italian colonists except in certain cases, although it is argued from the Brazilian side that there is no reason to fear unjustifiable violations of domicile. There is still greater opposition to the clause authorising Italian consuls and their representatives and the agents of Italian companies recognised by the Governments to have free access to the plantations in order to see that the contracts under which the workers were engaged are faithfully carried out, and giving the Italian consuls the right to deal with complaints of Italian colonists concerning their contracts. It is argued that the latter clause will create an exceptional régime for Italian immigrants within the state.

The President of the State of São Paulo has refused to approve the Convention of Ouchy, and communicated his decision to the Brazilian companies affected on 4 November 1921. The Government of São Paulo subsequently objected to pay the fares of immigrants arriving in Brazil who were engaged on the basis of the contracts in question. The situation thus created is causing considerable anxiety to Italian colonists in Brazil and to the Brazilian planters' companies. The colonists desire that the Convention of Ouchy should be recognised in the same way as the Convention of 8 October 1921; the companies demand that all contracts for the engagement of Italian immigrants should be drawn up or revised in accordance with the latter Convention, which has already been approved by the Brazilian Federal Council.

It appears from correspondence between Councillor Antonio Prado, representing the São Paulo labour recruiting company concerned, and the São Paulo Minister of Agriculture that a solution has been found of the difficulty regarding recruiting contracts which are being executed (4). The Auxiliary Company for recruiting foreign labour for São Paulo is to be allowed to bring 1,000 families of Italian agriculturists (representing a total of 5,000 persons) into that state, and will receive the Government *per capita* grant for assisted immigrants. The provisions of the contracts will be so modified as to abolish the obligation on the *fazendeiro*, or São Paulo landed proprietor, to allow Italian consuls free access to his estates and to give them facilities for supervising the execution of contracts, to suppress any mention of the inviolability of the immigrant's residence, and, finally, to limit

(4) *O Paiz*, 20 Apr. 1922. Rio de Janeiro.

the obligations of the proprietor in regard to the education of the immigrants' children to those laid down in the laws of the State respecting the instruction of Brazilian and foreign minors in foreign languages.

These negotiations have to some extent excited public opinion in Italy also, and this has in turn reacted on parliamentary circles.

MIGRATION STATISTICS

French Colonies and Protectorates

The provisional results of the census of 6 March 1921, which covered the resident population (*population légale*), contains the following information, which it is interesting to compare with the figures for 1911 ⁽⁵⁾.

<i>Algeria</i>	<i>1921</i>	<i>Comparison with 1911</i>
Natives	4,388,931	105,957 (increase)
Europeans	807,805	21,257 (increase)
Total	<u>5,196,736</u>	<u>127,214</u> (increase)
<i>Tunis</i>	<i>1921</i>	<i>Comparison with 1911</i>
French	54,477	8,433 (increase)
Italians	84,819	4,863 (decrease)
Maltese	13,509	2,209 (increase)
Spaniards	664	77 (increase)
Other Europeans	<u>2,656</u>	<u>193</u> (increase)
Total Europeans	<u>156,125</u>	6,039 (increase)
Total population	2,095,000	

Migration Movements to and from Germany

The Federal Minister of the Interior has submitted a Memorandum ⁽⁶⁾ to the Reichstag dealing with immigration to, and emigration from, Germany in the years 1910 to 1920 ⁽⁷⁾. The number of immigrants to Germany during and since the war is estimated in the Memorandum as follows: Germans resident in foreign countries, 190,000 to 200,000 (including 20,000 residents in German colonies); inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine, 120,000; refugees from other ceded territory, particularly in East Germany, 500,000; persons of German extraction, principally from Russia, 100,000 (of whom 30,000 left the country again, leaving a balance of 70,000); inhabitants of the Baltic countries, 25,000 (of whom 5,000 left the country again, leaving a balance of 20,000); Jews from Eastern Europe (excess of immigration over emigration), 50,000 to 60,000. If these figures are added, it will be seen that the number of such immigrants during and after the war amounted to about 1,000,000 persons.

The war exercised a great influence on overseas emigration. From 1910 to 1913 the average annual number of overseas emigrants from

⁽⁵⁾ Cf. *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Jan., Feb., and Mar. 1922.

⁽⁶⁾ *Denkschrift über die Ein- und Auswanderung*.

⁽⁷⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, pp. 309 sqq., and No. 6, June 1922, pp. 968 sqq. The figures given this month are supplementary to those in the June issue.

Germany was about 22,000. In 1914 the numbers fell to 11,803, in 1915-1917 the number was negligible, and in 1918 there were no oversea emigrants at all. In 1919 the figure rose again to 3,157, and in 1920 to 9,607.

Emigrants in Transit through the Netherlands

Statistics of emigrants in transit have not as yet been collected by many countries. Considerable interest attaches to a return of this kind dealing with oversea emigration in transit during 1921 which has been made by the Netherlands Government⁽⁸⁾.

It was observed that 38,600 emigrants passed through the frontier station of Oldenzaal, which is used by emigrants in transit. The emigrants may be approximately divided as follows :

- 7,000 embarked at Amsterdam direct for oversea countries
- 17,000 embarked at Rotterdam direct for oversea countries
- 9,000 embarked at Rotterdam for oversea countries by way of England⁽⁹⁾.
- 6,000 crossed the land frontier returning to their native land.

Finland

Provisional statistics which have been recently published give 3,557 persons as emigrating during 1921 as compared with 5,595 persons during 1920. The number of emigrants from towns was 909 (1,165 in 1920) and from the country 2,648 (4,430 in 1920). The total number of male emigrants was 1,280 (2,516 in 1920), of which number 274 (419 in 1920) were from the towns; the total of female emigrants amounted to 2,277 (3,079 in 1920), of which number 635 (746 in 1920) were from the towns⁽¹⁰⁾.

Stowaways to the United States

The latest report⁽¹¹⁾ of the Commissioner-General for Immigration in the United States shows that the number of stowaways who arrive in the country is continually increasing. In the fiscal year 1919/1920 there were 2,392 stowaways and in the following year 3,539. It was ascertained that 1,548 foreigners arrived in this way in the port of New York alone. Some steamship lines normally had 25 to 30 stowaways on board and one vessel had as many as 57. A vessel which arrived at San Francisco had 73 Chinese stowaways who appeared to constitute a complete crew. Nearly all these immigrants were at once deported. A few, however, received authorisation to remain in the country.

The May issue of the *Monthly Labour Review*, published by the Department of Labour of the United States, has a review of immigra-

⁽⁸⁾ It is interesting to compare these figures with the figures of emigration from the Netherlands which appear in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, p. 805.

⁽⁹⁾ *Tydschrift van de Nederlandsche Werkloosheidsraad*, 1922.

⁽¹⁰⁾ *Hufvudstadsbladet*, 18 Apr. 1922.

⁽¹¹⁾ *Annual Report of the Commissioner-General of Immigration for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June*. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

tion into the United States. The review includes statistics communicated by the Commissioner-General of Immigration, Mr. W. W. Husband, long extracts from a report submitted to the Minister of Labour by Mrs. Lilian Russell Moore on the prospects of European emigration to the United States, and a report on the work of the appeal tribunal for immigrants, which, under the title of the United States Immigration Service Board of Review, deals with the application of the Act of 19 May 1921 (the Three per Cent. Act.).

Brazil

The Brazilian Government has recently published a report, submitted to the President of the Republic, showing the position as regards emigration and immigration until the end of 1920. The immigration figures for the years 1912 to 1920 are :

1912	180,182
1913	192,683
1914	82,572
1915	32,206
1916	34,003
1917	31,192
1918	20,501
1919	37,898
1920	71,027

The figures for 1920 may be analysed separately as follows. Of the immigrants, 49,080 were men and 21,947 women ; the majority (40,508) arrived at the port of Rio de Janeiro ; the next most important port was Santos (São Paulo), where 28,624 immigrants arrived. Immigration through other ports took place to a small extent only. The number of those who came at their own expense was 63,298, while 7,729 received government subsidies. Again, 1,987 were Brazilians and 69,040 foreigners ; of the latter 33,883 were Portuguese, 10,005 Italians, 9,136 Spaniards, 4,853 Turkish-Arabians, 4,120 Germans, and 1,013 Japanese. There were very few immigrants from South America, the largest number coming from the Argentine (191).

26,458	immigrants arrived on vessels flying the British flag
20,670	» » » » French »
12,186	» » » » Italian »
6,174	» » » » Netherlands flag
3,976	» » » » Brazilian »
1,031	» » » » Japanese

The number of emigrants in 1920 was 35,759 ; of these 16,086 were Portuguese, 6,143 Italians, 5,206 Spaniards, 1,715 Brazilians, 1,537 Turkish-Arabians, and 216 Japanese.

The statistics for 1920 also give further interesting information concerning the 40,508 immigrants who arrived by the port of Rio de Janeiro (29,097 men and 11,411 women). Of these immigrants, 37,507 came from Europe, 866 from Africa, 784 from North America, 1,284 from South America, and 14 from Central America ; 29,021 of the immigrants were travelling alone, while 11,487 constituted 3,565 families ; 26,242 were unmarried, 13,709 married, and 557 widows and widowers. The number of immigrants under the age of 12 was 2,556 male and 2,166 female, while the number over 12 was 26,540 male and 9,245 female.

It was observed that it was rural workers who for the most part migrated with their families. Of these workers 3,426 constituted 941 families, while 3,985 travelled alone. Among the day labourers there

were 21,599 travelling alone, and 2,546 families, consisting of 7,837 persons. Among immigrants of other occupations there were 3,837 travelling alone and 72 families consisting of 224 persons.

Only a small number of immigrants, namely, 355 travelling alone and 1,923 members of families, received hospitality in the Ile des Fleurs to which they were entitled by law. The number of immigrants sent on to the interior of the country was 3,274.

On the hundredth anniversary of the institution of immigration statistics, the Government published a table showing the total immigration into Brazil during the last hundred years. The table is of interest as showing the various racial elements which have contributed to the population of the country. It should be noted that for ten of the early years no immigration figures are given, and that for five further years the immigrants are not divided according to their country of origin. Statistics for the whole period cover 3,648,382 immigrants, of whom 245,190 belonged to "various countries" which are not specified. Of the other immigrants 1,388,881 were Italians, 1,055,154 Portuguese, 510,514 Spaniards, 131,441 Germans, and 105,470 Russians (including Poles). While from 1881 to 1904 the largest number of immigrants came from Italy, in the subsequent period it was Portugal which supplied the greatest number. In addition to Europeans and Americans, 47,242 Turkish-Arabians, 29,306 Japanese, and 498 Chinese entered the country during the period 1908 to 1920 ⁽¹²⁾.

Return of Germans to South West Africa

The Administrator of South West Africa, speaking in the Advisory Council, recently stated that since 1919 he and his predecessor had issued to Germans a total of 349 return permits for men, 542 for women, and 303 for children, making 1,194 in all. Permission for return was given in nearly all cases in which the applicants possessed land in South West Africa, even if they had previously been expelled on account of infractions of the law ⁽¹³⁾.

GOVERNMENT POLICY AND LEGISLATION

British Empire

The Bill "to make better provision for furthering British settlement in His Majesty's Oversea Dominions", which was foreshadowed in the Speech from the Throne at the commencement of the present session of Parliament, has since been introduced into the House of Commons. It gives power to the Government to co-operate in carrying out "agreed schemes" in association with a Dominion Government or with approved private organisations, either in Great Britain or the Dominions. An agreed scheme may be either a development or settlement scheme, or one for facilitating migration by assistance with passages, initial allowances, special training, or otherwise. It is laid down that no scheme shall be agreed to without the consent of the

⁽¹²⁾ REPUBLICA DOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DO BRASIL : *Relatorio Apresentado Ao. Sr. Presidente da Republica pelo Ministro de Estado dos negocios da Agricultura, Industria, e Commercio*. Rio de Janeiro, 1921.

⁽¹³⁾ *Der Auslandsdeutsche*, May 1922.

British Treasury, which must be satisfied that the government or organisation concerned is making a proper contribution to the expenses of the scheme. The contribution of the British Government is not in any case to exceed one-half, and its liability to make contributions is not to extend beyond a period of fifteen years after the passing of the Act. The aggregate amount expended by it is not to exceed £1,500,000 in the present financial year or £3,000,000 in any subsequent financial year.

Colonel Amery, in moving the Second Reading of the Bill, said that it gave effect to a resolution passed by the Conference of Prime Ministers, held in London last year⁽¹⁴⁾, with regard to assisted emigration. The Government was now of opinion, as a result of experience with ex-Service men, that not more than one-third of the passage money in the case of adults should actually be given as a free grant, though another third, or in special cases even two-thirds, would be advanced as a loan. Special importance was assigned to juvenile migration, to the migration of women, to hostels for women, and arrangements for reception generally, and to the preliminary testing and training, both in Great Britain and overseas, of those who intended to go on the land. It had been proved that a very short test was quite sufficient to weed out the men who would never make farmers and to teach the rest enough to save them from feeling fools when they came up against the most elementary operations of farm work on the other side.

It was doubtful, however, whether they would ever get enough adult men to meet the needs of the Dominions for workers to open up their land, but they had in Great Britain a vast juvenile population not yet definitely settled down to industrialism. An even more important aspect of the problem was that of the emigration of women. Here, too, much could be done by training to enable those without any experience to enter successfully upon domestic work overseas.

In dealing with land settlement and development schemes, Colonel Amery said that these were of even greater importance than schemes of assisted emigration, for the "direct settlement of men on the land as primary producers must be the foundation of any broad policy of economic regeneration in the Empire". There would be either individual settlement schemes, under which men without sufficient capital would receive advances to enable them to set up as farmers overseas, or else large-scale development schemes for opening up extensive new areas by the clearing of forests, the building of roads and railways, and works of irrigation, which would give employment to large numbers of men without capital and without experience.

Normal expenditure was fixed at £3,000,000 per annum, and of this it was estimated that about £1,000,000 would be required for schemes of assisted migration; a similar sum would be contributed by the Dominion Government, so that £2,000,000 would be available altogether. He reckoned that this would make possible an annual assisted emigration of between 60,000 and 80,000 persons to begin with, and a considerably larger figure eventually, if the repayment of advances was added to the fund for fresh assistance. It was agreed at last year's Conference that the British contribution to schemes of individual settlement should not exceed an advance of £300 a settler, about one-third of the minimum total capital required. On that basis it would be possible to settle about 3,000 heads of families as farmers for an

(14) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, pp. 119-121.

expenditure of £1,000,000. Block settlement schemes might yield larger results for a smaller immediate contribution. In this connection they were considering a scheme already agreed upon between the Australian Commonwealth and the Government of Western Australia, under which the latter undertook to settle 75,000 persons for an expenditure of £6,000,000, provided that the Commonwealth and the United Kingdom each contributed a sum equivalent to one-third of the interest for five years on the successive instalments raised. This would cost the British Government, over a period of seven or eight years, £600,000, or about £8 per settler.

The debate which followed this speech was, generally speaking, very favourable to the principles of the Bill, though several criticisms were made on points of detail. Mr. Clynes, who spoke for the Labour Party, said the measure would take away some of the best of the population in Great Britain, and asked whether the country could afford this loss. He was anxious to know what societies would be considered as "approved organisations", and hoped there was no intention of subsidising or supporting out of taxes "private agencies whose sole interest had been in the past the securing for the moment the gain to be derived from payment of the passage money". He emphasised the need for securing the good will of Labour, both organised and non-organised.

The Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, in reply, said that Treasury approval would relate solely to the financial side of the proposals. He emphasised the fact that there would be no compulsion whatever, the sole object of the Bill being to grant emigrants "an opportunity if they wish to avail themselves of it". He could not state which organisations would be approved and which would not, but the only test would be "whether a society or organisation is endeavouring honestly to assist the work in hand".

The Second Reading of the Bill was carried without opposition. It has since been passed by both Houses of Parliaments, and has received the Royal Assent.

Australia

The Dominion in which the greatest possibility of co-operation with Great Britain exists seems to be Australia, but the position is far from clear. Reference has already been made to Mr. Hughes' proposals and to the difficulties which have arisen between the Commonwealth and the States.

Mr. Collier, the leader of the Labour Party in West Australia, has declined an invitation to assist the Mitchell Immigration scheme⁽¹⁵⁾. He denies that the State is able to absorb 25,000 immigrants annually in present conditions. He and his Party are not opposed to any practical effort to double the population, but he considers it idle to imagine that the importation of immigrants from overseas is all that is necessary. The lack of policy both in the State and the Commonwealth for rural settlement for the family man is resulting in the congestion of the cities and the depopulation of many rural areas⁽¹⁶⁾.

On the other hand, negotiations are said to be in progress between the Commonwealth and New South Wales Governments for the development of the railways for immigration settlement. Though no-

⁽¹⁵⁾ For particulars of the West Australian scheme, see the *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, pp. 810.

⁽¹⁶⁾ *Times*, 8 Apr. 1922. London.

particular locality is mentioned, it is understood that a beginning will be made in the region of the junction of the Darling and Murray Rivers and the Riverina district between the Rivers Murrumbidgee and Darling, which Sir Joseph Carruthers advocated in his recent million farms campaign ⁽¹⁷⁾.

South Africa

The High Commissioner for South Africa in London announced on 16 May 1922 that, notwithstanding repeated warnings issued by the Government of the Union drawing attention to the conditions of unemployment prevailing there and stating that immigration which was likely to cause or aggravate those conditions would be restricted, immigrants continue to go to South Africa in large numbers who are not possessed of means to maintain themselves, and who by reason of their economic condition are undesirable in the present circumstances of the country. The High Commissioner warns intending immigrants that the provisions of the Immigrants Regulation Act in regard to persons who on economic grounds, or standard or habits of life, are deemed to be unsuited to the requirements of the Union under present conditions will be strictly enforced.

A debate on the immigration regulations took place in the Union Parliament on the Appropriation Bill at the end of March ⁽¹⁸⁾. The Government was asked to tighten up the Act, on the ground that undesirable persons were coming in whom no other country would receive. The Minister of the Interior, in reply, said that the desirability of promulgating new regulations was under consideration, but the whole subject was over-crowded with difficulties. With regard to enforcing the educational test more strictly ⁽¹⁹⁾, it did not follow that ignorant men were always the most dangerous; sometimes the man who was well educated and could speak a number of languages was the worst character. He thought it would be better to proceed on the lines of deporting those who misbehaved themselves.

Canada

The Governor-General, in his speech at the opening of Parliament on 9 March 1922, said that the stream of immigration to the Dominion was much interrupted and restricted during the war. The Government were fully alive to the importance of the question and would use every reasonable endeavour to attract to their country people of the most desirable class, with particular regard to settlement on their undeveloped lands ⁽²⁰⁾.

On 5 March the Hon. Charles Stewart, Minister of the Interior in the new Government, who is responsible for the Department of Immigration and Colonisation, discussed the question of immigration in an interview which is published in the *Manitoba Free Press*. He said it was the purpose of the Government to lay down the ground-

⁽¹⁷⁾ *Morning Post*, 20 Apr. 1922. London.

⁽¹⁸⁾ *The Star*, 28 Mar. 1922. Johannesburg.

⁽¹⁹⁾ An announcement has been made that in future this test will be more strictly applied.

⁽²⁰⁾ *Journal of the Parliaments of the Empire*, Apr. 1922.

work for a continuous policy of activity and propaganda, but this year, at least, that policy would be concerned solely with bringing in people of agricultural tendencies and capabilities, and household workers. Efforts would be made to induce settlers to come from the northern European countries, of which Holland, in particular, offered a fair field. The best country of all, however, apart from Great Britain, seemed to be the United States. A strong campaign was about to be waged in the Middle States, where the high price of land was quickly turning the attention of the renters and even of many farmers to the good lands in Canada to be secured at so very much lower prices. The intention was to create machinery, not necessitating state-aided immigration, which would bring to Canada a greater number of permanently settled immigrants. For these immigrants a follow-up system was being devised, but he was not able to define its exact lines. In order, however, to make the new citizens as contented as possible, development was being given to the policy of bringing out from the old countries young people, say, from 13 to 14 years of age and upwards; this was being worked in conjunction with Ontario ⁽²¹⁾.

Addressing the annual meeting of the Canadian Council of Immigration of Women on 22 March, Mr. Stewart said a larger programme of immigration encouragement could not be embarked upon at present in view of the unemployment situation. What was needed was farmers with capital, and farm labourers ⁽²²⁾.

In connection with Mr. Stewart's statement with reference to immigrants from northern Europe, an interesting report comes from Canada to the effect that the Government of Saskatchewan, in co-operation with the Federal Department of Immigration, is arranging to take farm labourers from Holland. They will be guaranteed one year's engagement with Western farmers.

On 16 May 1922 new regulations were announced by the Immigration and Colonisation Department. The former monetary test as a means of determining the immigrant's fitness has been dropped, and the new regulations permit the entry of the following classes: (1) *bond fide* agriculturists having sufficient means to begin farming; (2) *bond fide* farm labourers intending to follow that occupation and having reasonable assurance of employment; and (3) female domestic servants intending to follow that occupation and having reasonable prospects of employment. While this, apparently, restricts immigration to the classes named, a further provision empowers the officers of the Department to admit nationals of countries having special treaties or agreements respecting immigration, and British subjects from Great Britain, Ireland, the United States, Newfoundland, or any of the self-governing Dominions who have sufficient means of maintenance pending employment. The American citizen may enter if able to show that his labour or service is required in Canada. Immigrants other than British must have passports from their countries of origin, and those from Europe must have passports endorsed by the Canadian agents in Europe. Asiatics, except where there are special agreements in force, must have \$250 each. These regulations are regarded as greatly relaxing the system formerly in force, and as being likely to stimulate immigration of a desirable kind ⁽²³⁾.

⁽²¹⁾ *Manitoba Free Press*, 6 Mar. 1922. Winnipeg.

⁽²²⁾ *Ibid.* 23 Mar. 1922.

⁽²³⁾ *Morning Post*, 7 May 1922. London.

On 24 March Mr. J. S. Woodsworth, Labour Member of Parliament for Winnipeg, introduced a Bill to amend the Immigration Act. He said that in 1919 certain amendments were made to that Act which had the effect of depriving those who were not born in Canada of the right to trial by jury and made them subject to deportation without trial. The purpose of the Bill was to repeal those sections of the Act, so that every man in the Dominion, whether a Canadian by birth or one who had lived in Canada, would be assured of the right of trial by jury. The amendment referred to was made at the time of the strike riots in Winnipeg. According to press reports Parliament has appointed a special committee to investigate the question ⁽²⁴⁾.

A question was asked in the Canadian House of Commons regarding Chinese immigration, and in reply the Minister of the Interior stated that there was no treaty or agreement in force affecting Chinese immigration to Canada. There was an understanding in effect dealing with the immigration to Canada of Japanese, but it was of a confidential character ⁽²⁵⁾.

New Zealand

On 27 January, on the vote of £225,000 for the Department of Immigration, a discussion took place on the policy of the Government. Mr. P. Fraser, a Labour member, said there should be a vast reduction in the vote. There were numbers of members of the Engineers' Union who had recently come out to New Zealand who were out of work. Under the Government's policy the workers of the Dominion whose wages were being reduced would have to pay to bring workers out to compete with themselves for their jobs.

The Hon. W. Nosworthy (Minister of Immigration) in reply said that the country still needed about 24,000 inhabitants to make up for the leeway caused by the war. Not one person was coming to the Dominion who had not accommodation and employment to which to go. Many of the immigrants were doing well and assisting in the development of the country. There was only one system of immigration now in vogue—the nominated. Those on the books would be brought out as opportunity offered, and by the time that had been done he thought New Zealand would be a more desirable place for immigrants. The vote of £225,000 was then agreed to.

On 10 February in the House of Representatives the Minister of Internal Affairs stated, in answer to a question relating to the number of Asiatics entering New Zealand, that the working of the Immigration Restriction Act 1920 was very successful. His own opinion was that the Act would be copied all over the British Empire, because it was the most ingenious method of regulating immigration yet devised. Speaking of Hindus, the Minister said that the regulations were being enforced without causing more inconvenience to India than could possibly be avoided, and the statistics showed that the position was under control ⁽²⁶⁾.

It may be recalled that the Act of 1920 institutes a system whereby no person who is not of British birth and parentage can enter New Zealand without a permit, for which he must send written application from his country of origin. A person is not considered to be of

⁽²⁴⁾ *Journal of the Parliaments of the Empire*, Vol. III, No. 2, Apr. 1922.

⁽²⁵⁾ *Manitoba Free Press*, 7 Apr. 1922, Winnipeg.

⁽²⁶⁾ *Journal of the Parliaments of the Empire*, Vol. III, No. 2, Apr. 1922.

British birth and parentage "by reason that he is an aboriginal native or the descendant of an aboriginal native of any Dominion other than the Dominion of New Zealand or of any colony or other possession or of any Protectorate of His Majesty". On this application he must state his reasons for desiring to settle in New Zealand, the business or occupation he proposes to undertake in New Zealand, his birth and parentage, the number and ages of his family, his means, and other details which may be prescribed.

Immigration to Kenya and Tanganyika

Mr. Winston Churchill, Secretary of State for the Colonies, in reply to a question in the British House of Commons on 7 March with regard to restrictions on the immigration of British working men to Kenya Colony and the mandated territory of Tanganyika, stated that "any restrictions which exist in the territories mentioned are of general application. In Kenya, if an immigrant is without visible means of support or likely to become a pauper or a public charge, he is a 'prohibited immigrant' and his entry is forbidden. If an immigrant appears to come within this description he may be required to deposit a sum of 375 florins, which is returned to him if within six months he can show that he is not a 'prohibited immigrant'. Immigrants may also be refused entry on the ground of insanity, dangerous disease, criminal or moral obliquity, and the like. The regulations in Tanganyika territory are very similar, except that no sum is specified as a deposit, and all Europeans are required at present to obtain a permit of entry from the Secretary to the Administration". In answer to a further question, he stated that "Kenya Colony, in which nine-tenths of the population are natives, requires to be treated in a special way. We do not want to have incursions of white immigrants who cannot maintain themselves, or of Indians in a similar condition, who will undoubtedly be thrown on the top of the natives of the colony" (27).

Immigration to Rhodesia

The Administrator of Rhodesia has published a notice stating that all immigrants arriving in Rhodesia for the first time in order to obtain employment must show that they are in possession of at least £50. Persons who claim to have obtained fixed employment must show that their contract is for at least three months. Persons who are not able to fulfil these conditions are dealt with according to the law as prohibited immigrants.

Czechoslovakia

The Act of 19 July 1921, concerning the supplements allowed by the Government to the unemployment benefit paid by industrial associations, provides for equal treatment of national and foreign workers on condition that the foreign country in question has similar institutions and allows equal treatment to Czechoslovaks and its own nationals. A special clause lays down that the supplementary allowance is not to be paid if the claimant is not domiciled on the territory of the Czechoslovak Republic.

(27) Ibid.

Position of Foreign Workers in Russia

The part which could be played by skilled foreign workers in the reconstruction of Russia is discussed by Mr. Chicherin, the Russian Delegate to the Genoa Conference, in an interview with an Italian journal (28). Mr. Chicherin states that Russia is anxious to begin the work of reconstruction, and sets forth the conditions which are necessary to the success of the undertaking.

The privations from which our workers in Russia are suffering are the result of four years of blockade and of the difficult economic situation of the country. Foreign workers who came to Russia would feel these conditions very severely, as they would not be accustomed to them. We had an example in the case of foreign workers who came to Russia in the hope of finding better conditions, but were soon discouraged by the hardships of life in Russia at the present time. These workers quickly lost heart and took up an attitude of hostility to the Russian Government. It is thus neither possible nor desirable that workers should come to Russia unless they can be properly housed and can obtain supplementary allowances in addition to the rations of foodstuffs and other necessary articles. If foreign workers immigrate, it will therefore be necessary to prepare accommodation for them and to concentrate them in districts where they will be able to obtain what they require. Foreign companies which wish to send workers to Russia should undertake to provide them with accommodation and to supplement the rations which they will receive. Unorganised individual immigration into Russia is absolutely undesirable. Foreign workers cannot be sent to Russia until preparations have been made to provide them with satisfactory conditions.

According to certain reports (29) the Soviet Government appears to be encouraging agricultural colonisation. It is stated that a number of Germans have obtained 60,000 dessiatin of land which has been abandoned in the Government of Odessa, in order to set up a model farm. Work is to begin this season.

Immigration to Asiatic Turkey

A Commission which is attached to the Ministry of Economics of the Angora Government has laid down the following conditions for the institution of foreign undertakings and the introduction of foreign labour into the country.

(1) The capital of every company which is set up in Anatolia must include at least 50 per cent. of native capital, or, failing this, must be paid into the exchequer of the national Government.

(2) Registers, account books, and correspondence must be drawn up in Turkish.

(3) The manual and non-manual workers employed must be Turkish subjects. If the directors or technical experts are foreign subjects their names must be submitted to the Turkish officials for approval. In this case they are not subject to the regulations which apply to foreigners, particularly if they are persons in receipt of concessions or officials employed in the mines (30).

(28) *Correspondenza settimanale dell' Ufficio dell' Emigrazione.*

(29) *Pester Lloyd*, 9 May 1922. Budapest.

(30) *Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro*, 30 Mar. 1911.

Immigration Legislation in the United States

In the Senate discussion on the Bill to extend the Three per Cent. Act for two years ⁽²¹⁾, an interesting speech was made by Senator Colt, who had charge of the Bill. He said that the Immigration Committee of the Senate was in favour of extending the Act for two years rather than one, so that Congress should have ample time to prepare a detailed immigration law. He referred to two striking facts brought out in the operation of the existing Act, namely, that immigration from Northern and Western Europe is of a permanent character, while that from Southern and Eastern Europe is of a temporary character, and is compensated for by the departure or home-returning movement of many among this group of aliens. From 1 July 1921 to 28 February 1922, according to Senator Colt, there was a net immigration into the United States of 42,414. The number of alien immigrants admitted from Northern and Western Europe was 51,981, and the number returning 15,930, making a net gain of 36,051; from Southern and Eastern Europe there were 119,606 immigrants, and 113,243 returned, making a net gain of 6,363 ⁽²²⁾. Another point was brought out in the same speech, namely, that while 197,557 immigrants were admissible under the Act from Northern and Western Europe, only 51,981 came. It would appear that conditions following the war had tended to check immigration from these countries.

Eventually, in view of the differences of opinion which were found to exist between the Senate and the House of Representatives concerning the time for which the Three per Cent. Act was to be maintained, the Emergency Immigration Act (i.e. the Act extending the Three per Cent. Act) was referred to a conference committee, which proposed that the period should be extended for two years more. This proposal was adopted by Congress, and the Emergency Immigration Act has now been signed by the President.

The extending Act contains two important amendments. The first makes steamship companies, bringing immigrants in excess of the 3 per cent. quota to the United States, liable to a fine of \$200 for each immigrant so brought, and to the payment of return costs for the immigrant. The second increases from one to five years the period of time aliens must have resided in contiguous countries before being admitted to the United States without regard to immigration quotas.

The Three per Cent. Act is based on the census figures for 1910, and on this point correspondence has taken place between Mr. Ricci, the Italian Ambassador, and the State Department ⁽²³⁾. Mr. Ricci appealed against the use of the 1910 census figures in fixing the quotas under the Act, on the ground that "now that the results of the 1920 census are not only known but published, the establishing of the quotas of the 1910 census would result in an open discrimination between peoples of different nationalities. . . ." It seemed to him that the Act violated, in this respect, the 1871 Treaty of Commerce with Italy which contained a most favoured nation clause. In a later Note, dated 24 January, Mr. Ricci stated that Italy would be particularly affected by a decision to continue taking the 1910 figures, "as its greater flood of emigration to this country

⁽²¹⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 980-981.

⁽²²⁾ It should be noted, however, that there was a net loss in the case of Poland, Greece, and Portugal.

⁽²³⁾ *Washington Post*, 7 Apr. 1922, and *Correspondenza settimanale dell'Ufficio dell'Emigrazione*, 30 Apr. 1922.

happened between 1910 and 1914." Since the House of Representatives decided in favour of extending the law for another year, the Ambassador has made further representations on the same subject.

Mr. Hughes, Secretary of State, in his replies, said that "the effect of the proposed law on existing treaty stipulations has been considered by the Department [of State], which reached the opinion that it would contravene no provisions of existing treaties." He forwarded the appeals of the Italian Ambassador to the Chairman of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalisation, with a covering letter in which he states that the restrictions imposed "are of a general character, and therefore do not appear to be discriminating against Italy or any other country."

It is stated in the United States⁽³⁴⁾ that the Irish Free State will make an early attempt to obtain from the United States Government an independent quota under the Three per Cent. Act. The British quota for the year just ended has by no means been exhausted, and this is apparently due largely to the falling off in Irish emigration.

The Merchant Marine Bill, which is at present under discussion in the United States, contains some provisions of particular interest to emigrants. It provides that when 50 per cent. of the annual quota of immigrants has arrived on foreign ships, after deducting the number rejected and deported to their country of origin, no more immigrants will be admitted unless they arrive on a ship flying the American flag; this does not apply, however, to those coming from countries contiguous to the United States. The Shipping Board will have the power to raise or lower this percentage, if it can be shown either that United States ships do not run between a particular nation and the American coast, or that the nation concerned has no emigration service to the United States. A fine not exceeding \$200 can be imposed on shipowners, masters, or other agents who attempt to land emigrants in contravention of this Act.

Among other legislative projects is one introduced into the Senate by Mr. Shortridge of California, which proposes the annual enrolment of all aliens in the United States, the payment by each alien of an annual fee of \$24 and the codification of the naturalisation laws. The fees are to go into a "citizenship instruction fund", to be used in the education of aliens in the United States form of government and its ideals⁽³⁵⁾. Another Bill (H. R. 10314), introduced by Mr. Focht, is of interest in view of the protest, already mentioned, made by the Italian Ambassador against the 1910 census figures as the basis for the Three per Cent. Act. This Bill would take a still earlier census, that of 1900, and by its terms only "1 per cent. of the naturalised, resident, adult foreign-born persons of any nationality" at that date would be admitted to the United States⁽³⁶⁾.

Finally, a Bill, which has been laid before the House of Representatives by Mr. Rogers, raises serious problems of international law and is at present being considered by the Commission on Foreign Affairs. The Preamble states that the inspection of emigrants should take place as far as possible before embarkation and that all emigrants who will not be admitted to the United States should be refused permission to start. It is further stated that, in spite of the objections raised by foreign countries, the existence of the necessary conditions

⁽³⁴⁾ *Evening Post*, 4 Apr. 1922. New York.

⁽³⁵⁾ *New York Times*, 6 Apr. 1922.

⁽³⁶⁾ *Foreign-Born*, Apr. 1922, p. 114.

can only be established by United States officials carrying on their functions on foreign territory. It is therefore proposed that the Secretary of State should be requested to inform the House of Representatives whether, in his opinion, it would be practical and desirable for the United States to undertake negotiations for treaties or other agreements according to which the regulations set up to ensure the application of emigration legislation should include provision for inspection before embarkation. If the Secretary of State should reply in the affirmative, it is proposed that he should be requested to undertake negotiations with the foreign Governments concerned⁽³⁷⁾.

It is interesting to compare this proposal with the resolutions on this subject which were adopted by the International Emigration Commission⁽³⁸⁾.

A Bill providing for the deportation of aliens who violate the National Prohibition Act 1919, or Acts concerning the manufacture, sale, etc., of opium or coca leaves, and denying readmission to such persons, was passed by the House of Representatives on 5 April, and sent to the Senate.

The question of how to select immigrants is treated from a novel point of view by Mr. Arthur Sweeney, Professor of Medical Jurisprudence at the University of Minnesota, in the *North American Review* for May⁽³⁹⁾. He advocates a psychological test to measure the desirability of the immigrant, and bases his arguments on the mental census of army recruits during the war, made by Major Yerkes. While the literacy test is often unfair, excluding men of great natural intelligence who have had the misfortune to have no schooling, the mental test, according to Professor Sweeney, reveals sheer native ability irrespective of education. He proposes that an applicant for a passport should be asked, in his own language, to supply missing parts of pictures, trace his way through mazes, count cubes variously arranged, and so on. He urges that this mental test, as well as the customary physical tests, should be made in foreign ports before embarkation.

WELFARE AND PROTECTION WORK

British Empire Assistance to Settlers in South Africa

The annual report for 1920-1921 of the Department of Lands has recently been issued⁽⁴⁰⁾. At the end of the year the capital sum due (for land sold, advances to settlers, etc.) was £3,635,424 and for leased land, held mostly with the right of purchase, £2,333,000. Upwards of £1,000,000 was spent out of loan and revenue funds, and more than £500,000 was recovered, including £170,000 in respect of the sale of Crown lands. About £210,000 was advanced to settlers for stock, equipment, and permanent improvements.

⁽³⁷⁾ *Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro*, 28 Apr. 1922.

⁽³⁸⁾ Resolution 20 of the International Emigration Commission lays down that "every Member shall make provision for an effective examination of emigrants in every port where emigrants embark and, if desirable, at the chief points of the frontier through which emigrants pass"; while Resolution 21 states that "it would seem to be desirable that special Conventions made between the states concerned should stipulate the conditions under which examination of emigrants shall take place" etc. The full text of these Resolutions is given in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 109.

⁽³⁹⁾ Quoted in the *New York Times*, 30 Apr. 1922.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ *Rand Daily Mail*, 25 Mar. 1922.

Since the foundation of the Union about 726,000 morgen ⁽⁴¹⁾ of land have been bought for a sum of £2,666,000. There have been 8,146 allottees, and the area allotted, including Crown land, has been 8,885,000 morgen ⁽⁴¹⁾, valued at nearly £5 millions; these figures make no allowance for surrenders and cancellations or for holdings not taken up after allotment; they show considerable activity in the direction of land settlement.

Private organisations are also assisting in this work. The 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association, which was formed two years ago to introduce into South Africa settlers of the type required in the Union, possessed of certain means, during the year 1921 brought 190 settlers, accompanied by 150 women and children, into the country from overseas. These new settlers receive practical tuition from progressive farmers and study at agricultural colleges before commencing farming on their own account. Arrangements have been made to deal with at least 600 adult male settlers during 1922.

Reciprocal Trade Union Rights between Germany and Poland

According to an agreement which was concluded at the beginning of the present year by the Confederation of Christian Trade Unions of Germany (*Gesamtverband der christlichen Gewerkschaften Deutschlands*) and the Central Union of German Men and Women Workers in Poland (Christian), which has its headquarters at Bromberg, the members of each of these organisations may be admitted to the other organisation without formality if they emigrate from one country to the other. In calculating the grants due from German Christian unions to German members who have come from Poland, account is taken of the lower rate of contributions paid by the unions in Poland, in order that the proportion of grants to contributions may be kept constant. Rights acquired by a worker domiciled in those districts of Prussia which have been ceded to Poland, in virtue of his membership of a trade union affiliated to the Confederation of Christian Trade Unions of Germany, remain intact irrespective of the time which has elapsed since they were acquired, provided that since the time when the cession of territory took place the worker has become a member of the Central Union of German Men and Women Workers in Poland.

Official Information Bureau in Denmark

The Danish Government has recently undertaken an enquiry into the action which has been taken in various countries for the protection of emigrants. It has, in consequence, decided to set up an official Information Bureau, attached to the Department of Foreign Affairs. The Bureau will keep in touch with private emigration associations of good repute and will thus form a central body for supervising emigrants and supplying information ⁽⁴²⁾.

The General Emigration Office in Italy

The central office of the General Emigration Office has recently been reorganised. The most important innovation is the institution

⁽⁴¹⁾ 1 morgen = 0.85 hectares or 2.12 acres.

⁽⁴²⁾ *Tydschrift van de Nederlandsche Werkloosheidsraad*, 1922, p. 216.

of a central inspectorate whose duties will be (a) the conclusion of contracts connected with the administrative work of the Office, the supervision of accounts and questions of discipline arising in branch offices in Italy and abroad (offices and refuges in ports; offices at the frontier and in frontier zones; offices in foreign countries); (b) supervision of the work of private organisations for the assistance of emigrants and of subsidised offices; (c) enquiry into clandestine emigration agencies at work in Italy; (d) enquiry into frauds, etc., practised on emigrants; (e) collaboration with the passport authorities; (f) supervision of special and technical schools (⁴³).

Since 30 March 1922 the Emigration Office has published a daily paper under the title *Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro*, containing notes on emigration and colonisation, the state of the labour market and unemployment, labour and co-operation, shipping, and other points which affect the interests of Italians in foreign countries.

Of 148 teachers' training colleges which have been requested by the Emigration Office to institute emigration courses for teachers, 129 have instituted courses of this kind according to the programme suggested by the Office. The courses are so popular that in many cases two or more parallel series have been instituted (⁴⁴).

The Emigration Office has decided to institute an enquiry in various countries on two points :

(1) What is the situation as regards the recognition in other countries of diplomas granted by Italian universities and schools? What supplementary examinations, if any, are required, and what training is necessary as a condition of authorisation to exercise a profession?

(2) What are the prospects and the opportunities of employment in various professions abroad?

The enquiry into the first question is nearing completion and results will shortly be published (⁴⁵).

The Emigration Office has also undertaken an enquiry in various countries in order to ascertain whether nationals residing permanently in foreign countries are allowed to take part in the political and administrative elections of their country of origin. It has been found that this right does not exist in the case of the following countries : Portugal, Austria, Switzerland, Spain, Greece, Roumania, Germany, Bulgaria, and Jugo-Slavia. In the case of France, Great Britain, Sweden, and Norway, nationals who permanently reside abroad are entitled to vote; this right is, however, subject to certain reservations, and special conditions are laid down for its exercise (⁴⁶).

Assistance for Russian Refugees

At its session held at Geneva in May 1922 the Council of the League of Nations resumed consideration of the question of assistance to

(⁴³) *Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro*, Apr. 1922.

(⁴⁴) Ibid.

(⁴⁵) Ibid.

(⁴⁶) Ibid.

Russian refugees⁽⁴⁷⁾. The Council recognised that the condition of most of the refugees was becoming worse; it took note of the work which the High Commissariat had undertaken and the results which had been achieved.

In a report submitted to the Council Dr. Nansen described the organisation which the High Commissariat had set up, or was engaged in setting up, for the purpose of finding employment for Russian refugees in various countries. What was still chiefly lacking were funds. Offers had, however, been received by the High Commissariat and by the Council and there was therefore ground for hope that the refugees might be transported to countries where employment could be found for them.

The Council has received two offers of financial assistance for the Russian refugees at Constantinople, whose numbers Dr. Nansen estimates at 15,000. One offer was made some time ago by the British Government, which was prepared to contribute a sum not exceeding one-half the total of any sums which might be provided by other governments, and in no case exceeding £10,000. The second offer comes from the American Relief Administration, which is ready to supply food to these refugees during their evacuation from Constantinople and until 1 October of the present year. Probably it would also be able to provide food for them during their journey to neighbouring countries and the four days following their arrival at their destination. The American Relief Administration has also offered to pay a sum of about £25,000 to the Relief Committee at Constantinople for the most urgent requirements of the refugees, and for the supply of medical stores during the period of evacuation. This offer is made on condition that the members of the League of Nations shall themselves provide £30,000, and that the refugees shall have been evacuated from Constantinople within the next four months. The offer will not, however, remain open indefinitely. The Relief Administration has asked that the question be submitted to the Council of the League of Nations and that a definite reply be sent at an early date. Since that time several governments have also promised contributions.

Dr. Nansen gives an account of the arrangements made by the High Commissariat, with the financial assistance of Great Britain, for the transfer of 4,600 Russian refugees to Egypt, Cyprus, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Most of the refugees are to be sent to Bulgaria, as in that country cost of living is comparatively low and work is available. Special labour exchanges for the provision of employment for Russian refugees are to be set up in certain towns including Sofia, Belgrade, Athens, and some German towns, and the technical advice of the International Labour Office has been requested. Austria and Hungary are stated to be ready to take a certain number of refugees engaged in agriculture, and negotiations for this purpose have also been undertaken with the Canadian and Australian Governments.

It will be remembered that in March last, with a view to making preparations for the evacuation and transfer of Russian refugees, the Council of the League of Nations asked the governments to consider the possibility of allowing visas for departure, transit, or arrival to the refugees free of charge, and to issue identity certificates which might take the place of passports. On the first point the Council received a certain number of favourable replies. The proposal was accepted either

(47) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, p. 962 sqq.

in principle or without reservation by Argentine, Austria, Brazil, Spain, France, Great Britain, Greece, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and Switzerland. The British Government was the only one which had as yet signified its agreement to the second point. The Council decided that the governments should once more be urged to agree to the second item. The question of passports and visas is one of the most important affecting the Russian refugees, necessitating many applications and considerable expenditure. At Constantinople, for example, emigrants are obliged to obtain a large number of visas (authorisation from the local authorities, military visa of the authorities of Occupation, triple visa from special British, French, and Italian supervision offices, etc.) before they can leave for foreign countries.

The Hebrew Immigrants Aid Society in the United States

The 1921 report of the Hebrew Immigrants Aid Society, which was submitted to the annual assembly at New York, shows that this society has accomplished a considerable amount of work largely carried out in the countries of emigration, especially in Poland. The society has twenty-four offices in Europe, the principal one being at Warsaw. For the year 16 September 1920 to 16 September 1921 the Warsaw office has assisted 352,800 persons, either by supplying them with information, or by undertaking to send telegrams for them to their relations, or to arrange for the transfer of money, etc.

The report estimates the number of Jewish immigrants who arrived in the United States between 1 January and 31 December 1921 at 107,300; of these 34,761 arrived by way of Ellis Island and 18,562 by way of Boston. Nearly all had relations in America, and only 490 were refused admission; in most cases refusal was due to the fact that the quota for the applicant's country of origin had already been exceeded. About 55 per cent. of Jewish immigrants were assisted by offices of the Aid Society.

The growth of the society has been considerable. The number of subscribers is now 135,874, and the total amount of subscriptions received has reached \$177,351 as compared with \$18,545 in 1913. Owing, however, to the large expenditure which has been undertaken, the 1921 budget shows a considerable deficit.

Colonisation in Brazil ⁽⁴⁸⁾

During 1920 the Brazilian Government continued to develop its colonial centres, which are intended to induce immigrants to remain engaged in agriculture in the country and to accustom them to the Brazilian agricultural system by teaching them the language, customs, and methods of work of the country.

In 1920 the number of persons sent to the centres was 8,811, including 4,880 Brazilians, 1,256 Italians, 858 Spaniards, 784 Portuguese, 495 Germans, 163 Japanese, 136 Russians, and other nationalities. Further statistics are available for twenty centres, showing that the number of persons inhabiting them increased from 4,689 in 1908 to 41,722 in

⁽⁴⁸⁾ REPUBLICA DOS ESTADOS UNIDOS DO BRASIL: *Relatorio Apresentado Ao Sr. Presidente da Republica pelo Ministro de Estado dos Negocios da Agricultura, Industria, e Commercio*. Rio de Janeiro, 1921.

1920. These included 17,475 Brazilians, 15,271 Poles, 3,134 Germans, 1,987 Russians, and 990 Spaniards ; in all 21,878 were men and 19,844 were women.

The economic development of the centres may be studied in the following table, which shows the value in milreis of their agricultural production and cattle breeding, and the sums repaid to the Government since 1914.

	<i>Agricultural produce</i>	<i>Cattle</i>	<i>Sums repaid to Government</i>
	<i>milreis</i>	<i>milreis</i>	<i>milreis</i>
1914	2,247,248	808,956	60,879
1915	6,132,812	2,426,836	101,957
1916	8,411,773	2,849,941	186,755
1917	10,631,929	4,309,040	344,238
1918	16,333,852	5,639,795	627,243
1919	17,956,189	6,770,050	621,819
1920	20,212,325	7,955,941	805,411



INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Notes on Industrial Hygiene

THE SPRAYING MACHINE IN PAINTING (¹)

At the request of the Ontario Division of Industrial Hygiene and the Committee on Industrial Fatigue the Department of Pharmacology of the University of Toronto undertook an enquiry of the health hazards run by operators of paint-spraying machines.

Mr. Sharpe gives a detailed analysis of the enquiry, and is of opinion that the manufacturers of these machines clearly realise the risks involved in their use, seeing that they recommend preventive measures such as the use of helmets or masks. Legislation itself has contemplated the prohibition of these machines, but up to the present no decision has been reached.

The danger involved in the use of a paint depends either upon the paint itself or upon the way in which it is applied. Paint consists of pigment, linseed oil, turpentine, thinners, and dryers, any one of which elements may be poisonous. The pigments generally used are lead, zinc, barium, iron and lithopone, but in the author's opinion there is no reason to suppose that any of these pigments other than lead give symptoms of poisoning. He recalls the opinions of Dr. Alice Hamilton, those of the British Departmental Committee, and of Dr. Legge and Dr. Goadby on the danger of employing lead compounds, and also the latest opinions of Sir Thomas Oliver and Dr. Goadby as to whether any other element but lead could be the cause of poisoning among painters. In addition, he examines the modes of entrance of lead into the body and notes the results of German research on the percentage of moist or dry lead dust which is capable of reaching the lungs.

The enquiry of the Toronto Institute shows that thirty undertakings in this city, and possibly even a larger number, employ one to three sprayers for painting either the interior or the exterior of buildings; several self-employers also make use of them. The enquiry only covered inside painting work. Here, i. e. for walls and ceilings, it is impossible to use exhaust ventilators for the removal of spray and fumes. Two workers only were found to be using masks, but in another case the machine was so equipped as to keep the spray nozzle ten feet from the operator.

For painting small articles practically all machines have an exhaust system of hoods and fans. Only an occasional operator on such machines uses a mask. Some wear gloves; others use vaseline on the hands and arms. Most of the operators whom we observed, however, depended on the exhaust system for protection from the spray. In all cases but one, the operators said that, as far as they knew, it was rarely that a paint containing lead was used. In the one exception a paint was used in which 0.3 per cent. of the pigment was lead. In some cases any lead paint used was applied by a brush.

(¹) N. C. SHARPE: *Report on an Investigation to determine the Hazard to the Health of Operators using the Spraying Machine for Painting: the Risk of Lead Poisoning.* The Journal of Industrial Hygiene, Vol. III, No. 12, Apr. 1922; pp. 378-386. Boston.

There was difficulty in determining the exact part played by the spray machine in the hazard of lead poisoning; even where the operators were not using a lead paint or were using a paint with a low lead content, they were engaged on other work exposing them to infection. It was therefore decided to carry out an experiment with a paint with a white lead basis of 60 per cent., prepared according to a formula such as would make the use of a spray machine necessary.

Without repeating all the details of the experiment as described by the author, it will be sufficient to state that for each observation the samples of air taken at different heights corresponding to the height of the operator's nose and mouth were 300 litres. The method of testing these air samples is then explained and mention made of the fact that all glassware and solutions were tested for lead beforehand. It was easy to establish the following facts :

- (1) no drip spots on the floor (but the operator's boots showed a fine coating of paint) ;
- (2) a mist, easily seen, ten feet from the operator ;
- (3) mask covered by a fine coating of paint especially round the mouth and nose ;
- (4) operator's hands and arms coated with paint ;
- (5) slight choking sensation persisting some time after exposure.

Other experiments were carried out with the use of a protective apparatus in a factory where small objects, with a surface area of from 1 to 2 square feet, were painted. The apparatus was a kind of cabinet on a stand about 4 feet from the floor, with an open front about 3 feet square. The operator remains entirely outside the cabinet, but passes the object to be sprayed inside it. If he wishes, he can lean forward inside the cabinet, which is provided with excellent suction. The operator had no unpleasant sensation in breathing, nor was there any film found on his clothing or on his face ; only his hands and arms were coated, as he had necessarily to put them inside the cabinet in order to handle the objects painted.

Cases of paralysis and of encephalopathy are exceptional, and cases of colic rare when the amount of lead present in the air breathed is less than 5 mg. per 10 cubic metres of air. But supposing this minimum to be exceeded, the lowest daily dose which, when inhaled, can set up chronic lead poisoning is found to be 2 mg. of lead. In the course of his experiments in spraying an inside wall the author found from 135 to 417 mg. of lead per 10 cubic metres of air ; a workman, working for eight hours, could thus breathe in from 60 to 180 mg. of lead per day. Another calculation is to the effect that poisoning can be set up by a minimum of 5 mg. of lead per kilogramme body-weight, e.g. by 350 mg. for a man weighing 150 lbs. As excretion does not always keep pace with absorption of lead, a workman employed in spraying an inside wall might in a few days absorb the 350 mg. which is stated by some investigators to be enough to provoke an attack of lead poisoning ; the risk of poisoning is therefore very great.

Plates exposed for half-hour periods during the spraying of an inside wall show that lead was deposited 11 feet to the right of an operator and 3 feet behind him.

In another experiment lasting three days an examination was made of the urine of the 24 hours' following of a painter who had sprayed the inside wall of a building for four or five hours a day ; 0.3 mg. of lead were found ; the amount found in the feces was less than 2 mg.,

the supposed minimum poisonous dose. The presence of lead in the urine after so short an exposure is significant, especially as the operator used a ready-mixed white lead paint and took care to prevent his food and tobacco from being contaminated. The author thinks it probable that all the lead from the urine came from the spray. As it was not expected that the urine and feces would show the presence of lead, no specimens were saved other than those of the first 24 hours after painting; later specimens of feces would probably have shown increased amounts of lead.

Where painting was done in a cabinet of good suction samples of air taken outside the cabinet showed no lead; lead was found in very small amounts in the cabinet on plates placed beyond the opening of the cabinet and in considerable quantity on those placed behind the object exposed to the stream of spray. No trace of lead was found on the plates exposed behind the operator.

Tests were also made of various types of masks used for protective purposes. The results were as follows:

No. 20 wire gauze mask	— no protection
Mask of gauze and cotton-wool of a thickness not causing strained or uncomfortable breathing	— the quantity of lead falls from 90 mg. to 10 mg. per 10 cu. m. of air.
Mask of gauze, cotton-wool, and charcoal	— lead reduced below the danger line of 5 mg. per 10 cu. m. of air, but all air must pass through mask.

In practice it was found that no worker could wear the last type of mask except in such a way as to allow the air access to the nostrils, which makes it useless. Charcoal may stop the passage of volatile substances, but does not keep out lead. Any mask becomes useless after a coating of paint has been deposited on it. Masks of comfortable breathing thickness moistened with 5 per cent. solution of sodium sulphide reduced the amount of lead present in the air breathed from 232 mg. per 10 cubic metres of air to 12.4 mg. A similar mask, but dry, allowed 11 mg. per 10 cubic metres to pass through. Both these results approach the danger line. Distinct disadvantages attach to these masks, for instance, the necessity of moistening them every 15 to 20 minutes to be as effective as in the test made. Ammonium sulphide was practically useless. Further, some investigators have shown that lead sulphide is itself not entirely free from danger. Other solutions might be suggested, but they would certainly only give a false sense of security.

These experiments show that a really effective mask cannot be worn without inconvenience to the worker. On the other hand, the danger of lead poisoning has been proved when painting is done on the interior of a building by means of a spray. As it is not always possible to arrange for a system of ventilation round the worker, either because he would be inconvenienced or because the technical requirements of the work put it out of the question, it is absolutely necessary, where it is a case of inside painting, to have recourse to some other protective measures. In the painting of small objects the danger of plumbism can be greatly reduced by the use of cabinets having good suction, as already described. Defects and faults in such cabinets have been investigated and described by the Ohio Division of Industrial Hygiene, and the author himself notes some of them.

It is hardly necessary to state that the painter who makes use of

paints having a lead content should individually adopt the most rigorous hygienic precautions. Indeed, the author states that he noted a lead reaction in the water with which he washed his hands and arms after use of the spray. As he states, workers employing a spray are above all others exposed to the poisonous action of fumes arising from the volatile substances contained in paint mixtures, substances like turpentine, benzene, or benzol. The results obtained by Mr. Sharpe do not suffice to prove the possibility of poisoning from these substances, but it should be noted that the workers who came under observation were protected by exhaust cabinets. The Toronto Institute of Hygiene is proposing to undertake a special enquiry on the subject, which will undoubtedly contribute interesting results.

NATURAL ILLUMINATION IN FACTORIES (2)

For some years past special attention has been given to the study of artificial illumination in factories, and satisfactory standards for its valuation have been fixed. Messrs. Winslow and Greenburg draw attention to the fact that up to the present very little study has been devoted to natural illumination. In a munitions factory in Connecticut results obtained from 402 individual observations showed that, out of a group of 40 rooms, 14 could be classed as 'excellent' from the point of view of lighting, 7 as 'good', 13 as 'fair', and 6 as 'poor'. The lighting was of two types, one, in the older buildings, through sash windows of plain glass, and the other, in the newer concrete buildings, through fenestral windows of wire glass (mostly ribbed to diffuse the light as far as possible).

At the same time it is obvious that daylight illumination, and any direct measurement connected with it, such as those just described, will vary with the season of the year, the time of day, and meteorological conditions. Therefore any strict comparison with fixed illumination standards is open to serious objections. The authors recall the fact that the British Royal Commission on Lighting in Factories and Workshops (1915) (3) attempted to eliminate this factor of daylight variation by expressing the indoor illumination as a percentage of the outdoor illumination; they were of opinion that this percentage is practically constant for varying conditions of outdoor illumination, and concluded that the indoor-outdoor ratio was much more significant than the direct reading of indoor daylight illumination.

Acting on this principle Messrs. Winslow and Greenburg re-classified the 40 rooms mentioned by an indoor-outdoor ratio. The results showed that of the 14 rooms classified as 'excellent' on a direct reading of illumination 10 were re-classified as 'excellent' and 4 as 'good' by an indoor-outdoor ratio; of the 7 classified as 'good' 4 were re-classified as 'good' and 3 as 'fair'; of the 13 classified as 'fair' 1 was re-classified as 'excellent', 1 as 'good', 7 as 'fair', and 4 as 'poor'; while of the 6 classified as 'poor', 2 were re-classified as 'fair' and 4 as 'poor'.

(2) UNITED STATES TREASURY DEPARTMENT, PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE: *Public Health Reports*, Vol. XXXVII, No. 15, 14 Apr. 1922; *A Survey of Natural Illumination in an Industrial Plant*, by C.-E. A. WINSLOW and LEONARD GREENBURG. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

(3) GREAT BRITAIN, HOME OFFICE: *First Report of the Departmental Committee on Lighting in Factories and Workshops*. Vol. I, p. 38. 1915.

EYE PROTECTION

Dr. Earle Fowler, the author of an article in *The Iron Trade Review* ⁽⁴⁾, draws attention to the need for protecting the eyes of the worker in view of the fact that in the United States there is a total of approximately 15,000 persons rendered blind by industrial accidents, or 13.5 per cent. of the total blind population. Some estimates of the cost of maintaining these blind workers have been compiled, but the actual economic loss cannot be determined.

The eye is involved in 10.6 per cent. of all permanently disabling accidents. But if preventive methods were to be strictly applied, accident frequency could be greatly decreased, as has been proved in the American Steel Foundries factories, where by such means eye accidents have been reduced in number by 85 per cent.

In working with commercial illuminant the amount of ultra-violet energy radiated is not sufficient to make the wearing of special goggles necessary, though this protection is certainly required in the oxyacetylene process in steel making. The cobalt blue glasses often used are not sufficient protection. On the other hand, workers are apt to show a certain repugnance to the wearing of glasses. Yet glasses are a most useful protection, though certain accidents are inevitable.

Another point to be stressed is the need of first-aid services in factories where accidents occur fairly often.

Eyework produces fatigue, and the most largely contributing factor is a defect in the vision itself. An examination by a specialist of the eyes of 10,000 employees in various industrial and commercial establishments showed 53 per cent. with uncorrected faulty vision. Another enquiry referring to 675 workers showed 58 per cent. in need of glasses; in another case only 22 per cent. out of 3,000 employees had a normal vision; while 21 per cent. of army recruits had to be discharged owing to eyesight defects. The output of such persons is obviously greatly decreased.

The author then proceeds to examine what are good lighting conditions and mentions those laid down in the lighting code of Massachusetts. He shows that it is necessary to have a uniform lighting without any glare and discusses briefly the question of placing the source of light and of shading it or diffusing it by means of reflectors. In conclusion, he mentions the three types of lighting systems, the direct, the semi-direct, and the indirect, and stresses the advantages of natural lighting.

The cost of good lighting would not exceed 0.5 to 1.0 per cent. of the whole wages of industry in the United States; but even if it did, it would be largely made good by a positive increase of output.

The National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness at New York continues to carry on a lively propaganda ⁽⁵⁾ against every influence likely to endanger or to destroy eyesight. It has distributed a quantity of pamphlets containing instructions both as to how to protect the eyesight and as to how to install good systems of lighting and prevent defective vision. At the present moment there are in the

⁽⁴⁾ Dr. Earle FOWLER: *Vision: its Relation to Industry*. The Iron Trade Review, Vol. LXX, No. 14, 6 Apr. 1922. Cleveland.

⁽⁵⁾ NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS: Pamphlets and Leaflets. 130 East Twenty-Second St. New York.

United States more than 10,000 persons completely blind in both eyes in consequence of eye neglect and a much larger number blind in one eye.

Pamphlet Number 3 is exclusively concerned with the prevention of blindness in infants. Number 16, which is published in several languages, deals with the fight against trachoma, a most infectious form of eye disease, but one which can be cured if taken in time; if neglected, however, it results in partial or total blindness. Pamphlet Number 20 details means of preventing this disease.

Number 17 takes as its motto: 'Take care of your eyes; they are your daily bread'. In a few words, and with the help of suggestive illustrations, the need is set forth for combating defective vision, unfortunately only too common, and for a rational system of lighting, as well as for the wearing of glasses for work and for consulting an oculist before obtaining them; also the danger of using common towels between several persons after washing or for wiping the eyes.

Pamphlet Number 10 deals with the protection of children's eyesight. Well chosen illustrations prove the importance of submitting infants to an oculist's examination, of protecting them against the direct rays of the sun and of not letting them get into their hands objects like scissors, knives, and button-hooks. The danger to the eyesight of infants from certain infantile diseases such as measles, scarlatina, etc., is also described.

The Committee calls on nursing and women's organisations to help in the work of fighting blindness, in view of the fact that it has been proved that 50 per cent. of cases of blindness are preventable.

Pamphlet Number 9 details the Acts and regulations current in the various States for the prevention of ophthalmia among the newly born. In the 34 schools for the blind and classes for the blind in public schools in the United States there were during 1917/1918 a percentage of 22.8 of pupils who had lost their sight owing to this disease, while of the total new entrants, namely 503, the number of ophthalmic patients reached 90, or 14.7 per cent.

MINERS' HEALTH IN JAPAN

Mr. Kyugi Shirakawa states that there was a percentage of 6.3 out of a total number of 17,828 miners in Hokkaido who had worked ten years or more in the mines ⁽⁶⁾. He made a medical examination of 1,003 and found that whereas 15.4 per cent. of the underground workers had impaired health, this was the case with only 0.1 per cent. of the surface workers. Pneumoconiosis was less frequent than might have been expected; only 5.2 per cent. of persons examined were definitely diagnosed as suffering from it, while the percentage including suspected cases was 7.8. The disease was more widespread and more severe among workers in the metal mines than among workers in the coal mines. The percentage of persons suffering from nystagmus was higher, namely 8.1. The percentage rose with the length of time during which a group of workers had been working in the mines, until it was nine times higher for those who had been at work for 20 years or more than it was for those who had been at work for 10

⁽⁶⁾ Kyuji SHIRAKAWA: *Results of Health Investigation of Miners working for ten or more than ten Years*. Eiseigaku Densenhyogyogaku Zasshi (*Journal of Hygiene and Infectious Diseases*), Vol. XVII, No. 2, Dec. 1921; see abstract in *The Japan Medical World*, Vol. II, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 82. Tokio.

up to 19 years. Parasitism was less marked among the underground workers. Ankylostomiasis, which is considered to be a miners disease, was diagnosed by Mr. Shirakawa among 0.9 per cent. of the underground workers examined, and among 2.7 per cent. of the surface workers ; in the Kyushu coal mines Mr. Tashiro reports 93.0 per cent. of this disease.

HYGIENIC AND SANITARY CONDITIONS FOR LINOTYPE OPERATORS

Dr. E. Coppa, member of the Hospital for Industrial Diseases at Naples which is under the direction of Professor Ferrannini, has just completed an interesting study into the conditions under which linotype operators work (?). His enquiry covered eight printing works employing 67 operators and working 41 machines. He found composing rooms not always up to standard as regards hygiene, but the defects noted were such as could easily be cured without any special technical appliances. Vents for the fumes from the melting pots are often not provided, and the author points out that it might be well worth while to put linotype operators in a separate room away from the hand-compositors. The small gas stove for melting the lead is greatly apt to make conditions unhealthy ; it could easily be replaced by a system of electric heating, such as has already been installed in some works. Formes, rooms, etc. could be cleaned after work hours. Overwork would be avoided if work were not to be prolonged beyond the hours of the ordinary working day, which at present is a 6-hour day ; Dr. Coppa mentions, however, that in order to earn more wages some operators work up to 12 hours a day. He suggests that a quarter or half an hour's rest should be given after each period of three hours' work. He also insists on the protection of the worker against glaring lights and above all on having the asbestos of the metal shades covered so that the operator need not feel the heat radiated on his left eye. Some means, such as a magnifier, should be found to help the linotype man to read the characters (often very small) in his assembling block. Unfortunately Dr. Coppa gives us no detailed information about such specific conditions as injurious dust, fumes, etc.

ABSORPTION OF DUST

Determination of the co-efficient of absorption of dry dust or watery dust held in suspension in the air breathed in was the subject of a lecture by Mr. Kuss at the *Académie de Médecine* on 4 April (?). The experiments conducted by Mr. Kuss seem to show that the amount of dust absorbed by the lungs is in direct proportion to the amount of dust in suspension in the atmosphere breathed. An exact 'coefficient of absorption' of the dust breathed in and percentages of the dust swallowed can be established for every species of animal ; e.g. in the guinea-pig the latter stands at 80-85 per cent. There is sufficient proof that the bronchial passages are not adapted to prevent the dust swallowed from penetrating into the lungs ; some of it reaches the alveolar passage with almost the same certainty as marks the passage of gas fumes.

These investigations are of great interest both from the point of view

(?) Ezio COPPA : *Le condizioni igienico-sanitarie del lavoro di composizione a macchina (Linottipia)*. Studium, Vol. XII, No. 4, 1922. Naples.

(*) *La Presse Médicale*, 15 Apr. 1922, p. 327. Paris.

of the therapeutic use of medically treated atmospheres and also as a test of the danger of infection from certain diseases (influenza, tuberculosis) through the respiratory organs.

EXPERIMENTAL PLUMBISM

By feeding pigeons with lead pellets mixed with their food, Messrs. P. J. Hanzlik, M. McIntyre, and E. Presno have succeeded in inducing lead poisoning. The initial symptoms observed were prompt loss of body-weight and appetite, and gradual depression, followed by diarrhoea, increased drop peristalsis with regurgitation of contents, loss of equilibrium, wing-drop—corresponding to wrist-drop in man—paralysis of legs, and marked emaciation; death supervened at the end of about 21 days. The lethal dose was 0.16 grammes per kilo of body-weight; the time of recovery in survival cases was from one to eight months. The lead absorbed in fatal cases was 85 per cent. of the total dose, the maximum body-weight lost 40 per cent., in surviving pigeons 8 per cent. The administration of sodium iodide in food and water and of magnesium sulphate and calcium sulphide in food influenced all these symptoms beneficially; but the administration of sodium chloride was not beneficial. The administration of lead salts, chloride, iodide, acetate, and sulphide, in doses whose lead contents were two to thirteen times that of the fatal minimum dose of metallic lead was found to be non-toxic. For other metals, namely zinc, copper, bismuth, iron, and cadmium, administered in doses two and one-fifth times the dosage of the minimum fatal dose of lead, toxicity could be proved only in the case of zinc, bismuth, and cadmium, and even for these metals no fatal cases were observed over a period of 27 days. The authors conclude that

lead is decidedly more toxic, and plumbism is more or less a specific toxicity in the sense that symptoms occur promptly and in a striking manner, the motor effects and fatalities being absent with cadmium, zinc, and bismuth (*).

IPECACUANHA ANAPHYLAXIS

Classic instances of chemists and of medical practitioners unable to stand the smell of ipecacuanha without at once experiencing an attack of asthma are well known in clinical practice. This disability of the breathing apparatus is one of the most common results of this particular anaphylaxis. Another lesion affecting the skin of persons professionally engaged in handling ipecacuanha in laboratory work is acute eczema (erythematic vesicular dermatitis).

Messrs. Widal, Abrami, and Joltrain have recently had an opportunity of several months' observation of two typical cases which lent themselves to research⁽¹⁰⁾. The first was that of a chemist who was subject to asthmatic attacks exclusively provoked by the smell of ipecacuanha; the second that of a laboratory worker suffering simply from an eczema dermatitis of the face, with subintractant attacks result-

(*) Soc. for Experimental Biol. and Med.; see the *Lancet*, Vol. CCII, No. 5147, 22 Apr. 1922, p. 804. London.

(10) F. WIDAL, P. ABRAMI, and Ed. JOLTRAIN: *Anaphylaxie à l'ipéca; désensibilisation par voie sous-cutanée*. La Presse Médicale, 22 Apr. 1922, pp. 341-344. Paris.

ing from the handling of emetin powder. Asthma and dermatitis were simply the symptoms of an anaphylactic sensibility to ipecacuanha, slowly acquired in the course of a professional handling of this substance. The experiments undertaken succeeded in inducing a very sensible improvement in this condition by means of repeated subcutaneous injections in increasing doses of ipecacuanha or emetin as an antigen, in the case of the first patient associated with belladonna treatment. In the first case the disappearance of anaphylaxis was not complete, although it is hoped that it may altogether vanish in course of time, but in the second case the patient got to the stage when he could handle emetin without having any attack of eczema.

DANGERS IN THE USE OF HYDROCYANIC ACID ⁽¹¹⁾

The increasing popularity of employing hydrocyanic acid in sanitary work makes it essential both to investigate the dangers attaching to its use and the provision of apparatus which could be handled without risk. One precaution would be to have the gas from the generators free of sulphuric acid; also that the apparatus should allow the exterior of the locality treated to be disinfected, that the gas should be sent in an upward direction, that complete ventilation should have been carried out before any one be allowed to enter, that the hydrocyanic acid should be neutralised, where natural and artificial ventilation to remove it is impossible, by means of suitable agents. It should further be recalled that hydrocyanic acid in a pure gaseous state is inflammable and explosive, but that it loses these properties when mixed in the proportions which are the most useful in sanitary work. Guaiac paper is of very little practical use in sanitary work on account of its extreme sensitiveness, and preference should be given to the use of small animals for finding out when a safe entry may be made into a locality which has been treated.

MANGANESE POISONING

Hygiene regulations issued in Germany for bixide of manganese mills have resulted in the disappearance of cases of manganese poisoning such as those observed by Embden in 1902.

Embden has now reported a case of manganese poisoning to the Medical Association of Hamburg at its sitting of 3 January 1922 ⁽¹²⁾. The patient was a man of 46 years of age working in a manganese bixide mill in 1914. From 1915 to 1919 he served in the army, but after the war returned to work hard at his occupation. Three months ago he was in very good health. Lately, it having been found impossible to procure the South Russian ore, he was at work milling Brazilian ore, which is very hard and dusty. Illness had been in progress eight weeks. The first symptom noticed was stammering; then followed trembling of the hands in the characteristic form of intention tremor, extremely marked when the hands were raised

⁽¹¹⁾ OFFICE INTERNATIONAL D'HYGIÈNE PUBLIQUE (Paris): *L'acide cyanhydrique dans ses applications sanitaires*. By J. Souto BEAVIS; in the *Bulletin* of the Office, No. 3, 1922, pp. 248-262.

⁽¹²⁾ HEINRICH EMBDEN: *Ein neuer Fall von Manganvergiftung mit Manganstottern bei einem Braunsteinmüller*. Deutsche med. Wöchenschr., Vol. XLVIII, No. 14, 7 Apr. 1922; p. 472. Berlin.

towards the head; also staggering gait; but no retropulsion or propulsion; also no headache or giddiness; considerable difficulty in writing, and diminished powers of mimetic movement.

INDUSTRIAL ALCOHOLISM

The influence of alcohol on industrial output is a subject of great practical importance. Sir Thomas Oliver and Professor Edgar Collis make two interesting communications on this topic⁽¹³⁾. They do not hesitate to attribute to alcoholic drinks certain obvious qualities nor to admit the attraction which they have for the worker, not only because they assuage the thirst induced by tiring work carried out in an overheated and dusty atmosphere, but because they have a direct sedative action upon fatigue.

On the other hand, the examination of the facts at their disposal cause the authors to sum up in favour of strict abstinence from alcoholic drink and to criticise its use among workers. In a works where abstinence was imposed as a rule on employees the percentage of lost time, which for this grade of factory was on an average 10.0 per cent., was reduced to 0.5 per cent. Again, the trainer of a football club told Sir Thomas Oliver that while some players lost their value as players after ten or fifteen years of play, others were still in excellent form at forty years of age, and that most of these were total abstainers. The authors also examined the relation between the influence of alcohol and frequency of industrial accident, but were unable to come to any conclusions. The increased frequency of industrial accident which is observed on Mondays may be attributed to causes other than an excess of drink on Sundays. However, it may be remarked that in an iron and steel works total abstainers had an accident percentage 50 per cent. less than that of non-abstainers; also that in a benefit society the non-abstainers suffered three times more accidents than the others.

Sir Thomas Oliver notes that the temperance movement is making progress every day; for instance, in the building trades where fifteen or twenty years ago one day a week used to be lost owing to alcoholism, lost time today is almost negligible. A referendum of the employees, numbering 2,500 persons, of one large firm showed two-thirds of them in favour of abstinence and, of these two-thirds, 31 per cent. in favour of total prohibition and 25 per cent. in favour of restriction.

WORKERS' HEALTH SERVICES

Trade unions in the United States have recently established a co-operative Workers' Health Bureau for the purpose of protecting the health of the worker and of his family. Each union is to organise its own health service with the aid and co-operation of the Bureau. The Committee includes a medical specialist who is at the service of the unions in order to help them with the organisation of their special

⁽¹³⁾ *Industrial Alcoholism*, being abstracts of the Shaw Lecture delivered by Sir Thomas OLIVER before the Royal Soc. of Arts on 29 Mar. 1922, and of an Address by Prof. Edgar L. COLLIS at a discussion at the Soc. for the Study of Inebriety. *The Lancet*, Vol. CCII, No. 5146, 15 Apr. 1922, pp. 772 and 755. London.

health departments. The objects of the Workers' Health Bureau are (1) scientific study of the health conditions affecting the workers in each union, (2) recommendation of suitable measures for the protection of health, (3) the provision of lectures on industrial hygiene, (4) organisation of a medical service to be at the disposal of the unions, including the organisation of medical visits, dental and eye examinations, etc., (5) the encouragement of health committees in carrying out necessary health reforms in factories, and (6) a very careful choice of doctors, nurses, instructors, etc. charged with the work of the union health services.

The Bureau has undertaken to distribute pamphlets on a large scale with a view both to urging the organisation of health services on the unions and to combating premature invalidity. In these pamphlets instruction is given as to how the worker may protect himself against the most common occupational diseases. Lead poisoning, for instance, is treated in a very interesting pamphlet published by the Bureau in several languages.



AGRICULTURE

The National Agricultural Conference in the United States

THE consideration which the Government of the United States is prepared to give to agriculture and the important part which it recognises that agriculture plays in the general prosperity of the nation have been emphasised during the past year, first, by the appointment in June of a Joint Commission of Agricultural Enquiry, whose reports on the agricultural crisis and its causes have recently appeared (¹), secondly, by the National Agricultural Conference, which met in January in Washington at the call of the President.

To this, the first National Agricultural Conference, three hundred men and women came from every State in the Union and representing every agricultural interest. A small number of representatives of interests such as manufacture, transportation, and finance were also included, and the presence of Mr. Samuel Gompers to represent labour was noteworthy.

President Harding opened the conference with an address which showed that he was thoroughly aware of the serious financial conditions which agriculturists were facing generally, and that he was convinced also of the reaction of these conditions upon other business. He emphasised the fact that agricultural problems must be viewed from a national standpoint rather than that of a section, a class, or a 'bloc'. While the fact of the agricultural crisis must be acknowledged, no helpful undertaking could be reached by assuming that agriculture suffered alone; the depression was general and the whole country had an acute concern with the conditions and problems the conference had met to consider. Promising sympathetic consideration to all progressive measures which the conference might approve, the President suggested specifically the provision of better financial facilities for the farmer, measures to prevent violent fluctuations resulting from unorganised and haphazard production, the formulation of a specific policy in dealing with transportation, the electrification of railroads, the development of water resources for both transportation and power, and continuance of the policy of reclaiming arid lands. In referring to the subject of waterways, President Harding took occasion to approve the St. Lawrence waterway project as bringing the heart of the continent with all its vast resources in agriculture and industry into communication with all the ocean routes.

The organisation of the conference was the work of the Secretary of Agriculture, who, in his address of welcome, made plain the reasons for this nation-wide gathering of farmers. Enlarging upon the words of the President, he said: "The problem divides itself into two parts, one of the present depression and how to bridge it, and the other a consideration of future policies with a view to fending off a recurrence

(¹) See the *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 1011 sqq.

of such troubles as we now experience, and of building for the future a sound, satisfying agriculture which will feed the nation abundantly at reasonable cost, and, at the same time, yield a financial return to the farmer large enough to make sure of continued production under standards of living which will enable us to maintain on the soil a worthy citizenship". Three kinds of constructive effort might give hopes of results : first, legislative action ; second, administrative and educational effort, national and State, through the various agencies charged with the duty of encouraging agriculture ; and, third, the effort of the farmers themselves individually and through their organisations.

By preliminary arrangement the conference was organised into twelve committees, and these again into sub-committees, whose duty it was to place before the conference the situation of the particular branch of agriculture that they represented and to suggest remedies by which it might be brought back to normal conditions. As a result, reports were received and considered by the conference on many phases of the agricultural crisis, from every part of the country and from every branch of the industry. They included within their scope Agriculture and Price Relations ; Personal and Collateral Credit ; Railway Transportation and Water Transportation ; Foreign Competition and Demand ; Costs, Prices and Adjustments ; Crop and Market Statistics ; Marketing of Farm Products ; Agricultural Research and Education ; a Permanent Forest Policy ; a National Land Policy ; the Farm Population and the Farm Home ; and Co-ordination of State and Federal Legislation.

Addresses given by leading authorities on agricultural questions were no less interesting than the above reports. Mr. Sydney Anderson, Chairman of the Congressional Joint Commission of Agricultural Enquiry, spoke on "Agricultural Prices and the Present Situation" and summarised briefly the results of the recent investigation into this subject. In the opinion of the Commission, if normal operation and prosperity are to be restored to the farmer, a means must be found to stabilise agricultural prices upon a profitable level, from which they have fallen, and the Chairman recommended to the conference the encouragement of farm organisation, saying :

I am convinced that farm organisation of a sound, wise, and far-seeing character is the key to a more prosperous and better agricultural industry. I believe that advancement in farm organisation, if not a preliminary to, at least must go hand in hand with, improvement in the distributive machinery of the country. The farmer must delegate the power of selling his crop and of putting it in shape for market and of performing all of the services necessary to its delivery in quality, quantity, time, and place to some organisation which he controls. The Government must remove the obstacles which retard, if they do not prevent, combinations of farmers for the purposes of sorting, grading, packing, or processing their products. The States must give legal status to organisations of this kind, which will establish definitely their legal powers and obligations as well as the legal powers and liabilities of their members.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT

The financial situation from the standpoint of credit was reviewed for the conference by Mr. Eugene Meyer, Jr., Director of the War Finance Corporation, which had been discontinued in May 1920 but which, after the collapse in commodity markets and prices, had

resumed operations in January 1921. The experience of the Corporation showed that credit to foreign buyers would not solve the home problem, that, indeed, on account of the fluctuations in exchange, it had proved to be rather a gamble than a business risk. The real need was to provide financing at home in order that marketing might be more orderly and the period during which it took place might be prolonged. Valuable assistance had already been given by emergency loan funds to those branches of agriculture handling cotton and live-stock. In August 1921 the Agricultural Credits Act was passed and involved the creation of an auxiliary banking system for the agricultural territory. Live-stock loan companies with capital subscribed by local business men, bankers, and stockmen had been formed and were laying the foundations of a permanent structure; the effect of their work would be to prevent the sacrifice of breeding herds and immature stock, such as was now endangering the meat supply and imposing heavy losses on the industry. Throughout the agricultural industry need was felt for a system of organisation which would make possible a twelve months' marketing of annual crops. Co-operative marketing organisations had demonstrated the value of loans made with this end in view, and the speaker asked the conference to devise methods for the extension of the system.

CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING

Not only the problems of financing, but also those of assembling, grading, distributing, and selling the nation's farm crops must be met by the farmer. A number of speakers at the conference presented co-operative marketing as a means to the solution of the difficulties involved. The legal right of producers to organise must first be established, and the demand for such legislation was forcibly expressed. The fundamentals of co-operation were presented by Mr. G. Harold Powell, General Manager of the California Fruit Growers' Exchange. To be really co-operative an organisation must be exclusively composed of farmers and managed by them, and the benefits must be returned to them in proportion to the use or the patronage of each. Capital should also, by preference, be contributed by them in proportion to the use which the individual makes of the organisation. Those prepared to contribute capital only should never be admitted to membership, because it is not desirable that it be furnished by non-producing business interests, which would thereby acquire a power in the association and a voice in its direction. Nor must capital be a fund on which a dividend is paid in excess of a fair rate of interest for its use. The voting power in a co-operative association should be based on the "one-man-one-vote" principle, and the association should be held together through an agreement or contract between the organisation and each member.

The strongest organisations are those which specialise in handling a single crop. Their ultimate success depends not only upon the development of a spirit of co-operation within the membership, but also on a willingness to co-operate with the agencies with which they have business relations. Local units in which local initiative and responsibility have been developed do well to co-ordinate their efforts in a practical, efficient, central agency through which they distribute their product.

The fact that power lodged in the hands of farmers by the State

or Federal Government may not always be exercised on behalf of the public welfare was acknowledged by Mr. Powell, who pointed out "the desirability of having the government which gives the right to co-operate lay down the conditions under which the privilege should be exercised in order that acts that are prejudicial to the public interest, in any plan or form of organisation, may be eliminated". He said further :

A co-operative organisation has a distinct responsibility to the public. It cannot live for itself alone. Through the co-operative handling of farm crops the farmer should receive a fair return for his products, but such co-operation should be an important factor in reducing the general cost of living through the economies which result from the organised preparation, distribution, and sale of standardised products. The producer is entitled to a fair return on the cost of production provided the law of supply and demand warrants it, but he is not privileged through the power of organisation to impose a higher price on the consumer than the law of supply and demand naturally justifies. . . . No group of farmers should have the right to operate collectively if it uses the power of organisation to restrict production artificially, to lessen or arbitrarily control the supply, to permit avoidable waste, to speculate, to make profits that do not reflect the law of supply and demand, to create any situation through the power of organisation which is unfair to the public or to a competitor, or to give a member, an officer, or an employee any advantages that are not open to all alike. . . . But it is a fundamental right of farmers that they should organise in order to handle the inherent problems of their industry. They serve the public as well as themselves in so far as their organisations constitute effective agencies through which the complex problems of agriculture are solved in the ultimate interests of the whole nation.

AGRICULTURE AND FOREIGN POLICY

Perhaps one of the most remarkable and least expected of the developments of the conference was the pressure which the American farmer brought to bear upon his government for a closer participation in European affairs. The connection between the European situation and the deplorable condition of United States agriculture was presented by distinguished economists, with the result that a resolution was passed in the following terms :

Whereas the surplus production of many products of American farms has long found and now finds its main market in European countries, which are also now large public debtors to the United States : resolved that this conference therefore urge the Administration to use its good offices and its commanding position as a creditor country to aid in the industrial rehabilitation of Europe.

It is evident from this resolution that the farmers realise the importance of the European markets and of restoring European industries, and by this means also the purchasing power of the European peoples, in order to bring about the revival of agriculture in the United States.

THE FARMERS' PROGRAMME

The value of the first national agricultural conference can hardly be measured by the resolutions passed, interesting and progressive as these resolutions may be. Its outstanding feature is rather that for the moment, at least, the big business men of the nation, labour

leaders, and politicians had their attention centred on farm problems in a way which had never occurred before and that all were agreed that in the last analysis the restoration of normal economic conditions depends upon the restoration of the buying power of the farmer. A proposition in favour of government fixing of a minimum price for wheat, cotton, corn, and wool received little support. On the other hand, the conference urged that Congress and the President "should take such steps as will immediately re-establish a fair exchange value for all farm products with that of all other commodities" and should carefully investigate the whole question of government price guarantees, thus acknowledging the immediate influence of the farmer's position upon the national prosperity.

A certain conflict between the interests of agriculture and industrial labour came to light in connection with the recommendation of the Committee on Costs and Prices that lower freight rates should be made possible by a reduction in the wages paid to railroad labour. The Committee claimed that wages paid to railroad workers and also in other industries were much greater than the wages of agricultural labour or returns received by small farmers, who are practically in the same class, and that a readjustment was necessary. Mr. Gompers spoke in favour of the industrial worker and a stormy debate followed. The result was that certain clauses in the report of the Committee on Costs and Prices, recommending the repeal of the Adamson 8-hour law and calling for lower wage scales among railway workers and miners, were struck out. However, when the report of the Transportation Committee was received, stating that railroad corporations and labour should bear their share in the reduction of freight rates, the conference insisted on retaining the recommendation.

By means of their conference the farmers have enunciated their programme. The policy which they have suggested for government action is fairly comprehensive⁽²⁾. This policy includes (1) the reduction of all railroad rates to the level of August 1920, (2) lower wages for farm labour, (3) reduction in prices of commodities consumed by farmers to correspond with the reduction in the price of farm products, (4) the creation of a credit system to suit the needs of agriculture, (5) the adjustment of agricultural production to the needs of the consuming public, (6) United States assistance in the economic rehabilitation of Europe, (7) more adequate financing for the export of food products, (8) preferential railroad rates on farm products intended for export, (9) a lower retailing margin on the handling of food products, (10) the construction of the projected Great Lakes—St. Lawrence waterway, and, (11) more complete information on foreign production and demand.

(2) It is interesting to compare the farmers' programme with the eight recommendations relating to agriculture adopted by the President's Unemployment Conference; see William L. CHENERY: *The President's Conference and Unemployment in the United States*, in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 362.

LEGISLATIVE NOTES

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FACTORY ACTS AND REGULATION OF EMPLOYMENT GENERALLY

India

The Indian Factories Act 1911 ⁽¹⁾ has been amended by a measure passed on 23 January 1922 ⁽²⁾ which brings it into conformity with certain of the Washington Conventions. The operation of the Act (which came into force as amended on 1 July 1922) is extended to much smaller establishments using mechanical power than were formerly included, while the exemption of non-textile factories from the limitation of hours applying in textile factories is abolished. Maximum daily and weekly hours are fixed at 11 and 60 respectively. Under the original Act there was no weekly limit, but the maximum daily hours for male workers in textile factories were fixed at 12 and those for women in both textile and non-textile factories at 11. In addition to these changes, the age limit for the admission of children to industrial employment is raised from 9 to 12 years.

Italy

Regulations for wage-earning workers in the state tobacco factories and warehouses were issued by Royal Decree on 19 February 1922 ⁽³⁾. They apply not only to purely manual workers, but also to instructors, inspectors and supervisors (§§ 1-2), who are selected from among the skilled workers (§ 4). Artisans are chosen according to their degree of skill (§ 5), and candidates for employment as general workers are taken in order of physical fitness (§ 7), the youngest persons being chosen in case of equality of fitness (§ 10). Other things being equal, preference

⁽¹⁾ *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. VI, 1911, p. 71.

⁽²⁾ The full text of the Act of 1911, as amended, will shortly be issued in the *Legislative Series* of the INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (hereafter cited as the *Legislative Series*).

⁽³⁾ *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 18 Mar. 1922, p. 593.

is given to war orphans and children of present or former employees. Immediately upon engagement workers are compulsorily insured in the National Insurance Fund, and women also in the special maternity fund for the service (§§ 15, 65-73).

Chapter III of the regulations deals with the general terms of employment of workers and with the processes from which women are excluded (§ 21); these are defined as "heavy tasks and porters' work", which shall be assigned "only to men", while women under age are not to be employed "in opening bales; in sorting leaves not previously damped; in the fermenting process and in the disintegration of heaps of the fermented product; in the drying process in closed rooms; in grinding and sifting; in the manufacture of extracts and in cutting".

Chapter IV deals with hours of work and annual leave. Working hours are limited to 7 daily, exclusive of the compulsory minimum break of one hour (§ 22). Overtime is allowed up to 225 hours a year for each worker—75 hours being compulsory on requirement and the remainder optional, and overtime being paid for at the rate of time and a half (§ 26). Annual leave is granted for ten working days in each year with full pay; if work allows, instructors, inspectors, and supervisors may have a further ten days (§ 32).

Chapter V regulates the payment of wages, and allowances to widows and orphans of employees. Chapter VI deals with allowances in money and in kind (medical attendance, etc.) in case of illness or pregnancy and childbirth, and provides for free treatment of persons attending at the factory dispensary (§ 59). Maternity benefit includes payment for a wet-nurse where the mother is unable to feed her child (§ 66). The maternity fund of each factory is managed by a committee of two salaried employees nominated by the director of the factory, two representatives elected by the members of the fund, and the director as chairman.

Chapters VII and VIII prescribe disciplinary measures and rules for order and comfort in the factories. Penalties, ranging from reproof to dismissal (§ 75), are specified for various offences, some defined as (§ 79, Nos. 6, 7, and 8): "(6) insults, threats, and violence towards fellow workers in the factory, and also such acts committed outside the establishment for reasons inherent in their employment; (7) arbitrary cessation of work; (8) incitement to breaches of discipline". Smoking, unauthorised collections, and the holding of lotteries and of meetings or committees of an economic, social, or political and propagandist nature, on the factory premises, are all alike prohibited (§ 103). Provision is made for the workers' welfare by the establishment of canteens (§ 87), day nurseries (§ 88), and ambulance rooms (§ 90). A works committee of 5 to 7 members, according to the size of the establishment, must be appointed to act as an intermediary between the workers and the management (§§ 91-99).

Regulations affecting wage-earning workers in Italian hospitals and asylums were issued by Royal Decree on 12 November 1921 (*). The terms of the regulations cover not only ordinary manual workers, but nurses and the persons responsible for supervising them (§ 1). The organisation of special training courses for nurses is authorised (§ 4), and the period of probation is fixed at one year (§ 3), while promotion to supervising posts is by examination (§ 5). Provision is made for the keeping open of posts during illness, military service, or absence

(*) Ibid. 1922, No. 86, p. 832.

for family reasons (§§ 7-8), and for an annual leave period of twenty days (§ 9). Hours of work are to amount to 48 a week, or an average of 54 a week over a period of three weeks where a shift system is in operation, while compulsory overtime is not as a rule to exceed one hour a day (§ 12). Remuneration is to consist of a basic wage plus a family allowance fixed by the authority concerned in each case (§ 11).

HOURS OF WORK

Belgium

The Eight Hour Act of 1921 ⁽⁵⁾ does not apply to "persons invested with directive or confidential functions", who were to be defined more closely by Royal Order (§ 2, paragraphs 6 and 7). A list of persons to be regarded as coming under this phrase was issued by an Order dated 28 February 1922 ⁽⁶⁾, drawn up after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations concerned, the competent sections of the Industrial and Labour Councils, and the Superior Councils of Public Health, of Labour, and of Industry and Commerce. The list is divided into eight parts. The first, applicable to all undertakings, specifies fifteen types of persons in positions of authority or responsibility ranging from directors and managers and secretaries, through all kinds of chiefs (*chefs*) [technical heads, paymasters, chief foremen, chief machinists, etc.] down to watchmen and caretakers. The seven remaining groups specify one or more grades of persons in responsible positions in particular industries, namely, mines, quarries, potteries, metal and glass works, clothing factories, electrical services, transport.

Finland

A Resolution of the Council of State dated 30 December 1921 ⁽⁷⁾ has continued until the end of 1922 the operation of the Resolution of 20 December 1920 ⁽⁸⁾ respecting hours of work in continuous industries [exceptions from the Eight Hour Day Act of 27 November 1917 ⁽⁹⁾].

Another Resolution of 30 December 1921 ⁽¹⁰⁾ extends until 1 January 1923 the Resolution of 23 December 1920 ⁽¹¹⁾, temporarily exempting certain industries from the application of the Act.

Poland

The Eight Hour Day Act of 18 December 1919 ⁽¹²⁾ has been amended by an Act of 14 February 1922 ⁽¹³⁾ which came into operation on 1 March 1922. The amendment authorises the keeping open of shops for 10 hours a day. Under the Act of 1919 they might be open only during the legal hours of work of the persons employed therein—a period defined by the Decree of 22 March 1921 ⁽¹⁴⁾ as 8 hours daily (6 hours on Saturday), with a compulsory break of one hour during

⁽⁵⁾ Act of 14 June 1921. *Revue du Travail*, XXII, 1921, p. 679; *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Bel. 1).

⁽⁶⁾ *Revue du Travail*, XXIII, 1922, p. 484.

⁽⁷⁾ *Författningssamling*, 1921, No. 301.

⁽⁸⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Fin. 3).

⁽⁹⁾ *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 36.

⁽¹⁰⁾ *Författningssamling*, 1921, No. 300.

⁽¹¹⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Fin. 4).

⁽¹²⁾ *Ibid.* 1920 (Pol. 1).

⁽¹³⁾ *Ibid.* 1922 (to appear shortly).

⁽¹⁴⁾ *Ibid.* 1921 (Pol. 4).

which the establishment must be closed. The midday closing, under the amendment, is no longer to be enforced. Pharmacies and restaurants are exempted even from the limitation of the working day to 10 hours.

Spain

By Royal Order of 9 January 1922⁽¹⁵⁾ all banking establishments are excluded from the scope of the Acts of 30 January 1900⁽¹⁶⁾, respecting accident insurance, and of 4 July 1918⁽¹⁷⁾, respecting hours of work in commercial undertakings, and included in the scope of the Act of 13 March 1900⁽¹⁸⁾, relating to the work of women and children. The Order provides that the Act of 3 March 1904⁽¹⁹⁾ (Sunday Rest Act) shall apply to the subordinate staff of banking establishments, and renders compulsory the old-established custom by which all other employees enjoyed the same privilege. The provisions of the Royal Decrees of 3 April 1919⁽²⁰⁾ and 15 January 1920⁽²¹⁾ remain applicable to banks subject to authorised exceptions. Notices must be affixed in prominent places in these banks giving the exact time for beginning and ending work, or, if work is organised in shifts, the hours of each shift and the rest intervals allowed during the day. The enforcement of these regulations rests with the inspectors of labour.

By a Decree of 27 August 1919⁽²²⁾ a committee of representatives of railway companies and railway workers, together with five government delegates, was appointed to work out general principles for the detailed application of the 8-hour day Decree of 3 April 1919⁽²³⁾ to the various branches of employment on railways. The committee sat in four sections, Permanent Way and Works, Rolling-Stock and Locomotives, Traffic, and Administrative Services. The agreements arrived at by these sections as to hours, travelling time, overtime, etc., of various grades were published at intervals during 1919-1920⁽²⁴⁾ in the form of Royal Orders directing the companies to make the necessary arrangements for putting into effect the decisions of the committee, and in some cases fixing time-limits for the necessary recruiting of additional staff.

It was found impossible to arrive at an agreement on certain matters, even with the help of the Institute of Social Reform, and the outstanding problems were therefore dealt with by a Royal Order of 17 October 1921⁽²⁵⁾. This provides for voluntary overtime where desired in

⁽¹⁵⁾ *Real orden disponiendo que no es aplicable a los establecimientos bancarios la Ley de 30 de enero de 1900 relativa a los accidentes del trabajo ni la de 4 de julio de 1918 referente a la jornada mercantil 9 de enero de 1922.* (Bol. del Instituto de Reformas sociales, 1922, No. CCXII, p. 355).

⁽¹⁶⁾ French translation in the *Annuaire de la Législation du Travail*, 1900, p. 437.

⁽¹⁷⁾ English translation in the *Bulletin of the International Labour Office* (Basle), Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 30.

⁽¹⁸⁾ French translation in the *Annuaire de la Législation du Travail*, 1900, p. 443.

⁽¹⁹⁾ French translation in the *Bulletin de l'Office International du Travail*, (Basle), 1904, Vol. III, p. 175.

⁽²⁰⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1919 (Sp. 1).

⁽²¹⁾ *Ibid.* 1920 (Sp. 4-5).

⁽²²⁾ *Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, Oct. 1919, p. 456.

⁽²³⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1919 (Sp. 1).

⁽²⁴⁾ *Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, Dec. 1919, pp. 634-43; Jan./Mar. 1920, pp. 95, 126, 127; May 1920, pp. 466, 471.

⁽²⁵⁾ *Ibid.* Nov. 1921, p. 618.

services not directly connected with traffic, and compulsory overtime in emergencies, fixing a maximum monthly limit and a minimum rate of pay in each case. Time on duty consisting merely in being in attendance ready for service is, under the Order, to be calculated at half its actual duration, and rules are given for the calculation of time spent in travelling by train to the point of duty. The normal 8-hour day applies to porters, watchmen, messengers, etc., except in so far as the definitions of such workers in the 8-hour Order of 15 January 1920⁽²⁶⁾ apply to these.

It is ruled that the night attendants at level crossings must be men, though women may be employed during the day. A special Order⁽²⁷⁾ was issued on 9 February 1922 respecting work of this kind. The regulations of 18 October 1919⁽²⁷⁾ are to govern the employment of train staffs working on the shift system, the companies being allowed three months for the engagement of the necessary additional workers. Station workers are required to work a 12-hour day on and after 19 October 1921, but all work beyond 8 hours is paid for as compulsory overtime (time and a quarter).

Owing to the difficulties encountered by the railway companies in interpreting the Order, a further Order was issued by the Ministry of Development on 9 December 1921⁽²⁸⁾ to explain and emphasise the points above mentioned.

Sweden

State undertakings were specifically excluded from the Eight Hour Day Act of 17 October 1919⁽²⁹⁾, but Notifications were issued in June 1920, fixing hours of work for telegraph⁽³⁰⁾, railway⁽³¹⁾ and waterworks⁽³²⁾ employees on the basis of an average 48-hour week and corresponding with the Act as regards overtime. The original Act relating to hours of work has now been superseded by another, dated 22 June 1921⁽³³⁾, which retains many of the former provisions, but allows more overtime in the case of adults. Corresponding amendments⁽³⁴⁾ have therefore been made in the three Notifications mentioned above. In that relating to telegraph workers no alteration is made beyond the substitution of 30 hours ordinary overtime in a month and 200 hours in a year for 25 hours in a month and 150 in a year, and the increase of additional overtime for urgent requirements from 10 hours in a month and 75 hours in a year to 20 hours in a month and 120 in a year. A similar change is made in the railway regulations, and here the question whether young persons between 16 and 18 years of age shall work overtime is referred to the Railways Office in consultation with the workers' representative body. The Labour Council decides this question for private industrial undertakings under the Act of 1921; the earlier Act and the original Notifications allowed no overtime for young persons. The application of the waterworks provisions to establish-

(26) *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Sp. 5).

(27) Order, *Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, 1922, p. 597; regulations, *ibid.* 1920, p. 127.

(28) *Ibid.* Jan. 1922, p. 41.

(29) *Legislative Series*, 1919 (Swe. 2).

(30) *Svensk Författningssamling*, 1920, No. 287.

(31) *Ibid.* No. 286.

(32) *Ibid.* No. 308.

(33) *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Swe. 1).

(34) Notifications of 22 December 1921; *Svensk Författningssamling*, 1921, Nos. 754-756.

ment and maintenance workers is, by the amendment, limited to such of these workers as are paid by the month. As provided in the new Act, the amending Notification also authorises the regular working of longer hours than those prescribed as the normal period, if the majority of the workers concerned desire it. Finally, as in the other two cases, the limits of ordinary overtime are increased from 25 hours in a calendar month to 28 hours in four weeks, and from 150 to 200 hours in a year. Emergency overtime in addition to this is increased from 10 hours in a calendar month to 28 hours in four weeks; and the employment of young persons between 16 and 18 years of age on overtime work is referred to the Waterworks Office in consultation with the workers' representative body.

HYGIENE AND SAFETY

France

The increasing importance, from the point of view of health and morals, attached to sports in France is shown by two Decrees⁽³⁵⁾ amending that of 15 May 1910, respecting service on board ship in the Navy. These Decrees provide for the appointment of a special officer in charge of sports, and make sports a regular part of the training and exercise of the men instead of their being, as formerly, regarded merely as a voluntary form of recreation. A Circular, addressed by the Minister of Marine on 29 March 1922 to the various officers and other authorities concerned, explains the object of the amendments and the method of their application.

Germany : Prussia

Five industrial medical officers have been appointed by a Decree of the Prussian Government, dated 9 September 1921⁽³⁶⁾, to assist the industrial inspectors in connection with questions of hygiene, and to devote special attention to the causes, prevention, and cure of occupational diseases. These officers are not a part of the inspection service, but have the powers of inspectors under § 139 b of the Federal Industrial Code, and will, of course, work in close co-operation with the industrial inspectors.

In pursuance of a resolution of the Prussian Parliament, the Minister of Commerce and Industry has issued regulations⁽³⁷⁾ concerning the creation of a Mines Safety Office and mines safety commissions (a Chief Commission and district commissions). The Office is attached to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. It deals with all aspects of accident prevention in mines and supervises the mines safety commissions. The Chief Mines Safety Commission consists of the chief of the Office (who acts as president), a representative of each of the local mining authorities known as chief mining boards (*Oberbergämter*), five representatives of mine owners and five of employed persons (both salaried employees and wage earners), and three representatives of

⁽³⁵⁾ Decree issued by the President, 21 March 1922; Ministerial Order issued by the Minister of Marine, 29 March 1922; Circular of 29 March 1922. *Journal Officiel*, 1 Apr. 1922, p. 3580.

⁽³⁶⁾ *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger u. Preussischer Staatsanzeiger*, No. 7, 9 Jan. 1922.

⁽³⁷⁾ Dated 18 January 1922. *Deutscher Reichsanzeiger u. Preussischer Staatsanzeiger*, No. 21, 25 Jan. 1922.

the Prussian Parliament. The owners' and workers' representatives are chosen by the Federal Joint Labour Association (*Reichsarbeitsgemeinschaft*) for mining. The Commission must be consulted by the Minister on all important technical measures to be adopted in the interests of accident prevention, and must be given an opportunity of expressing its views on all proposed new regulations or substantial changes in the system of mine inspection. The Commission may also make suggestions to the Minister on its own initiative. Three existing technical committees dealing with safety in mines are to be attached to it, and others may be formed in connection with it as occasion arises. The district commissions are local replicas of the Chief Commission; they are attached in each district to the chief mining board, a representative of which acts as chairman, and they consist of two mining officials, two representatives of owners, two of employed persons, and two local members of the Prussian Parliament. Where possible the members of the district commissions are the members of the Chief Commission from the locality in question, other members being chosen in a similar manner to those of the Chief Commission. The district commissions not only advise on the prevention of accidents in their districts and give opinions on proposed regulations; they also collaborate in investigating the causes of serious accidents, and may even issue emergency instructions to prevent further calamities arising in connection with an accident under investigation. Both the Chief Commission and the district commissions may undertake inspections of mines. The members serve for four years in an honorary capacity, travelling expenses only being refunded.

Greece

The use of lead in the painting of ships and buildings was prohibited by Act No. 2654, passed on 6 August 1921 ⁽³⁸⁾, detailed instructions for the enforcement of the Act being issued by Royal Decree on 17 December 1921 ⁽³⁹⁾. Neither the Act nor the Decree differentiates between external and internal painting; prohibition is in quite general terms. It became applicable on 1 March 1922, dry rubbing down of surfaces painted with lead compounds being also forbidden except where precautions are taken to protect workers against the inhalation of the dust (§ 2 of Decree). The Decree provides for the issue of more detailed regulations for painting and for the specification of excepted industries (§ 3), and makes rules for the licensing of the use of lead colours in special cases (§ 4), the precautions to be taken by the users (§§ 5-9), and the sale of such colours (§ 11).

Serb, Croat, and Slovene Kingdom

A very comprehensive set of regulations on safety and hygiene in industrial undertakings was issued on 25 October 1921 in pursuance of § 25 of the Factory Inspection Order of 21 May 1921 ⁽⁴⁰⁾, which empowered the Minister of Social Affairs to extend existing regulations for the protection of workers or to make new ones. The regulations are divided into two sections—that comprising the *General Provisions* and that dealing with *Special Provisions*. Part I of the former relates to hygiene; e.g. to work rooms and their mode of construction (ch. I); cleanliness of work rooms (ch. II); ventilation, lighting, and heating

⁽³⁸⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921 (to appear shortly).

⁽³⁹⁾ See below under *Administration*.

(ch. III) ; means of protecting the eyes, lungs, hands, nose, and body in general (ch. IV). Part II is concerned with safety, covering such points as gangways, exits, etc. (ch. V) ; rules in case of fire (ch. VI) ; use of steam under pressure (ch. VII) ; use of prime movers, gearing, and machinery (ch. VIII) ; chains, hooks, for lifting, etc. (ch. IX) ; accommodation of workers (ch. X). The *Special Provisions* deal with safety and hygiene measures applicable to particular industries. These include the building trades ; lead trades ; glass blowing ; undertakings where electricity is used ; work in compressed air ; light railways for agricultural and building work ; power laundries ; printing works ; manufacture and use of carbide of calcium and acetylene ; quarries ; production of clay, sand, and gravel ; sugar industry ; paper making ; and navigation. Certain special features should be noted. The employment of women and young persons under eighteen is prohibited in the lead trades (§ 136) ; also in the glass trades where melting and blowing is carried on (§ 158) ; and at printing presses or where they are exposed to danger of lead poisoning (§ 229). As an exception in printing works authority is given for the employment of : (1) apprentices who have attained the age of sixteen years ; (2) women not less than eighteen years of age, in bronzing ; (3) women not less than eighteen years of age, in distributing type as well as in warehouses and in type setting ; (4) women who have already been employed for more than one year in the printing trade. White lead (§§ 149-153) may be used for painting only in the form of paste ; contact of the materials with the hands is to be avoided ; dry scraping is prohibited ; the workmen must wear special clothes ; tools have to be kept clean.

WAGES

Switzerland

The Resolution of 2 March 1917⁽⁴⁰⁾, fixing minimum rates of wages in the embroidery industry, was repealed by a Resolution of the Swiss Federal Council, dated 27 March 1922⁽⁴¹⁾, as far as embroidery by the so-called Schiffli machines is concerned, and the minimum rates ceased to be compulsory as from 1 April. The rates fixed for hand-machine embroidery remain in operation until further orders.

CONTRACTS OF WORK

Algeria

By a Decree of 7 August 1921⁽⁴²⁾ the French Act of 25 March 1919⁽⁴³⁾, respecting collective agreements, was extended to Algeria without modification. The Decree of 3 November 1919⁽⁴⁴⁾, specifying the duties and fees of registrars to justices of the peace and of secretaries of probiviral courts (*conseils de prud'hommes*), is also extended to Algeria. The Act defines a collective agreement in terms which cover all group

⁽⁴⁰⁾ *Eidgenössische Gesetzsammlung*, 1917, No. 11, p. 99 ; *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. XII, 1917, p. 109.

⁽⁴¹⁾ *Eidgenössische Gesetzsammlung*, 1922, No. 11, p. 315.

⁽⁴²⁾ *Journal officiel*, 13 Aug. 1921 ; *Bulletin des Lois*, 1921, No. 303, p. 3722.

⁽⁴³⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1919 (Fr. 1) ; amendment of 25 June 1919, *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Fr. 4).

⁽⁴⁴⁾ *Journal officiel*, 5 Nov. 1919, p. 12350 ; *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, XXVII, 1920, p. 130*.

agreements with one employer or more, irrespective of the existence and intervention of industrial associations. Provision is made for the filing of agreements with registrars to justices of the peace or secretaries of probiviral courts, and rules are made for the enforcement of agreements and for notices of withdrawal by either party.

JOINT CONTROL

Czechoslovakia

An Administrative Order was issued on 29 December 1921 ⁽⁴⁵⁾ in pursuance of the Works Committees Act ⁽⁴⁶⁾. Part I, § 1, of the Order provides for the starting of the committees in the first instance. Disputes at the outset as to the establishment of a committee at all (i.e. as to whether the undertaking comes within the class for which works committees must be set up under § 1 of the Act) are settled by the arbitration boards set up under § 26 of the Act, or, in the absence of any such board in the district, by the local factory inspector. Section 2 provides for joint sessions of the committees of wage-earning and salaried employees, where subjects of common interest are under discussion (see § 7 of the Act). Part II contains detailed regulations for the election of committees. The elections are conducted by a small election committee which is appointed, on the first occasion, by any workers' committee existing in the undertaking, or, failing that, consists of the oldest permanent workers employed; subsequently it is to be elected by the works committee not later than fifteen days before their period of office expires. The employer has the right to be represented at the meetings of the election committee and he must provide lists of persons employed and other necessary information. Procedure for voting is laid down in detail. Part III requires that, in undertakings where several works committees exist, joint meetings shall be held for the discussion of matters of common interest and for electing delegates to the board of management (see § 6 of the Act). Part IV consists of the rules of procedure of the arbitration boards (§ 26 of the Act), which must normally be set up in the area of each political district authority (*okresní politická správa*), and to which disputes arising in connection with the works committees must be referred.

An Order dated 25 November 1921 ⁽⁴⁷⁾ fixed 1 December 1921 as the date for the coming into force in certain districts of the Act of 25 February 1920 ⁽⁴⁸⁾ respecting the participation of miners in the management of mines.

Germany

Under § 70 of the Works Councils Act 1920 ⁽⁴⁹⁾, it was laid down that delegates must be sent by the works council to the control board of the undertaking, where such exists, in accordance with a special Act to be issued later. This special Act was passed on 15 February 1922 ⁽⁵⁰⁾; it regulates the number of delegates to be appointed (§ 4), the conditions and method of election (§§ 5-6), and provides that the first

⁽⁴⁵⁾ *Sbírka zákonu (Sammlung der Gesetze)*, 1922 (C. 2).

⁽⁴⁶⁾ Act of 12 August 1921. *Sbírka zákonu*, 1921 (C. 330). *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Cz. 4).

⁽⁴⁷⁾ *Sbírka zákonu*, 1921, (C. 426).

⁽⁴⁸⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (Cz. 6).

⁽⁴⁹⁾ *Ibid.* 1920 (Ger. 1-2).

⁽⁵⁰⁾ *Ibid.* 1922 (to appear shortly).

election of delegates shall be held not later than the end of April 1922 (§ 11). The rules for the election are contained in an Order issued on 23 March 1922 ⁽⁵¹⁾.

Great Britain

Under Part II of the Mining Industry Act 1920 ⁽⁵²⁾ Regulations ⁽⁵³⁾ have been issued by the Board of Trade concerning the election of pit and district committees, area boards, and a national board, to act as advisory bodies on wages questions, safety and welfare of workers, and output, in the coal mining industry (Schedule II of the Regulations). In case of failure to obtain a majority at the preliminary ballot in favour of the establishment of a pit committee, provision is made for the taking of another vote not less than a year later at the instance of either of the parties concerned. All the committees and boards consist of representatives of employers and workers in equal numbers, provision being made for the special representation of surface workers. District committees may take over the functions of existing conciliation boards, and the powers of joint district boards under the Coal Mines (Minimum Wage) Act 1912 ⁽⁵⁴⁾ (Part II of Regulations, §§ 24-27); in Scotland the latter powers are reserved for the Area Board (Part II, § 33). For these purposes an independent chairman must be appointed by the committee or board; but for their ordinary work the pit committees must have a chairman nominated by the owners from among their representatives and a vice-chairman nominated by the workers from their group, while the other bodies are free to make their own rules as regards chairmen. Disputes in connection with particular mines must not be considered by the pit committee until an opportunity has been afforded for direct negotiation between owners and workers in accordance with local custom (§ 13).

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION

Czechoslovakia

An Act dated 27 January 1922 ⁽⁵⁵⁾ introduced some changes into the provisions of the Building Act of 1921 establishing wages arbitration courts for the building trade ⁽⁵⁶⁾. The part of the Act of 1921 dealing with arbitration courts was to go out of operation at the end of 1922 (§ 71). The new Act contains no fixed limit of operation. The amendments consist in (1) the inclusion of a paragraph to the effect that the Act shall not affect the competence of other courts for settling disputes concerning conditions of work (§ 12, par. 2); (2) the omission of the section (formerly § 17) which prohibited strikes and lock-outs while the matter in dispute was pending before the court of arbitration; and (3) the

⁽⁵¹⁾ *Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, 1922, Part I, p. 307.

⁽⁵²⁾ 10 & 11 Geo. 5, c. 50; *Legislative Series*, 1920 (G. B. 4).

⁽⁵³⁾ Mining Industry (Committees and Boards) Regulations 1922, dated 16 January 1922, made by the Board of Trade under § 7 of the Mining Industry Act 1920 (10 & 11 Geo. 5, c. 50), for the constitution of committees and boards under Part II of the Act. (*Statutory Rules & Orders*, 1922, No. 44).

⁽⁵⁴⁾ 2-3 Geo. 5, c. 2. *Bulletin of the International Labour Office* (Basle), Vol. VII, 1912, p. 109.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ *Zákon o stavebním ruchu* (*Gesetz über die Baubewegung*). *Sbírka zákonů*, 1922, C. 45.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Part II of the Act of 11 March 1921. *Sbírka zákonů*, 1921 (C. 100); *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Cz. 1).

addition of a section (the new § 17) giving the court power to act if both parties submit to its jurisdiction, even when a strike or lock-out is actually in progress, and requiring the court to sit within fourteen days after a matter has been referred to it.

Denmark

An Act on conciliation in labour disputes ⁽⁵⁷⁾ was passed on 21 December 1921, superseding a very similar Act dated 18 January 1918 and due to expire on 1 January 1926. It provides for the appointment of three conciliators (§ 1), each of whom may deal with disputes in any part of the country or any trade, according to the division of work agreed upon (§ 2); in particularly important cases all three may act together (§ 5). It is the duty of the conciliators to secure up-to-date information on conditions of employment, and to meet as often as may be necessary. They have the right to demand copies of all collective agreements from the organisations concluding them (§ 2). Whenever a strike of any magnitude occurs or is believed to be imminent, a conciliator may summon representatives of the parties to the dispute, who are bound to appear if thus called upon (§ 3). The conciliator is entitled to require the parties to give all necessary information concerning matters of fact, and may refer a case to the Permanent Court of Arbitration for further enquiry (§ 6). Proposed settlements which are to be voted upon by organisations must be so framed that the question to members can be answered by a simple affirmation or negation, and the organisations themselves are responsible for seeing that all their members have an opportunity of voting (§ 7).

SOCIAL INSURANCE

Czechoslovakia

The former Austrian Act of 1906 ⁽⁵⁸⁾ on old age and invalidity insurance (pension insurance) of salaried employees was brought into conformity with Czechoslovak requirements by an amending Act of 5 February 1920 ⁽⁵⁹⁾. But as that Act did not apply to employees in the public railway service, and required the Minister of Social Welfare to regulate the pensions of these persons in agreement with the Minister of Railways (§ 2 a), an Order was issued on 29 December 1921 ⁽⁶⁰⁾, which provides for the pension insurance of all permanently appointed railway employees not being engaged as manual workers or apprentices or in subordinate duties. Temporary employees or persons engaged on probation come, in general, under the ordinary provisions of the Act. Insurance is effected, except in the case of state railways, through a Pensions Institution, of which the employees and their employers are members (§ 4). A railway company may, however, procure the permission of the Minister to establish its own insurance system instead of joining the general Institution, provided that the employees procure equally favourable terms and adequate guarantees are furnished (§ 8). Insurance of employees of the state railways is arranged through the state Railways Pensions Fund under special regulations (§ 7). The

⁽⁵⁷⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921, Part II (to appear shortly).

⁽⁵⁸⁾ Act of 16 December 1906. *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. I, 1906, p. 398.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ *Sbírka zákonů*, 1920, C. 89.

⁽⁶⁰⁾ *Ibid.* 1921 (C. 506); in force 1 January 1922.

rules of the Pensions Institution are to be drawn up by the Ministers concerned and must deal with certain matters specifically mentioned in the Order; among other things, the rules must require insured persons to pay half the insurance contribution and they must have equal representation with the employers in the administration of the Institution. For the details of the insurance (salary classes for the purposes of insurance, benefits, etc.) the Order merely refers to the Act itself, which applies with the consequential modifications specified in the Order.

Germany

The provisions of the Federal Insurance Code dealing with maternity benefits have been again amended, by an Act dated 28 December 1921⁽⁶¹⁾. This Act increases the nursing bonus for women who nurse their new-born infants themselves from 1½ marks a day (the amount fixed by the Act of 29 July 1921⁽⁶²⁾) to 4½ marks a day⁽⁶³⁾. The same increase is made by an amendment to the Act of 22 May 1920 in the maternity benefits provided for women with small incomes who are not insured⁽⁶⁴⁾, and the income limit below which these benefits are payable is raised from 10,000 marks a year (to which it had been raised from 4,000 marks by the Act of 29 July 1921) to 15,000 marks⁽⁶⁵⁾.

Spain

The service for the inspection of insurance societies, organised under the Act of 14 May 1908, has been transferred by a Royal Decree of 18 October 1921⁽⁶⁶⁾ from the Ministry of Development to the recently created Ministry of Labour. The Insurance Commission and the Consultative Committee on Insurance have also been transferred to the latter Ministry.

The Spanish Accident Insurance Act of 30 January 1900⁽⁶⁷⁾ was amended and codified by an Act dated 10 January 1922⁽⁶⁸⁾. The terms "employer" and "worker" are more precisely defined. The scope of the Act has been extended to include all workers in agricultural, sylvicultural, and cattle-breeding undertakings in which more than six workers are habitually employed, and, in undertakings where mechanical power is used, all workers employed in connection with such power or injured in connection with its use; formerly the compensation provisions for agriculture applied only to those workers who were engaged in direct connection with mechanical power. The following have also been brought within the scope of the Act by its recent amend-

⁽⁶¹⁾ Act No. 8456. *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1922, p. 7.

⁽⁶²⁾ Act No. 8263. *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1921, p. 1189. *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Ger. 6).

⁽⁶³⁾ See §§ 195a (4) and 205a, paragraph 2, as amended by the Act of 29 July 1921. *Legislative Series*, 1921 (Ger. 6).

⁽⁶⁴⁾ See § 19 of the Act of 22 May 1920 (*Legislative Series*, 1920, Ger. 15), as amended by the Act of 29 July 1921 (*Legislative Series*, 1921, Ger. 6, p. 3).

⁽⁶⁵⁾ See Act of 29 July 1921. *Legislative Series*, 1921, Ger. 6, p. 3.

⁽⁶⁶⁾ *Gaceta de Madrid*, 19 Oct. 1921; *Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, No. CCIX, Nov. 1921, p. 610.

⁽⁶⁷⁾ French translation in the *Annuaire de la Législation du Travail*, 1900, p. 437.

⁽⁶⁸⁾ *Ley reformada relativa a los accidentes del trabajo, 10 de enero 1922* (*Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, 1922, No. CCXII, p. 357). (To be published in the *Legislative Series*, 1922).

ments: persons engaged in the fishing industry; the lower-paid employees in theatres; salesmen and commercial travellers; employees in hospitals, asylums, poor-houses and similar establishments; and, finally, employees in offices or subsidiary establishments of factories and industrial undertakings, provided that their annual wage does not exceed 5,000 pesetas (§ 3). The Act also applies to all workers in state factories, arsenals, and other similar establishments, and to all employees of public authorities (§ 11). The compensation payable for temporary disablement is increased from one-half to three-fourths of the daily wage without any reduction for holidays (§ 4). Regulations are to be issued determining the grade of incapacity and the compensation payable according to the nature of the permanent disablement. The provisions of the Royal Decree of 15 March 1917⁽⁶⁹⁾, respecting occupational incapacity due to rupture, are to be embodied in these regulations. Municipal doctors (*Beneficencia municipal*) who have agreed to accept a fixed rate of remuneration for their services may be called upon by both the employer and the worker to render assistance in case of an accident (§ 5). If the accident results in death the employer bears the whole of the usual funeral expenses, and compensation is payable to the surviving widow and to legitimate and legally recognised illegitimate and adopted children up to the age of 18 years (as against 16 years under the old Act) (§ 6).

The employer is responsible for the notification of any accident to the competent authorities in the prescribed form, and penalties are provided for the non-fulfilment of this obligation (§ 7). Provided that the beneficiaries agree and satisfactory guarantees for payment are forthcoming, employers may pay the compensation due in the form of an annuity (§ 9). Compensation is calculated on the basis of the actual wage received (both in money and in kind) at the time of the accident, but in no case may the daily wage be reckoned as less than 2 pesetas (§ 10).

Chapters II and III are new. Chapter II makes general provisions for dealing with the prevention of accidents and with vocational rehabilitation under regulations to be issued later, and Chapter III makes regulations for optional insurance against occupational accidents with approved societies.

Finland

Section 22 of the Unemployment Funds Order of 2 November 1917⁽⁷⁰⁾ was repealed by an Act of 30 December 1921⁽⁷¹⁾. This Section empowered the Government to charge one-half of the state subsidy to unemployment funds in respect of recipients of unemployment benefit to the communes in which these persons are entitled to poor relief. The Order of 28 December 1917⁽⁷²⁾ issued in pursuance of that of 2 November 1917 is also amended by an Order of 30 December 1921⁽⁷³⁾, which deletes the provision in § 6 requiring the attestation of the magistrate or communal board concerned respecting the expenditure of the commune on unemployment benefit.

(69) *Boletín del Instituto de Reformas Sociales*, 1917, No. CLIV, p. 366.

(70) *Författningssamling*, 1917, No. 95.

(71) *Ibid.* 1921, No. 306.

(72) *Ibid.* 1917, No. 120.

(73) *Ibid.* 1921, No. 307.

Italy

By a Royal Decree of 5 February 1922⁽⁷⁴⁾ the provisions of the Legislative Decree of 19 October 1919⁽⁷⁵⁾ and its amending and supplementary Acts and Decrees, respecting employment exchanges and unemployment insurance, are extended to the territories annexed to Italy by the Treaties of St. Germain and Rapallo. The new Decree gives full instructions for the appointment of the requisite committees and commissions, and for the payment of contributions and benefits, adapting to the Italian system the existing unemployment organisations of the new areas.

By a Royal Decree of 29 January 1922⁽⁷⁶⁾ regulations have been issued for the administration of the Act of 1921 for the engagement of men disabled in the war⁽⁷⁷⁾. These regulations repeat most of the provisions of the Act, define the public offices and bodies to which § 8 of the Act applies (§§ 4-7), and give detailed instructions for applications for employment (§ 14), the appointment and work of medical boards (§§ 27-31), and medical certificates (§ 15). Persons suffering from active tuberculosis of the lungs, infectious diseases, or mental disorders of any kind are specifically excluded from the scope of compulsory engagement (§ 15, last paragraph). Seasonal industries are covered by the Act so far as the permanent employees in these industries are concerned (§ 21). A register of disabled employees must be kept in each establishment (§ 25).

EMIGRATION

Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes

By an Order dated 21 May 1921, which was brought into operation by a Decree of 7 July 1921⁽⁷⁸⁾, regulations were issued for emigration and an Emigration and Immigration Division was constituted in the Ministry of Social Affairs. The main provisions of the regulations are similar to those of the Italian Emigration Act of 1919⁽⁷⁹⁾; commissioners are appointed in the principal ports, and emigration attachés in the principal consulates overseas, under the control of the Emigration Division, to assist in the administration of the law (§§ 2-8). Rules are made for the issue of passports, so as to ensure that military service shall not be evaded by emigration, and that young persons shall be properly looked after (§ 9). Shipping undertakings are not allowed to carry on propaganda in favour of emigration (§ 25), and their responsibilities in respect of the issue of tickets and provision of transport are set out in great detail (§§ 10-30). Travelling via ports in other European countries is prohibited. Arrangements are made for the gratuitous repatriation of indigent emigrants (§ 29), and an Emigration Fund is to be formed from the fines and other receipts under the Act to defray expenses in connection with the welfare of emigrants (§§ 31-34).

⁽⁷⁴⁾ *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 14 Mar. 1922, No. 61.

⁽⁷⁵⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1920 (It. 2).

⁽⁷⁶⁾ *Gazzetta Ufficiale*, 18 Feb. 1922, p. 356.

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

⁽⁷⁸⁾ *Ibid.* 1921, Part II (to appear shortly).

⁽⁷⁹⁾ *Ibid.* 1920 (It. 1).

Czechoslovakia

The Emigration Act of Czechoslovakia, passed on 15 February 1922 ⁽⁸⁰⁾, also resembles the Italian Act mentioned above in its provisions for the authorisation and activities of undertakings for the transportation of emigrants (§§ 13-32). Special rules are made for the protection of young persons and women (§§ 2, 34-35). Women under 21 and boys under 16 must not emigrate at all unless provided with a proper escort for the whole journey. The consent of the guardianship authority is required for the emigration of minors not accompanied by their parents, except in the case of minors over 18 going to European countries, and even here the authority may prohibit emigration if it is for the purpose of taking up an unhealthy or improper occupation.

The regulations for the publication of information concerning prospects in other countries (§ 5), and also for the engagement of workers by employers in other countries (§§ 6-11) are so framed that they ensure the protection of the emigrants' economic interests, while at the same time they may be expected to operate as a check upon the withdrawal of more workers than the country can spare (cf § 4). The Act comes into operation on 15 June 1922 (three months from the date of its promulgation), superseding the Austrian Act of 21 January 1897, the Hungarian Act No. II of 1909, and the German Act of 9 June 1897, which have hitherto been in force in the various parts of the newly formed State.

Greece

Greece has also recently passed an Emigration Act—Act No. 2475 of 24 July 1920 ⁽⁸¹⁾. Like the two foregoing Acts, it provides for the registration and regulation of emigrant transport undertakings (§§ 12-26), and prohibits all propaganda in favour of emigration (§ 21). Emigration offices are to be established (§§ 6-9) in all the larger ports, in connection with the prefectures, which have the duty of issuing passports to emigrants (§ 2). Every vessel carrying more than twenty-five emigrants must carry also a government medical officer appointed by the emigrants' inspection service (§§ 10-11). Provision is made for the formation of a fund (out of the fines and other receipts under the Act) for the repatriation and settlement at home of emigrants desirous of returning to Greece, and for the elementary education of Greeks in the United States (§§ 37-39). The administration of the Act is entrusted to a special section in the Ministry of the Interior, under the Directorate of Public Assistance and Public Health (§ 5).

ADMINISTRATION

Czechoslovakia

By an Order dated 29 December 1921 ⁽⁸²⁾, the Advisory Economic Council was recognised. Under its new rules the Council is to advise any government Department on request or may issue reports and proposals on its own initiative; the central government authorities concerned must consequently submit all Bills or draft Orders to the

⁽⁸⁰⁾ Ibid. 1922 (to appear shortly). A fuller summary of this Act appears in the *Notes on Migration* in Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 977-8 of the *International Labour Review*.

⁽⁸¹⁾ Ibid. 1921, Part II (to appear shortly).

⁽⁸²⁾ *Sbírka zákonů*, 1922 (C. 3).

Council in good time for comment (§ 2). The Council consists of one hundred and fifty members, sixty representing employers, sixty representing workers, and thirty being scientific experts or practical economists (at least four of the third group must represent consumers). The first and second groups are appointed on the nomination of specified trade organisations, and provision is made for the allocation of the representation in certain proportions among particular groups of trades, and different districts and peoples (according to the language spoken); a substitute is appointed for each member (§§ 3 and 4). The members and their substitutes are appointed for three years, but the Government may at any time dissolve the Council and proceed to a reappointment of members (§ 5). The presiding officers form an executive board, the "Presidium", consisting of the President (nominated by the Government), four Vice-Presidents (elected two each from the employers' and workers' groups respectively, and two of whom must be permanently resident in Prague), and the chairmen of the permanent committees of the Council (§ 6). Permanent committees may be appointed according to need to deal with particular subjects; they consist of not more than thirty persons representing the various groups in the same proportions as in the Council itself. Local correspondents may be appointed to advise the Council in writing, and experts may be called in to attend the meetings of the Council or any of its committees in a consultative capacity (§§ 8 & 13). Members of the Council, substitutes, and experts all act nominally in an honorary capacity, but those whose incomes are less than 20,000 kronen are granted a daily allowance of 50 kronen during attendance at a session of the Council, and all the members and experts attending are entitled to their travelling expenses (§ 7). The Presiding Officers of the House of Representatives and of the Senate must be sent notices of the meetings of the Council and have the right to send a member of each Chamber to attend. A representative of the Ministry interested in the subject under discussion must also be invited (§ 9). The Council draws up its own standing orders (§ 16).

France

By a Decree of the Minister of Labour, issued on 21 February 1922⁽⁸³⁾, a Consultative Commission was appointed to advise the Government on the drafting and application of international labour and social insurance Conventions and on questions under Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles, especially in connection with instructions to the French government representatives in the International Labour Organisation. This commission supersedes the Commission of Enquiry appointed by the Interdepartmental Order of 20 July 1917 to enquire into the labour conditions which were to be dealt with by means of agreements between the Allies or arrangements subsequent to the treaty of peace. It includes representatives of the Ministries of Labour, Health, Foreign Affairs, and of the Senate and Chamber of Deputies.

Germany

Under an Act of 30 March 1922⁽⁸⁴⁾ certain legislative provisions dealing with the period of economic demobilisation are to remain in force until 31 October 1922, unless previously repealed. Among the laws in question are several which deal with labour questions, namely —

⁽⁸³⁾ *Journal Officiel*, 16 Mar. 1922, p. 2984. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Official Bulletin*, Vol. V, No. 14, p. 221.

⁽⁸⁴⁾ *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1922, p. 285.

Order of the Federal Minister of Labour respecting provision for unemployment, dated 1 November 1921 ⁽⁸⁵⁾, with its amendment dated 21 March 1922 ⁽⁸⁶⁾.

Regulations of the Federal Board for Economic Demobilisation respecting employment exchanges, dated 9 December 1918 ⁽⁸⁷⁾.

Order of the Federal Minister of Labour respecting the engagement and dismissal of wage-earning and salaried employees during the period of economic demobilisation, dated 12 February 1920 ⁽⁸⁸⁾, with the amending Order of 28 January 1922 ⁽⁸⁹⁾.

Regulations of the Federal Board for Economic Demobilisation respecting the hours of work of industrial workers, dated 23 November 1918 ⁽⁹⁰⁾, with the supplementary regulations of 17 December 1918 ⁽⁹¹⁾.

Order of the Federal Ministry of Economic Demobilisation respecting the regulation of the hours of work of salaried employees during the period of economic demobilisation, dated 18 March 1919 ⁽⁹²⁾.

Order of the Federal Ministers of National Economy and Labour respecting measures to prevent stoppages and closing down of undertakings, dated 8 November 1920 ⁽⁹³⁾.

Order of the Federal Minister of Labour respecting the designation of a substitute insurance carrier for the Federal Railways Pensions Fund in Alsace-Lorraine, dated 6 October 1921 ⁽⁹⁴⁾.

Order of the Federal Ministry of Economic Demobilisation respecting the extension of compulsory attendance at continuation schools for the period of economic demobilisation, dated 28 March 1919 ⁽⁹⁵⁾.

In addition to the above extensions (and several others not relating to labour questions), all State Orders issued in virtue of the powers granted for demobilisation purposes, respecting domestic workers and also respecting the simplified procedure for the acquisition of plots of land and of titles thereto in connection with relief works, are to continue in force until 31 March 1923, unless previously repealed by the State Governments.

Except as specified above, all regulations in connection with economic demobilisation expired on 31 March 1922, and no more are to be issued. The demobilisation commissions will be relieved of their duties by State Governments on a date to be fixed later by the Federal Government, not later than 31 March 1923 in any case.

Serb, Croat, and Slovene Kingdom

On 20 December 1921 Jugo-Slavia adopted a Factory Inspection Act ⁽⁹⁶⁾ unifying the five different systems ⁽⁹⁷⁾ previously operative within its boundaries, and superseding the Factory Inspection Order of

⁽⁸⁵⁾ Ibid. 1921, p. 1337.

⁽⁸⁶⁾ Ibid. 1922.

⁽⁸⁷⁾ Ibid. 1918, p. 1421.

⁽⁸⁸⁾ Ibid. 1920, p. 218.

⁽⁸⁹⁾ Ibid. 1922, p. 187.

⁽⁹⁰⁾ Ibid. 1918, p. 1334; *Bulletin of the International Labour Office (Basle)*, Vol. XIII, 1918, p. 8.

⁽⁹¹⁾ *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1918, p. 1436; *Legislative Series*, 1919 (Ger. 1).

⁽⁹²⁾ *Reichsgesetzblatt*, 1919, p. 315.

⁽⁹³⁾ Ibid. 1920, p. 1901.

⁽⁹⁴⁾ Ibid. 1921, p. 1287.

⁽⁹⁵⁾ Ibid. 1919, p. 354; *Legislative Series*, 1919 (Ger. 5).

⁽⁹⁶⁾ *Legislative Series*, 1921, Part II (to appear shortly).

⁽⁹⁷⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, p. 830.

21 May 1921. The Act applies to all industrial undertakings, handicrafts, commerce, and transport (§ 1), (except the state railways, which remain under the direction of the Ministry of Transport). Mines inspection is to be specially regulated by agreement with the Ministry of Agriculture and Mines (§ 2). The powers and duties of the Chief Inspector and the provincial inspectors are set forth in detail (§§ 4-16). The provincial inspectors are required not only to supervise the observance of provisions respecting employment, but to act as conciliators in industrial disputes if called in by either party, and to collect statistics of disputes (§ 9, No. 6). They are entitled to make enforceable orders for the remedying of defects (§ 14). Special inspectorates are to be provided for building, transport, mining, and home industry (§ 17). General rules for the appointment and work of inspectors are set forth (§§ 18-24). The Act is to come into operation on a date fixed by the Crown (§ 27), simultaneously repealing the various labour inspection laws previously in force in various parts of the country (§ 26).



GOVERNMENT REPORTS

ADMINISTRATION OF LABOUR LAWS IN QUEBEC 1920-1921 ⁽¹⁾

ABOUT one-half of the report for 1920-1921 of the Minister of Public Works and Labour in the Province of Quebec is devoted to labour questions, the remainder dealing with financial and technical aspects of the constructional works and repairs carried out during the year. For industrial inspection purposes the Province consists of three divisions, with a staff of thirteen men and three women inspectors (p. 78). The Chief Inspector complains of the inadequacy of this staff, especially since the inspection of hotels has been added to its other duties in two of the three divisions (p. 83). The annual summary reports of the various inspectors are given in full, but they contain little definite information and are not strictly comparable. It is noted that very few married women are employed in factories in the Province (p. 88). During the year a system of registration of employed children was in operation; and it was found that there was an enormous increase of registrations for the period from June to September (for holiday employment). It was impossible to trace all the children under fourteen in employment, as their workplaces were not always within the competence of the industrial inspectors (p. 185).

The number of accidents occurring during the year was 737, as against 829 in 1919-1920; 26 were fatal. The Assistant Inspector-in-Chief reports that he spends much time in instructing employers and workers in ordinary precautions, and that several safety committees have been organised. He thinks that the accident rate could be reduced by one-half or more if reasonable care were exercised and proper guards and other protective devices used (pp. 92-93). The remark of one of the women inspectors may be noted as to the difficulty of getting girls working at machines to fasten up their hair closely (p. 95). Two of the women inspectors refer also to another source of danger—the blocking of emergency exits intended for use in case of fire (pp. 95, 98). In hotel inspection ignorance and disregard of hygienic requirements were frequently met with in the Quebec division (pp. ix, 161-8).

The Minister of Labour reports also on the work of the five public employment exchanges (pp. 111-133). These registered 33,391 applications for work during the year, and filled 12,237 of the 14,433 vacancies notified to them (p. v). The powers of certain municipalities in the licensing of women's employment bureaux were withdrawn by the Legislature (p. 84), and the Chief Inspector states that the Government will shortly open a great central registry office for women domestic, shop, and office workers (p. 87).

Under the heading of *Trade Disputes* (pp. 134-8), an account is given of the Thetford miners' strike, which lasted a month and ended in an unconditional return to work at the old wages (pp. 135-6). Notes are also given in two cases under the Municipal Strike and Lock-out Act

⁽¹⁾ QUEBEC, MINISTER OF PUBLIC WORKS AND LABOUR : *General Report for the Year ending 30 June, 1921* ; pp. xiv+176 ; plates. Quebec, A. Proulx, 1921.

(pp. 136-7). The report also contains particulars of the examinations for employment as stationary engineers (pp. ix-xi, 169-172), and of the operation of the Fair Wages Clause in government contracts (pp. xi, 173).

INDUSTRIAL INSPECTION IN SOUTH AFRICA DURING 1920 ⁽¹⁾

Factory inspection in South Africa, for which the Factories Division of the Department of Mines and Industries is responsible, was carried out in 1920 by five inspectors, together with three men and two women assistants. The number of factories registered during the year was 3,152, as compared with 1,177 in 1919, "leaving 647 still to be registered". The number of visits of inspection made during the year was 9,944. The factories applying for registration employed 104,120 persons in all—29 per cent. Europeans, 11 per cent. Asiatics, 24 per cent. coloured persons, and 36 per cent. natives (p. 1). A special system of registration for juveniles employed in factories was inaugurated in 1920 (p. 4), and 1,707 juveniles (358 Europeans) were examined during the year, 20 being rejected as physically unfit. The employment of 319 children under 14 (275 being Asiatics) was authorised (p. 3). During the year 16,018 women were employed in factories, 6,622 of them being European (p. 1).

The provisions respecting hours of work were reported as fairly well observed; it may be noted that the Factories Act ⁽²⁾ allows a 50-hour week. The use of overtime was found to be decreasing (p. 2). Applications for leave to work on Sunday numbered 358, covering 14,062 persons. This kind of work also was observed to be decreasing (p. 3). Welfare work progressed satisfactorily in several districts, but it was found too often that the mess-rooms and rest-rooms provided were the worst rooms in the factory, dark, ill-ventilated, and inadequately furnished. Lighting in workrooms was often defective, owing to bad distribution of illumination and failure to clean windows regularly. In the larger and more modern factories, conditions were, as a rule, good, but great difficulties were encountered in some rural towns in respect of sanitation, which accounted for 277 of the 582 notices served on local authorities and occupiers (p. 5). In addition to these notices 76 prosecutions were undertaken, and 62 convictions obtained; the keeping of registers of hours and wages was the main point on which the law was contravened (p. 7).

Accidents, involving absence from work for at least fourteen days, were reported to the number of 243, of which 140 were due to working machinery; accidents involving a shorter period of disablement are not notifiable. There were 31 deaths from accident (25 being to coloured persons; the incidence of non-fatal injuries also was greater among coloured than among white people) (pp. 6-7). Draft regulations were prepared during the year for the fencing of transmission machinery. Efforts were made to secure voluntary returns on industrial poisoning,

⁽¹⁾ UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, DEPARTMENT OF MINES AND INDUSTRIES : *Abridged Report of the Factories Division for the calendar Year 1920*; extracted from the volume of *Annual Departmental Reports (Abridged) for the period 1920-1921*. 8vo. pp. 8. Pretoria, Government Printer. 1922.

⁽²⁾ Act No. 28 of 1918. The provisions respecting normal hours are alike for all persons over 16 (§ 13); women are classed with young persons under 16 as regards night work (§ 15) and overtime (§ 17). Regulations for prohibiting Sunday work (§ 26) and requiring the keeping of registers (§ 12) apply to all workers alike.

but none were obtained, and the Division has no power to require statutory returns. Anthrax regulations for factories were issued in view of the spread of the disease ; but none of the 54 cases reported in 1920 were attributable to factory work (p. 7).

THE MINING INDUSTRY IN SOUTH AFRICA IN 1920 ⁽¹⁾

South African mines and quarries, like factories, are under the supervision of the Department of Mines and Industries, but have a separate inspection staff—eight inspectors, nine deputy inspectors, twelve assistants, and four sub-inspectors, one inspector of dust and ventilation, twelve inspectors and ten assistant inspectors of machinery, two inspectors of explosives, and one inspector of underground contracts, together with various technical surveyors and clerical employees. The total staff engaged in connection with mining inspection in 1920 amounted to 118 persons (p. 17). These were responsible for supervising 388 undertakings employing in all 309,118 persons, of whom 38,710 were whites (p. 19). The average of about eight coloured workers to one white, as observed in 1920, is about the normal figure for many years past ; it was only in 1915-1916 that the proportion rose as high as nine to one (p. 22). In diamond mining there were about seven coloured workers to two whites in 1920, in gold mining seventeen to two, and in coal mining about eighteen to one. Gold mining accounted for about two-thirds of the total number of persons employed, diamond mining for nearly one-fifth, and coal mining for one-ninth (p. 19). Full details are given both in the report (pp. 28-31) and in the appended tables respecting the wages of various nationalities and grades in each class of mine. In gold mining it was found that the wages of white miners averaged 32s. 8d. per shift, and of white surface workers 25s. 5d. per shift ; the wages of coloured workers other than natives averaged one-quarter of the white workers' wages ; and natives working underground got about 2s. 2½d. a shift, together with board and lodging valued at 1s. 1d. a day (p. 29).

The section on "Working of the Laws" (pp. 57-62) deals mainly with hours of work. During the year 606 permits were issued for work on Sundays and holidays, including 147 permits for continuous work of this kind extending over periods of two to twelve months. The Chief Inspector suggests that the Act be modified so as to allow the authorisation of Sunday work for various current repairs to shafts, headgears, etc., which can most safely and economically be carried out when the mine is not working. Prosecutions were mostly in connection with the employment of natives, where proper care and supervision were not infrequently neglected. The number of cases heard in magistrates' courts was 99 and in inspectors' courts 1,022 ; convictions were obtained in 71 of the former and 979 of the latter (p. 55).

Accidents occurring during the year numbered 3,796, as against 3,511 in 1919 ⁽²⁾. Of these 389 (46 fatal) occurred to whites, and 3,407

⁽¹⁾ UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA, DEPARTMENT OF MINES AND INDUSTRIES : *Annual Reports of the Secretary for Mines and Industries and the Government Mining Engineer for the calendar Year 1920*. Fol., pp. 123+34 tables+rv ; charts. Pretoria, Government Printer, 1921.

⁽²⁾ No two totals for accidents in this report exactly agree, as the figures for alluvial diamond diggings are officially stated to be unreliable. Those quoted above are totals computed from the analysis on p. 39, and are slightly above the official totals coupled with this analysis.

(608 fatal) to coloured persons (p. 39). The death rate is substantially lower for whites than for coloured persons—1.35 per thousand as compared with 2.31 (p. 40), while the respective accident rates are 10.0 and 12.6 per thousand. In connection with the handling of trucks and trams 832 accidents occurred, while 830 were due to falls of ground, and 791 to falls of material (p. 41). The analysis of personal factors affecting the accident rate indicates only 9.8 per cent. of casualties as having been caused by the negligence of the injured persons themselves, and 69.8 per cent. as being cases of risk inherent in the work (p. 42).

Miners' phthisis is dealt with in a special chapter (pp. 77-85). During 1919-1920 398 cases were met with, as against 349 in 1918-1919, and 153 in 1917-1918. This increase is attributed to the fact that many miners were returning from military service during the year, and were then examined for the first time; not a few were found to have been suffering from phthisis for years (p. 77). It was found that the incidence of the disease was greater among men using machine drills, and the "dry jack hammer" type was prohibited as from 31 March 1921 (p. 85). Full details are given as to ventilation in various mines, together with the observations of the special inspectors (pp. 78-85). The fine dust and fumes to which blasting gives rise were found very troublesome, and it was concluded that through ventilation was a far more effective and permanently useful device for dust prevention than sprinkling (p. 83).

Extracts are given from the reports of the inspectors in charge of districts (pp. 102-119). There are complaints of the uneconomic use of native labour, and especially of the employment of cheap hand labour instead of mechanical devices yielding a much greater output (pp. 102, 109). It was found at Randfontein that many cases of septicaemia occurred owing to the difficulty of securing prompt treatment for slight injuries to natives, though other mines in the same area had a much better record (p. 103). At New Modderfontein there is now a rule that every white worker below ground must carry a first-aid dressing packet for emergency use (p. 106). The report of the Inspector of Underground Contracts is given in full (pp. 120-3). He was appointed to examine the allegations of roguery and incompetence brought against mine surveyors in connection with payment for contract work. The conclusion which he bases on his investigations is that the accusations are unfounded, and that on the whole the worker usually gets the best of the bargain, owing to the practice of reckoning to the nearest fathom or half-fathom above the exact amount ascertained.

The report closes with thirty-four very full statistical tables giving the particulars which have been summarised in the body of the report; there is a brief index.

INDUSTRIAL INSPECTION IN TASMANIA 1919-1920 ⁽¹⁾

The Tasmanian Industrial Department was responsible during the year ending 30 June 1920 for the administration of the Factories Act 1910 (with amendments), the Wages Boards Acts 1910 (with amendments), the Shops Closing Acts 1911, and the Footwear Act 1918. During this year it also took over control of the Labour Bureau, formerly attached to the Government Tourist Department. The number of inspectors is

⁽¹⁾ TASMANIA, INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT : *Fifth Annual Report for 1919-1920, on Factories, Wages Boards, Shops, etc.* Fol., pp. 33. Hobart, Government Printer. 1920.

not mentioned, but the Chief Inspector states that the existing staff is insufficient (p. 3). Over 5,000 inspections were made during the year; 1,013 factories, employing 9,608 persons (p. 14), were on the register in 1920. Conditions were found to be fairly satisfactory in general, though the legal provisions respecting the supply of pure drinking water were often disregarded (p. 7). The 272 orders made for the remedying of defects in the construction, equipment, and care of factories included 51 for whitewashing the interior of factories, 45 for the provision of adequate fire-extinguishing appliances, and 31 for the cleansing of sanitary accommodation (p. 18).

The work of the Department under the Wages Boards Acts (comprising more than half its activities) is reviewed fully, summaries of those proceedings of boards which resulted in new determinations or amendments being given (pp. 19-22). Rates of wages, weekly normal hours, apprentices' and improvers' licences issued, and arrears of wages secured are analysed by trades in tabular form (pp. 23-31). As regards the Shops Closing Act, complaint is made of the difficulties encountered in applying it to small shops and shops of mixed trades, also to anomalies and opportunities of evasion (p. 31). It is recorded that 461 small shops were registered during the year (p. 32). The Footwear Act was not in full operation throughout the year, as various temporary exemptions for the clearing of stocks were in force until 1 March 1920 (p. 32). The Labour Bureau was taken over by the Industrial Department on 1 September 1919, and received 857 applications for employment during the rest of the year, nearly all of which were satisfied (p. 33).

INSPECTION OF MINES IN TASMANIA, 1920 ⁽¹⁾

The report of the Acting Secretary for Mines gives the total number of persons employed in mining in Tasmania during each year from 1880 to 1920. In the last mentioned year 5,364 persons were so employed—an advance of 951 over 1919 (p. 55). The reports of the Chief Inspector of Mines and of the district inspectors (pp. 78-103) give particulars of general conditions of employment, also of accidents. A chart showing the number of fatal accidents since 1892 per thousand persons employed (opposite p. 81) shows that only two persons were killed during 1920; another fifty were injured, though the injury ratio was much lower than it had been at any time in the previous ten years (p. 80). In the detailed accounts given by the local inspectors many of the accidents are attributed to carelessness or misadventure in the filling and handling of skips and trucks. Seven cases of pneumoconiosis and allied diseases were reported from the Queenstown district (p. 98).



⁽¹⁾ TASMANIA, MINES DEPARTMENT : *Report of the Acting Secretary for Mines for 1920*. 8vo. 105 pp. charts. Hobart, Government Printer. 1921.

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For this congress see *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, January 1922, p. 68.

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Supplement I. The Decisions of the International Labour Conferences of Washington (1919) and Genoa (1920). 30 pp. March 1921.

This supplement reproduces the text of the Draft Conventions and the Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conferences of Washington and Genoa.

Supplement II. Report of the Proceedings of the International Trade Union Congress held in Concertgebouw, Amsterdam, 28 July to 2 August 1919, together with Report of the Preliminary Conference held on 25, 26, and 29 July 1919. 55 pp. July 1921. 1.50 guilders.

It was at this Congress that the International Federation of Trade Unions was reconstituted after the dislocation of the war, and its headquarters were fixed at Amsterdam.

Supplement III. European Problems; Reports of the Delegations of the International Federation of Trade Unions. 63 pp. December 1921. 1.50 guilders.

At its meeting on 21 and 22 January 1921 the Bureau of the International Federation of Trade Unions decided to send four Commissions of Enquiry to Northern France, Upper Silesia, the Saar Basin, and Austria respectively. Supplement III contains the text of the reports presented by each of these Commissions.

The Commission of Enquiry in Northern France found that practically nothing had been done in the regions which it visited in the matter of rebuilding houses, factories, churches, etc. It proposed that the Bureau should investigate methods of remedying this state of affairs.

The Upper Silesian Commission furnishes exact details as to the productiveness of the Upper Silesian industrial basin. It recommends that this region should not be partitioned, but that economic autonomy, subject to supervision, should be conferred upon it, and that it should serve as a connecting link between Germany and Poland; the completest possible provision should be made for the distribution of its manufactured products between the two countries and for the quantity of raw materials to be furnished by each of them.

The Saar Commission gives information on the political and economic situation of that region, and on the condition of the miners. It deplores the vexatious measures to which the workers of the Saar district have to submit.

The Austrian Committee supplies statistics of food prices in that country and comes to the conclusion that a catastrophe seems inevitable unless relief of every kind is immediately forthcoming.

Supplement IV. Special Congress at the Holborn Restaurant, London, from 22 to 27 November 1920. 130 pp. March 1922. 1.50 guilders.

For the London congress see *International Labour Review*, Vol. I, No. 1, Jan. 1921, pp. 69-78, and *Studies and Reports*, Series A, No. 18.

Supplement V. First Report on the Activities of the International Federation of Trade Unions (July 1919 to December 1921), submitted to the ordinary congress, Rome, April 1922. 126 pp. April 1922. 1 guilder.

For the Rome Congress see *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 911-927.

Supplement VI. Enquiry on the Eight Hour Day. 21 pp. April 1922. 25 cents.

On 17 January 1922 the International Federation of Trade Unions sent to all the organisations affiliated to the international trade secretariats a questionnaire concerning the observance of the 8-hour day in industry in their respective countries. Supplement VI gives a summary of the replies to this questionnaire, as well as other documents referring to the subject.

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DENMARK

ARBEJDSRAAD: *Beretning for tiden fra 1 Oktober 1920 til 30. September 1921.* 32 pp. Copenhagen, Wm. Sorup. 1921.

The Labour Council (*Arbejdsraad*) is the advisory body dealing with labour questions in the Danish Ministry of the Interior. It consists of representatives of employers and workers, together with experts on social questions; on pp. 31-32 of the report is given a list of the members for 1920-1921. The report contains a note on the exemptions from the prohibition of Sunday and holiday work granted and withdrawn during the year; these exemptions include one general permission for Sunday work in connection with the presses in soya bean works during the year ending October 1921 (pp. 15-17). The questionnaire of the International Labour Office on the use of white lead, and the replies of the Labour Council, are given in full (pp. 18-24). The advisability of adopting regulations similar to those in force in Germany

for the painting of ships' holds⁽¹⁾ was considered, in consultation with employers and workers, and the Council reported that regulations appeared to be unnecessary in Denmark (pp. 24-25). The question of a statutory minimum temperature for factories was raised, and it was decided that too many variable factors were involved for the imposition of an invariable minimum, though 15° C. was suggested as a reasonable degree of warmth for most places (pp. 25-26). On the recommendation of the Council, in view of the increased use of compressed air as a source of industrial power, regulations for the construction and testing of compressed air containers were adopted on 8 April 1921 under the Factory Act of 1913⁽²⁾, and these are given in full (pp. 27-30). To these reports on the actual work of the Council is prefixed an article on principles of ventilation by Prof. J. T. Lundbye, one of the experts on the Council (pp. 5-14).

FINLAND

SUOMEN SOSIALIMINISTERIO JA SOSIALIHALLITUS: *Vuosikertomuksia, Sarja B, IV; Ammattientarkastus Suomessa v. 1920.* 38+117 pp. Helsingfors, 1922.

This annual report on factory inspection in Finland in 1920 consists of two parts; the first is a summary of the administration of the factory Acts; the second presents detailed statistical tables, the more important of which are also given with French wording.

The report states that during 1920 the position of industry and commerce as a whole improved. The number of factories and workshops in existence at the end of the year was 14,218, employing 183,739 persons; of these about 6,900, employing about 145,000 persons, were inspected. The 8-hour day was generally in force, but some difficulties arose in its application, chiefly out of the regulations for Sunday rest, overtime, and also, though to a smaller extent, for night work, especially in newspaper printing offices. Breaches of the Hours of Labour Act of 1917 were often made with the consent of the workers.

The employment of women in industry has increased. In 1920 they formed about 33 per cent. of the total number of industrial workers, and 58 per cent. of the total number of those engaged in handicrafts. On the other hand, the number of young persons under the age of 18 in industrial employment has decreased; they now form only about 8 per cent. of the total number of workers.

The provision of housing accommodation showed a considerable advance during the year, and the houses provided by employers for the use of their workers contained about 16,000 rooms. The larger number of working-class families are, however, still housed in one-room tenements.

GREAT BRITAIN

DEPARTMENT OF OVERSEAS TRADE: *Report on the Industries and Commerce of Spain.* 56 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. December 1921.

This report contains sections on finance, trade, transport, natural resources, production, and social and industrial conditions. The last is a useful summary, dealing with the position of labour, the cost of living, and emigration.

Unemployment Insurance Bill 1922; Report by the Government Actuary on the Financial Provisions of the Bill. 5 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1922.

The Report summarises the principal financial provisions of the Bill under the heads of rates of contribution, rates of benefit, periods of benefit, borrowing powers, and expenses of administration. The Bill provides that a maximum of £30,000,000 may be advanced by the Treasury to meet the

(1) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1921, Ger. 1.

(2) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (Basle): *Bulletin*, Vol. VIII, 1913, p. 345.

present deficiency in the Unemployment Fund. It is estimated that the number of persons coming within the scope of the Bill is about 11,250,000. The number of unemployed plus half the number of those working systematic short time is assumed to average 1,900,000 from 6 April 1922 to 2 July 1922 and 1,500,000 during the subsequent twelve months.

NORWAY

DEPARTMENTET FOR SOCIALE SAKER: *Norges sosiallovgivning ved utgangen av 1921*, by G. WIESENER. 97 pp. Christiania, 1922.

This book, which was published as a supplement to the official journal, *Sociale Meddelelser*, 1922, No. 1, is a survey of Norwegian social legislation. The author points out that the book naturally lays no claim to being a scientific work. Its object is to meet a practical demand by giving a rapid sketch of those conditions which at the time caused the passing of any given Act or Regulation, to state what laws were in force by the end of 1921, and what reforms under preparation by the appointment of committees or in other ways.

The subjects dealt with in the different sections of the book are: protection of the worker (holidays, workmen's compensation Act, legislation for seamen's labour, minimum wage Acts, works councils Act, etc.); social insurance (accident, sickness, and unemployment insurance); labour exchanges; protection of children; compulsory conciliation and arbitration; housing; emigration; legislation relating to the liquor trade; co-operation; trusts.

RUSSIA

Vosstanovlenie Khoziaistva i Razvitie Proizvoditel'nykh sil Ugo-Vostaka R. S. F. S. R. Postradaushogo ot Neurozhzia 1921. G. The Restoration of Agriculture in the Famine Area of Russia, being the interim report of the State Economic Planning Commission of the Council for Labour and Defence of the Russian Socialist Federal Soviet Republic. 167 pp. London, The Labour Publishing Co. 1922.

This publication, translated from the Russian by Eden and Cedar PAUL, contains a number of separate reports by individual writers, and excepting the sections dealing with "Agrarian Reorganisation" and "Public Works in the Famine Areas" the author's name appears in every instance. The president of the "Rural Economy Section" of the State Economic Planning Commission writes the foreword.

Sections of the report contain a description of the characteristics of the crops of the area under review and the extent of their failure, offer suggestions for increasing the yield, including irrigation schemes, and give an estimate of the agricultural machinery required. Some account is given of existing electrical power stations in the Volga Valley and of groups of Soviet farms established in the south-eastern area. Each of these articles is accompanied by tables estimating in detail the requirements of the different provinces, whether in terms of machinery, live-stock for restocking, grain, etc.

Other sections deal with industry in its relation to agriculture, such as the restoration of stock-raising with a view to the export of hides. The fishing industry is considered, as also the productivity of home industries.

An appendix gives a list of experimental agricultural stations in the provinces of Saratov, Tsaritsin, Samara, Uralsk and Astrakan, and the translators provide two explanatory notes; one on methods of irrigation in Russia and the other giving the approximate English equivalents of Russian weights and measures.

SWEDEN

SOCIALISERINGSNAMNDEN: *Socialiseringsfragans lage och forutsattningar; (a) i England*, by Gustaf F. STEFFEN; *(b) i Danmark*, by Nils KARLEBY. 531 and 211 pp. Stockholm, Tidens Tryckeri. 1922.

The report of the Socialisation Committee which was appointed by the Branting Government in June 1920 is shortly expected to be complete. Several

reports on national and municipal business undertakings, as well as special reports on certain more important branches of industry, and a survey of the history of economic policy in Sweden were ready at the end of 1921.

A close study of the position of the socialisation question in other countries was undertaken, and the Committee decided to publish a more comprehensive account for certain countries presenting features of special interest. The two present publications are discussions of the socialisation problem in England and in Denmark. The preface states that the arrangement of both books was the outcome of discussions on the Committee, which is responsible for their issue; for the actual facts presented the authors alone are responsible.

Of the two works the one on England by Mr. Gustav Steffen is undoubtedly the more important.

The first part deals with the origin and growth of present methods of production. The second part covers private and public undertakings until 1921, and the third illustrates the efforts made in present-day England to reform methods of production and social conditions.

Mr. Karleby's description of conditions in Denmark is a survey of the fundamental problems of modern Denmark, based on available statistics as well as on information collected on the spot. It is divided into three parts, of which the first gives a general description of "Danish Economics", the second an account of "Collective Undertakings in Denmark", and the third of "Programmes of Economic and Social Reform".

SWITZERLAND

CONFÉDÉRATION SUISSE: *Compte d'état de la Fédération suisse pour l'année 1921. Suite du rapport du Conseil fédéral à l'Assemblée fédérale du 5 mai 1922. Annexe à la Feuille fédérale n° 21 du 24 mai 1922.* 347 pp. 1922.

Text of the Swiss budget for 1921.

UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Building Operations in Representative Cities, 1920*; Bulletin No. 295. 49 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

As a result of its compilation of statistics of building operations in nearly 200 cities in the United States, the Bureau points out that 68,637 one-family houses were constructed in 1920 at a cost of over £296,000,000, or 24.6 per cent. of the total amount of money spent in all kinds of building. There were only 5,402 two-family houses built, and 846 one-family or two-family houses with stores combined. In these houses approximately 81,000 families were provided for. An unknown number of families were provided for in the 1,735 apartment houses built.

The importance of these figures from a social point of view is that they show that building construction for the purpose of housing families lags far behind the current increase in the demand for houses. If we apply the marriage rate that obtained in 1916 to the population of these 196 cities, we find that in 1920 362,785 marriages took place in the cities considered; . . . If only half of the newly married couples seek homes to themselves we are building not more than half of the accommodations required, so that instead of catching up with the result of the cessation of residence building during the war we are not providing housing for more than 50 per cent. of the newly established families. . . . With all allowance made for the number of deaths the figures would seem to indicate an increasing doubling up of families in these cities.

— *Decisions of Courts and Opinions affecting Labour, 1919-1920.* 477 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, WOMEN'S BUREAU: *Negro Women in Industry*; Bulletin No. 20. 65 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

This report gives the results of an investigation made during the period September to December 1920, covering 150 plants in 17 localities in 9 States,

employing 11,812 negro women, more than half of whom were engaged in the manufacture of tobacco. The industries covered were for the main part of a mechanical and manufacturing nature. Details are given of the numbers and status of negro women in industry before, during, and after the war; their wages, hours, and conditions of employment; and the occupations in which they were engaged.

RAILROAD LABOUR BOARD: *Average Daily and Monthly Wage Rates of Railroad Employees on Class 1 Carriers (effective 1 July 1921)*; Wage Series, Report No. 3. 13 pp., folded table. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

In this pamphlet the Board gives a statement of the result of its decisions respecting wages for the principal railroads of the United States. The statement is not intended to show the total effect of wage increases or wage decreases on operating cost, but the Board believes that it will "reflect with reasonable accuracy actual average money increases or decreases applying to employees in the respective classes since December 1917, when the railroads were, as a war necessity, taken over and operated by the Government". The pamphlet contains a description of the various methods of wage payment in force, regulations concerning overtime payment for different classes of employees, and a description of the technical methods of compilation of the statistics.

KANSAS

COURT OF INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS; WOMEN'S DIVISION: *Cost of Living Survey of Wage-Earning Women of the State of Kansas, 31 August 1921*. 42 pp. Topeka, B. P. Walker, State Printer. 1922.

This survey was made in connection with the regulation of women's work in Kansas. As the Industrial Welfare Act of 1915 made it illegal to employ women in any industry or occupation at wages which are not adequate for their maintenance, it became necessary to investigate the actual relation between wages received by women and their cost of living, and to determine an "adequate" standard of maintenance for the women concerned. A survey of wages and hours including Kansas was made in 1920 by the United States Department of Labour; in this investigation, which was undertaken by direction of the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations, an attempt was therefore made to determine "what amount is adequate to meet the cost of the essentials of living, consonant with the health and welfare of the individual worker".

The 39 cities covered by the survey were divided into three grades: 17 towns with a population of over 10,000, 8 with one of 5,000 to 10,000, and 14 under 5,000. The data were obtained through direct and personal investigation by special agents, and through estimates arrived at in conferences with tradesmen and various groups of women.

As a general result of the survey, the suggested minimum weekly budget for a woman wage earner was established as follows: room ("respectable") \$3.40, board (three meals a day) \$6.35, clothing ("suitable") \$3.31, and sundries (including laundry, sickness, dentist's, and oculist's expenses, amusements, holidays, life insurance, savings, church, charity, organisations, self-improvement, car-fare and incidentals) \$3.87, the total budget amounting to \$16.93. The investigation showed that more than half of the women workers in Kansas were receiving less than \$12 a week, and that the median weekly earnings were only \$11.95. Thus it was obvious that "many Kansas women are not receiving adequate wages".

The efficient method of collecting data, the precise description of the compilation of the budget, and the numerous tables giving the average consumption of the various articles make this publication a valuable contribution to consideration of the cost of living problem. It also effectively carries out its purpose of providing the basis of an actual minimum cost of living for the legal regulation of wages.

MASSACHUSETTS

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR AND INDUSTRIES, DIVISION OF STATISTICS : *Statistics of Labour Organisations in Massachusetts, 1918-1920.*; Labour Bulletin No. 135. 44 pp. Boston, Wright and Potter. 1921.

The data presented in this report relate to the number and membership of labour organisations in Massachusetts at the close of each of the years 1918 to 1920 and to unemployment among organised wage earners at the close of each quarter of the year 1920, with comparable data for earlier years. The total membership of trade unions in Massachusetts at the end of 1920 was 316,653, as compared with 368,486 at the end of 1919 and 313,099 at the end of 1918.

OHIO

CINCINNATI (OHIO) PUBLIC SCHOOLS: *The Vocation Bureau.* 15 pp. Cincinnati. 1922.

An outline of the work of the Vocation Bureau run jointly by the Cincinnati Board of Education and the Council of Social Agencies, a voluntary organisation. Its various departments deal with school attendance, child labour and placing, psychological tests, supervision of the feeble-minded, occupational information, and similar matters.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AMALGAMATED CLOTHING WORKERS OF AMERICA, CHICAGO JOINT BOARD: *The Clothing Workers of Chicago, 1910-1922.* 424 pp. Chicago. 1922.

The clothing market of Chicago presents an interesting example of the successful conduct of industrial relations by co-operation between employers and a strong trade union. This book is the history of the organisation of the clothing workers of Chicago, who to the number of some 40,000 to 50,000 form part of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, an industrial union not affiliated to the American Federation of Labour.

An introductory chapter describes the formation and functions of the Chicago Joint Board, a council of 85 delegates elected annually by the local unions, in which is centred the collection and disbursement of money, the initiation and execution of the policy of the union, and the supervision of the staff of the organisation.

The main body of the book is divided into three parts. The first part traces in detail the organisation of the Chicago Clothing Workers from the strike of 1910 to the successful culmination of the campaign for the complete organisation of the Chicago clothing market in 1919.

The second part is devoted to the question of wages and hours during the period 1911 to 1920. In these ten years the full-time weekly earnings of men workers increased from \$14.64 to \$18.44, and of women workers from \$10.10 to \$14.31, while hours per week were reduced from 54 to 44. Making allowance for the decrease in the purchasing power of money, the increase in real wages nevertheless remains very considerable. In this part a further chapter is devoted to the great wage arbitration in which the circumstances and texts of important decisions are given at length. An interesting section (p. 156 et seq.) deals with the question of an unemployment fund, which would seem likely to be the next development attempted. The union's position in this respect is well expressed by the first sentence of a resolution adopted by the 1920 biennial convention: "Justice dictates that the industry which depends upon the workers to keep alive should take care of them when they are unemployed."

The third part, which takes up more than half of the whole volume, concerns the question of government in industry, the province in which the Amalgamated Clothing Workers have made the most remarkable progress. By the 1910 strike settlement the large Chicago clothing firm of Hart, Schaffner, and Marx agreed to the creation of a Board of Arbitration with power to "fix a method for settlement of grievances, if any, in the future". The process of evolution from that primitive stage to the highly organised system of "impartial machinery" now in existence and its application to the questions of discipline, discharge, working conditions, and the adjustment of wages, is described with great detail and many illustrations. A final chapter of over 80 pages explains and exemplifies the principle of union preference. The clause in the agreement concluded in March 1922 referring to the preferential shop explains concisely the nature of this vitally important provision:

(a) It is agreed that the principle of the preferential shop shall prevail, to be applied in the following manner:

Preference shall be applied in hiring and discharge.

Whenever an employer needs additional workers, he shall first make application to the Union, specifying the number and kinds of workers needed.

The Union, if unable for any reason to furnish them the employer shall be at liberty to secure them in the open market as best he can.

Should it at any time become necessary to reduce the number of workers, the first ones to be dismissed shall be those who are not members of the Union.

(b) The provisions for preference made herein require that the doors of the Union shall be kept open for the reception of non-union workers.

This volume gives in readable form the history of one of the most interesting and successful experiments in collective bargaining in industry in the United States.

AMERICAN ENGINEERING STANDARDS COMMITTEE: *Work of the American Engineering Standards Committee, 1921*. 32 pp. New York, 29 West 39th Street. 1921.

The American Engineering Standards Committee acts as a national clearing house for engineering and industrial standardisation by bringing about systematic co-operation of the organised bodies—technical, industrial and governmental—interested in this question. This report gives the constitution and rules of procedure of the Committee, describes its methods of work, and furnishes a list of the projects undertaken, together with a description of some specific projects in hand. It is interesting to note that there are now national standardising bodies in fourteen of the chief countries of the world, with all of whom the American Engineering Standards Committee is in touch.

ASSAN, Georges G.: *La question du contrôle ouvrier en Italie avec un aperçu dans les autres pays*. 177 pp. Paris, Marcel Giard. 1922.

The dispute in the Italian metal industry of 1919, and the even more serious dispute of 1920, raised the question of workers' participation in management in so grave a form that its solution became of pressing importance to the whole country. A third of the book is therefore devoted to the origin of the dispute, the 'occupation' of the factories, and the settlement through government intervention. The Joint Commission appointed by the Government failed to arrive at any decision, but the two parties composing it, namely the General Confederation of Labour (*Confederazione Generale del Lavoro*) and the General Confederation of Industry (*Confederazione Generale dell' Industria*), each prepared draft Bills for workers' participation in management, the texts of which are fully summarised. Meanwhile the Government also elaborated a Bill, of which the full text is quoted. A chapter follows in which the respective attitudes of workers, employers, and Government are compared, while in a further chapter are set forth criticisms of the Government Bill from the Socialist and trade union points of view. More than fifty pages are devoted to a consideration of legislation or discussion on workers' participation in management in other countries, an attempt being made to reconstruct the actual position in Russia by the aid of documents. The work is completed by a considerable bibliography.

BRAUMONT, Maurice, and BERTHELOT, Marcel: *L'Allemagne; lendemains de guerre et de révolution*. Preface by Ernest LAVISSE. 287 pp. Paris, Armand Colin. 1922. 7 francs.

A picture of post-war Germany from the political, financial, economic, social, religious, and intellectual points of view. The two chapters of most interest for labour are those which deal with economic organisation and the social problem. It would appear from this book that the dominating tendency of contemporary German economics is the concentration and organisation of effort to the detriment of free enterprise. In agriculture the large proprietors have maintained their preponderating influence. In industry we meet with three conceptions: (1) that of the joint trust (Stinnes) which works in the interests of the capitalists and combines the system of horizontal grouping (solidarity of firms in the same industry) with the system of vertical grouping (grouping, under one management of the various stages of production of a particular article, from the extraction of the raw material to the sale and delivery of the finished product); (2) that of the so-called "systematised" economy (Rathenau), which consists in "organising" production and distribution so as to harmonise them with collective needs, and so avoid waste of material and effort; if this plan were carried out, firms would retain their financial autonomy, but their activities would be regulated and co-ordinated by a whole hierarchy of economic councils composed of the three elements of employers, workers, and consumers organised, on the one hand, by industry and, on the other, by districts and regions, and culminating in an economic parliament with sovereign powers over all productive activity; from this conception are derived the works councils and the provisional national economic councils which are now in operation. Finally, there is (3) the programme of "complete socialisation" (Kautsky-Lederer), starting with the immediate nationalisation of mines, a policy which German large-scale industry is endeavouring to frustrate. The same tendencies are to be found in the commercial sphere. "The war has killed the idea of free enterprise in commerce" and exports and imports are strictly controlled by the state. From an economic point of view, Germany has resumed her pre-war effort towards expansion and expects to gain a great deal from collaboration with Russia.

BLOCH, Louis: *The Coal Miners' Insecurity*. 50 pp. New York, Russell Sage Foundation. 1922.

The object of this pamphlet, prepared for the Department of Industrial Studies of the Russell Sage Foundation, is to analyse the causes of irregularity in production and employment in the United States bituminous coalfields. Bituminous coal mines have been open for work on an average of only 214 out of a possible 304 days a year during the period 1890 to 1921. The loss of working days is to be ascribed, apart from cyclical business depression, to two main causes. One of these is over-development, which accounts for 37 per cent. of the working days lost. Bituminous coal mines can produce 700 million tons annually, but national requirements are only 500 million tons. It seems that the surplus of men employed in the industry is not far short of 200,000. There are too many mines engaged as well as too many men. The other main cause of loss of working days is seasonal variation of demand, the proportion of the loss for which it is responsible being 47 per cent. Between 1913 and 1922 the difference between the output of the busiest month and that of the slackest was never less than 6,900,000 tons. Seasonal fluctuations result in keeping too many men and too much capital in the industry to meet the annual peak of demand, but elimination of seasonal variations would not make employment regular so long as too many mines are operated.

To offset periods of idleness and lack of earnings the bituminous miners are forced to seek higher rates of pay. In 1918, the year of greatest regularity of employment, the average annual earnings of miners varied from \$1,364 to \$1,583; had they been able to work 304 days a year, their earnings would have reached \$1,850. Though an increase of wages was given in 1920, opportunity for employment has so far decreased since 1920 that the value

of the increased rates of pay has been nullified. In 1918, the most prosperous year, the great majority of miners were earning less than the estimated "minimum of subsistence", and about \$500 less than the "minimum of health and comfort".

BOUGLÉ, C.: *Leçons de sociologie sur l'évolution des valeurs*. 286 pp. Paris, Armand Colin. 1922. 7 francs.

The subject matter of this book is not economic or financial value but moral value, i.e. the degree of worth assigned to specific things, people, modes of existence, action or thought, and also religious, scientific, and aesthetic value. The author retraces historically the notion of value as thus conceived, and concludes that neither "materialism" nor even "scientism" have by any means the last word in sociology, and that all forms of the ideal, which it is the principal duty of society to cultivate, are on various grounds worthy of respect.

CAILLAUX, J.: *Où va la France ? Où va l'Europe ?* 293 pp. Paris, Editions de la Sirène. 1922.

"Draw up the balance-sheet of the last few years", writes Mr. Caillaux in a passage which seems to express exactly the tenor of his book; "it shall judge those who have governed us (whether their rule have been direct or disguised through a thin veil). And here is the verdict in four sentences: industry, commerce, and agriculture are hemmed in by ridiculous restrictions and are being stifled; national debt, accumulating independently in each country, is overwhelming some of them; exchange quotations are crying mercy; meanwhile the plutocrats, whose idea of patriotism is expressed in shares, are digging themselves well in among the scattered ruins; they know the feel of fine dividends and fat directors' fees, and they want to go on as they are for ever. Let them but carry on, and they will kill Europe, which nothing but a great renewal can save."

CAVALLIER, Camille: *Notes économiques d'un métallurgiste*. Extraits. xi+153 pp. Paris, Gauthier-Villars. 1921.

This is a series of notes, written between April 1915 and December 1921, on French foreign trade and the duties and difficulties of the post-war period. The author recommends "a close and active union of manufacturers and business men centring in the local Chambers of Commerce, and further a close union of the Chambers of Commerce among themselves, as well as a more intimate contact between the Chambers of Commerce and Parliament". In his view, the two essential bases of the industry of a country are labour and coal; France needs plenty of children, and therefore relentless warfare must be waged against alcoholism, syphilis, and slums; the country also requires an ample coal supply, and it is the business of the government to procure it, especially by encouraging a thorough prospecting of the soil and by ceasing the present policy of systematically refusing to grant any new concessions; and finally, French manufacturers must give more attention to the export trade, and take a larger share in the control of public policy.

CLELAND, Robert Glass: *The Mexican Year Book, 1920-1921*. 24 pp. Los Angeles. Mexican Year Book Publishing Company. 1922.

The travelling and transport facilities, the natural resources, commerce, manufacture, and finance of Mexico are among the chief subjects dealt with in this book. One chapter is given to a description of the main characteristics of Mexican labour, the conditions of work in certain of the more important industries, and the present condition of labour organisation and protective labour legislation.

COMITÉ DES ORGANISATIONS RUSSES POUR LES SECOURS AUX AFFA-
MÉS. *Le pouvoir soviétique et la famine en Russie*. 16 pp. Paris. 1922.

This pamphlet aims at showing that the famine in Russia is due, in a large measure, to Soviet misrule. It states that the Russian nation must not be blamed for the disaster, and concludes with an appeal to the Western nations to help the starving people in spite of all.

CORMONT, A.: *Les caisses d'épargne de France*. Préface de Pol Cheva-
lier. 82 pp. Paris, Berger-Levrault. 1922. 5 francs.

This book, which Mr. Pol Chevalier recommends all managers of saving banks to read, is intended to make known to the public in an accessible form the history, legislation, and working of these institutions, whose importance is continually growing. The first part deals with ordinary or private banks, the second with the national bank (post office savings bank). The author shows clearly the part which savings banks have to play in the development of social welfare, and demands that the maximum deposit at present allowed to stand in the name of a simple individual should be increased.

COSME DE LA TORRIENTE: *La Liga de las Naciones ; trabajos de la segunda Asamblea*. 259 pp. Havana, Rambla Bonza y Ca. 1922.

As its title indicates, this work is a review of the activities of the Second Assembly of the League of Nations, giving in full the text of the resolutions and recommendations adopted. Chapter II deals with the opium traffic, the white slave traffic, the campaign against typhus, Russian relief, the international organisation of intellectual workers, and allied subjects. In the various appendices are to be found the text of the pact establishing the League of Nations and documents relating to the organisation of the League, the Permanent Court of International Justice, etc.

La Délégation de chemins de fer russe à l'étranger. 15 pp. Paris, M. Sko-
bleff. 1922.

This little pamphlet describes the work of the Russian Railway Delegation in Germany and Sweden. The Delegation, which works under the direction of Professor Lomonosoff, has its head office in Berlin and a branch at Stockholm and is occupied in purchasing locomotives, rolling stock, tank cars, and railway material for use on the Russian railways.

DORRESSE, M^{me} L.: *Leçons de sciences appliquées à l'hygiène et à l'éco-
nomie domestique. Cours élémentaire et cours moyen*. 557 pp. 337 illustr.
Paris, Doin. 1922. 17 francs.

This book, which belongs to the library of technical education published under the editorship of Mr. Brillard de Nouvion (*), contains such elements of natural history, physics, and chemistry as will interest those future housewives or mothers who are anxious to perform their task with understanding.

FIMMEN, Edo: *The International Federation of Trade Unions, its Develop-
ment and Aims*. Publication No. 1. 16 pp. Amsterdam, International
Federation of Trade Unions. 1922.

In this pamphlet Mr. Fimmen relates in a few pages the history of the international trade union movement. After recalling the fact that this move-
ment originated at the Copenhagen Conference of 1901, he follows its develop-
ment during the pre-war period and goes on to show how the International

(*) See "Book Notes" *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 4, Apr. 1922, p. 696.

Federation of Trade Unions, put out of action during the war, was reconstructed after the Berne Conference (1919) by the Trade Union Congress at Amsterdam (1919). The Federation is at once (a) a centre for the exchange of trade union information and for the publication of statistics and (b) a centre for propaganda for the encouragement of trade union efforts and for the maintenance of unity of action on all questions of common trade union interest.

Mr. Fimmen goes on to describe the relations of the International Federation of Trade Unions with the American Federation of Labour, the International Labour Office, and the Moscow International. After explaining briefly the political and social programme of the international trade union movement, he reviews the more important steps taken by the Federation and foreshadows closer collaboration, on the one hand, with the secretariats of the craft Internationals and, on the other, with the International Federation of Working Women.

FRANÇOIS-PONCET, André, and MIREAUX, Emile : *La France et les huit heures*. 267 pp. Paris, Société d'Etudes et d'Informations Economiques and Marcel Rivière. 1922. 7 francs.

Messrs. François-Poncet and Mireaux discuss the consequences of the application of the Act of 23 April 1919 on the 8-hour day in France. They recall the fact that, at the time when the Act was passed, the Minister of Labour allowed it to be understood that the 8-hour day would soon be extended to all countries by international Convention in accordance with the terms of the Peace Treaty. However, the Draft Convention voted at Washington relating to the 8-hour day has up to the present been ratified by four states only. Further, of all the Powers, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, and Poland are the only countries besides France which have considered it their duty to put into force an 8-hour day Act. The authors consider that the Act of 23 April 1919 has brought about a lowering of French production by an amount which they calculate as being on the whole 20 per cent., and an increase of prices totalling about five milliards of francs. Their conclusion is that the principle of the 8-hour day can be maintained, but that it should be possible to render its application much more elastic by Administrative Regulation. They give their entire approval to the suggestion recently put forward by Mr. Raphaël Georges Lévy that a special exemption, on the ground of national needs, should be authorised providing for 300 extra hours of labour per annum for seven years.

GORKI, Maxim : *Ecrits de révolution*. Translated from the Russian by André PIERRE. 255 pp. Paris, Stock Delamain Boutelbare et Cie. 1922. 6.75 francs.

This is a collection of political and literary articles published by Gorki since the Revolution, the greater part of which have appeared in his review *Lietopis* or in his journal *Novaya Jizn*. As the translator points out, Gorki's desire seems to be to withdraw the soul of the Russian people "from the paralysing influences of Oriental mysticism" and to convince it that it can only be saved by science and reason. Apart from their literary value, these articles are interesting both psychologically and for the information they contain. The presence of a table of contents would render the book easier to consult.

GUY-GRAND, Georges : *Le conflit des idées dans la France d'aujourd'hui. (Trois visages de la France)*. 268 pp. Paris, Marcel Rivière. 1921. 6 francs.

This book is divided into three parts entitled : Before the War (France Divided) ; In Face of War (France United) ; The Morrow (the Darker Side of Victory). The author indicates what he considers to be France's weak and strong points and concludes by an appeal for unity.

HAUMANT, Emile : *Le problème de l'unité russe*. 128 pp., 4 maps. Paris, Editions Bossard. 1922. 4.50 francs.

Is Russia to break up into independent nations animated by centrifugal tendencies or will it, without returning to the old system of centralisation,

become a federation of states who find a motive for unity in their common political and economic interests? The author, reviewing in succession the various ethnic groups concerned in the problem: Great Russians, Little Russians, Tartars, Poles, White Russians, and Letts, finds in the structure of the country and in its history reasons for preferring the second hypothesis.

HIBBARD, B. H.: *Marketing Agricultural Products*. 389 pp. New York and London, D. Appleton. 1921.

Professor Hibbard attempts here to give his students and other readers some idea of the present difficulties of American farmers in marketing their products. He discusses the various marketing agencies and the services which they perform, outstanding problems such as the middleman, transport, finance, and price determination, and the effort of the farmer, whether by general organisation or by politics, to secure reforms. The book is a comprehensive analysis of current movements among farmers in the United States, and, as the trend of business organisation is toward co-operation, its methods and achievements are given a prominent place. The author believes in the possibilities of co-operation, but warns the farmer that the machinery of marketing is necessarily complex and that under any system natural problems must be appreciated and solved.

HÄNIGER, SCHULTZ, and WEHRLE: *Jahrbuch des Arbeitsrechts*. Vol. I, 1919-1920. xix+317 pp. Mannheim, Berlin, Leipzig, Benscheimer. 1922.

This year book of labour legislation systematically summarises the texts and legal practice covering the rights of the worker. The period dealt with is from November 1918 to the end of 1920, with special reference to Germany; two sections, however, are devoted to legislation in countries other than Germany and to international legislation. Each chapter deals with a single subject, such as the constitution of the Reich, pre-war legislation, collective agreements, works councils, etc. The references are very full and the work is interesting alike to economists and jurists.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS, BLOOMFIELD'S LABOUR DIGEST: *Stock Participation Plans for Employees*. 18 pp. Boston, Bloomfield and Bloomfield. 1922.

This firm of consultants in industrial relations have prepared a survey of co-partnership schemes in the United States, the majority of which date from after the war. An introduction contains some general considerations on the subject with special emphasis on the necessity of a clear understanding by employees of the risks attaching to the ownership of capital. There follows an exposition of four principal types of stock participation: stock sold at market value, at par, at a discount, and given away. The working of each type is illustrated by actual examples. The survey is completed by a detailed summary of eighty schemes now in operation in the United States.

JOUHAUX, Léon: *The International Federation of Trade and Economic Reconstruction*. Publication No. 2. 11 pp. Amsterdam, International Federation of Trade Unions. 1922.

Mr. Jouhaux summarises the action of the international trade union movement from the International Workers' Conference at Berne (1919) until the International Labour Conference at Geneva (1921).

We consider it necessary to show how the views of labour have anticipated the programmes of the various governments. . . . to point out clearly that the trade unions have all along adopted the correct point of view, on the one hand, as against the capitalist who wanted a return to pre-war conditions, against the narrow-minded nationalism of the politicians. . . . and on the other hand, as against those who even recently, maintained that the trade unions should not concern themselves with such questions. . . . The ruins cannot be restored, international trade cannot be re-established, peace cannot be assured except by the moral and material solidarity of the peoples.

KILE, O. M.: *The Farm Bureau Movement*. 282 pp. New York, The Macmillan Company. 1921.

This book presents the case for agricultural organisation as it exists in the United States today, and compares the farm bureau with former as well as contemporary organisations. The American Farm Bureau Federation operates in forty States and its membership of from two to three million farmers makes it a factor worthy of consideration in public affairs. Its leadership in the field of agricultural education is recognised, and its influence, both economic and political, cannot be overlooked. The author attempts to estimate its probable development and offers his advice as to future policies.

LACHAPELLE, Georges: *La vérité sur notre situation financière*. 179 pp. Paris, Roustan. 1921. 10 francs.

This is a technical work which deals with the administration of French public finance, the problem of reparations, the danger of inflation, and discusses reforms likely to remedy the difficulties of the present situation.

Manchester Guardian Commercial, Reconstruction in Europe Numbers. Manchester, The Manchester Guardian. 20 April to 5 October 1922.

The *Manchester Guardian Commercial* began on 8 April last a fortnightly series of numbers dealing with reconstruction in Europe. The series, which will be edited by Mr. Keynes, and will appear in English, French, German, Spanish, and Italian, presents, without any narrow uniformity of outlook, a varied assemblage of facts and opinions. The articles are written by persons of knowledge and authority in different countries, who have been allowed complete liberty to express their views on their own subjects. Mr. Keynes is hopeful that from this enquiry into facts and opinions may issue remedies for our present difficulties.

The main problems considered are: the exchanges; shipping and inland water transport; the Genoa Conference; the national finances of Europe; Russian conditions; population, emigration, food supply, and agriculture; the United States and Europe; railways, coal, steel, and engineering; the reparations problem and the Inter-Allied debt; banking, investment, markets, and currencies of Europe; labour problems of Europe—unemployment, wages, cost of living; the reconstruction of Europe; summary and conclusions.

MASLOV, Serge: *La Russie après quatre ans de révolution*. Paris, Edition de l'Union pour la régénération de la Russie. 1922. 230 pp. 10 fr. 75.

The book is a study of Bolshevism in Russia considered in the light of its effects upon (1) the numbers and distribution of the population; (2) industry, transport, and agriculture; (3) the state and its functions; (4) education; and (5) internal conditions. To each of these a chapter is devoted and each is studied as exhaustively and scientifically as is possible in a work of this size.

The author strikes an original note when he points out that, while students of present day Russia have been made familiar with its outward aspect, as reflected by national economy, finance, politics, and so forth, no attempt has yet been made to show the effect of the Revolution on the mind, the culture, and the psychology of the Russian people. An understanding of this, the author considers, is even more important than a study of externals. This aspect the author deals with a length and reaches the conclusion that in spite of the work of destruction, both physical and moral, accomplished by the Bolsheviks, the soul of the Russian people still lives and its intellectual spirit is unbroken. He sees in this the final triumph of its opponents over Bolshevism.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD: *Research Report No. 46; Railroad Wages and Working Rules*. 130 pp. New York, The Century Company. February 1922.

This report falls into three main divisions: an historical survey of the various methods adopted for settling disputes on railways in the United States

up to, and including, the Transportation Act of 1920 and the Railroad Labour Board ; a description of the nature and scope of the national agreements, the working rules adopted during the period of Federal control (December 1917-March 1920) ; and a study of the skill, responsibility, risk and regularity of employment contingent to the various occupations on railroads, and the wage movements in each of these occupations during the period 1914-1921. The final chapter deals with the economic condition of the railroads and its effect on industry and commerce, with particular reference to the serious consequences of the relatively high wages paid to railroad workers.

NIEMI, Clements : *Americanisation of the Finnish People in Houghton County, Michigan*. 43 pp. Duluth (Minnesota), Finnish Daily Publishing Co. 1921.

In this book Mr. Niemi relates the history of one of the oldest Finnish colonies in the United States, that of Houghton County (Michigan). He gives exact information as to the occupations of the immigrants who compose it, their economic, social, and religious activities, and their progressive Americanisation.

NOYEZ, Mme Jeanne : *Les réformes nécessaires dans l'éducation de la femme*. 24 pp. Paris.

The author argues that the function of woman in society is primarily to be a wife and a mother, though she frequently also follows a trade or professional occupation. She proceeds to discuss the manner in which the French-woman of today performs her task, the training she receives for it, and possible means of enabling her to perform it better. Mme. Noyez insists on the need for giving every girl, whatever her social position, some useful acquaintance with domestic economy, and to this end has drawn up a programme of practical and theoretical instruction.

PIC, Paul : *Traité élémentaire de législation industrielle ; les lois ouvrières*. Fifth edition, entirely recast and brought up to date with the most recent legislation and legal practice. xi+1043+25 pp. Paris, Arthur Rousseau. 1922. 35 francs.

The fifth edition of Mr. Pic's *Elementary Treatise on Industrial Legislation* is in some ways a new work. The framework and treatment are the same as in the 1912 edition, but considerable changes have been introduced on account of the many Acts, both French and foreign, which have recently been promulgated, also in discussing the grave problems resulting from the great war or from the industrial crisis which followed.

The treatise covers labour legislation only, industrial property (patents, trade marks, etc.) being excluded. Apart from the introduction, in which the scope, character, and historic evolution of labour legislation are examined, the work is divided into four parts, the three first being devoted to the administrative regulations of industry, contracts between employer and worker, and labour disputes including conciliation, while the fourth part gives a general picture of institutions of social progress. The characteristics of contemporary labour legislation as brought out in this book are (a) the tendency towards uniformity of legislation for the protection of labour ; (b) the extension of the activity of trade unions ; (c) the increasingly strict regulation of labour conditions ; (d) restrictions imposed on the liberty of contracting parties in the conclusion of labour contracts ; (e) the gradual extension of the scope of co-operation and profit-sharing, implying that the workers are participating to a certain extent in management and preparing for the progressive substitution of co-operative production for the present wage system ; (f) the development of public welfare institutions and especially of insurance.

The book can be easily consulted, as at the bottom of each page are a large number of notes giving references, while each chapter is headed by a useful bibliography.

Practical Profit-Sharing; a Survey of Existing Schemes, at Home and Abroad, reprinted from The Manchester Guardian Commercial. With an introduction by Seebohm ROWNTREE. Manchester, The Manchester Guardian, 67 pp. 1922. 1s.

This comprises a short survey of a dozen different profit-sharing schemes in Great Britain, together with a preface by Mr. Seebohm Rowntree on the principles of profit-sharing in general, an analysis of the progress, operation, or decay of schemes in Great Britain, and a series of brief sketches of profit-sharing in other countries; a few words on the recent Priestman scheme are added; the latter is rather a bonus on output system than a true profit-sharing scheme.

The sketches on the movement abroad are interesting, and show how very little true progress has been made outside Great Britain. In Belgium, Germany, and Italy the distaste for profit-sharing is definitely attributed to the political attitude of the Socialist parties, who see in it something unsound, because tending to obliterate what they consider the necessary conflict between capital and labour; in France the position is peculiar, for not only is that country the historical home of profit-sharing and still boasts certain classic examples of its application, but legislation itself has intervened and in an Act of 1919 introduced a compulsory sort of profit-sharing where mining concessions are granted by the state; there is nothing comparable in any other country; nevertheless, profit-sharing can hardly be said to be more widespread in France than elsewhere. In the United States, on the other hand, profit-sharing has lately tended to be restricted to managerial groups of employees, which will in course of time give it quite a peculiar application. Of the British schemes analysed the most remarkable is that started—as an experiment for one year in the first instance—by Messrs. Hans Renold, Manchester. This scheme stands out in three ways; it stresses the ‘no mystery’ principle to an uncommon extent, giving to the workers an amount of information about the business of the firm which is unusual, but which is regarded as the most important feature of the scheme; it allows no loophole for the creation of hidden reserves designed to withhold from the worker his promised share; and it assigns a very high share of the surplus profits to the workers, namely, 70 per cent., as against 30 per cent. to the owner.

PRUDHOMMEAU, J.: *Le Centre européen de la Dotation Carnegie pour la Paix universelle, 1911-1921.* 107 pp. Paris, 24, rue Pierre Curie. 1921.

The Endowment for International Peace, an institution founded by Andrew Carnegie in 1911, is intended to “serve the cause of peace between peoples, to hasten the abolition of international war, and to encourage and assist the regulation of international disputes by powerful means”. The work is divided between three Divisions.

(a) The Division of International Law collects, publishes, and translates various documents relating to international law. It has been responsible for the creation of the International Library of the Law of Nations at Paris, of the American Institute of International Law, and of the Academy of International Law at the Hague.

(b) The Division of Economics and History is working on the publication of an economic history of the war, which will consist of several volumes and which is expected to be finished in 1925.

(c) The Division of International Relations and Education is chiefly an organ of propaganda: its offices are located in two continents, for America in Washington and New York, and for Europe, in Paris.

The present publication furnishes detailed information as to the organisation and working of the European centre. It notes that shortly before his death Andrew Carnegie united into a vast humanitarian trust, the Carnegie Corporation, the whole of the organisations for social progress which he had founded.

RÉZANOF, Colonel: *La troisième Internationale communiste*. 127 pp. Paris, Bossard. 1922. 3.90 francs.

The aim of Colonel Rézanof's book (which is frankly controversial and is dedicated "To the attention of the Delegates to the International Conference of Genoa"), is to show the interdependence of the Soviet Government and the Communist International. The author does not consider the evolution of Bolshevism to be possible and he points out that any change would mean that the Communist International would cease to be "red" and become assimilated with the "yellow" International whose members have so frequently been anathematised by the Bolsheviks. The book comprises a preface in which Trotzky's ideals are contrasted with the realities described by Dr. Nansen at Geneva in January last, three chapters on the essentials, the tactics, and the development of the Communist International, and a conclusion dealing with Communism from the point of view of modern civilisation.

The book is illustrated by a number of portraits of Bolshevik leaders, apparently taken from police records.

ROGER, WIDAL, and TEISSIER: *Nouveau traité de médecine; Vol. VI, Les intoxications*. 502 pp. Paris, Masson. 1922.

The sixth volume of the *New Treatise on Medicine* by Messrs. Roger, Vidal, and Teissier is devoted to the medical study of poisoning. In the first part Mr. Roger states the fundamental problems of poisoning, mentions the various channels by which poisons can enter the body, and the conditions which favour or hinder absorption. He also investigates the relations between the chemical constitution of a substance and its toxic effect on the individual, paying particular attention to the part played by the different organs and tissues in the protection of the body against poisoning. Having examined the effect of poisons on the various organs and systems, he studies the influence of poisoning on the temperature of the patient, and describes the development of infectious diseases, the problem of habituation being briefly outlined. Although the first part is only an introduction to the following chapters, it would have been advantageous to mention certain questions which have come into prominence recently. Some reference to the respiratory system as a channel for the entry of poisons otherwise than in a gaseous state (dust and spray) would have been particularly interesting, and fuller details as to habituation could have been given.

In the following chapters analyses of the morbid symptoms produced by toxic substances are contributed by various authors, special attention being paid to lead and mercury poisoning, alcoholism, and poisoning by carbon monoxide and war poison gases. The final chapters deal with a wide range of cases of poisoning, among which must be mentioned those arising from foodstuffs, and from mushrooms in particular. Altogether this new treatise on poisoning is a well documented analysis of a problem of undeniable interest at the present time.

TOBLER, Th.: *Das Problem der Arbeitslosigkeit und der Arbeitslosen-fürsorge*. 28 pp. Berne, Ernst Bircher. 1922.

A brief study of unemployment and unemployment relief in Switzerland.

UNION CENTRALE DES ASSOCIATIONS PATRONALES SUISSES: *Coût de la vie*; Bulletin No. 13. 16 pp. Lausanne. 1922.

This Bulletin (*) shows the recent variations in the cost of living in Switzerland for different categories of families, classified according to income, and gives index numbers corresponding to the expenditure of a normal family. The basis of calculation for expenditure on food was supplied by the

(*) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 3, Sept. 1921, p. 172, and Vol. V No. 5, May 1922, p. 845.

statistics of the Swiss Union of Co-operative Societies. According to these figures, the cost of living on 1 January 1922 was still on the average 79 per cent. higher than before the war.

UNION NAVALE PARITAIRE (FRANCE): *Rapport sur le fonctionnement et les travaux de l'Union navale paritaire pendant l'année 1921*. 15 pp. Paris, 4, avenue de l'Opéra. 1922.

The aim of the Joint Naval Union founded in May 1921 is to bring together representatives of shipowners and of seamen's federations in order to examine reforms necessary to ensure the prosperity of the French mercantile marine, and to enable employers and the various classes of workers to understand one another. The Committee of the Union is composed of an equal number of representatives of the shipping companies and of the seamen's federations. The report points out that during the year all decisions were unanimous.

