

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Trade Union Organisations

The decision of the United States Supreme Court that trade unions, though unincorporated, are liable to be sued for damages in connection with strikes is likely to cause a change in the orientation of the United States labour movement. Only brief quotations from the lengthy text of the judgment are given below.

During the month of June international Christian trade unions held several congresses, to the most important of which a special article

is devoted in this issue.

The tendency towards industrial unionism noted last month is again to be noted among United States clothing workers, German building and printing workers, and also in the new labour organisation in Argentina.

The scheme to form an organisation in South Africa to embrace both white and coloured workers may be compared with the decision, noted last month, of United States seamen to admit Asiatics to membership of their unions.

Other points of interest are the opposition of the Swiss trade unions to a proposed extension of the length of the working day, and the arrangements made by the Belgian metal workers to avoid industrial conflict.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The Executive of the International Federation of Trade Unions met at Amsterdam on 8, 9, and 10 June. It was stated that the Federation is supporting 42,000 children and 50,000 adults in Russia, and that their maintenance has been assured until September next. The Executive has decided to convene a General International Congress of Peace in the latter half of December at Amsterdam. All social organisations carrying on active campaigns against war are to be invited. The agenda will be drawn up on the basis of the Rome resolution (1). The Federation has received information that negotiations for the purpose of achieving labour unity have been resumed between the Central Federation of Czechoslovakia (Odborove Sdruzeni Ceskoslovenske) and the German Federation of Trade Unions in Czechoslovakia (Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund in der Tschechoslowakei), and are on the point of conclusion.

Several international congresses of Christian workers' organisations were held at Innsbruck during the latter half of June. The most important of these, the Second International Congress of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions, is fully reported in the preceding article of this issue. On 20 June, the day before the open-

⁽¹⁾ See International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, p. 921.

ing of the above-mentioned congress, two subsidiary conferences were held, that of the Christian craft Internationals, and that of Christian women workers.

The principal object of the conference of the Christian craft Internationals, fourteen of which were represented, was to arrange for closer collaboration among themselves and between them and the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions. It was agreed to recommend the periodical meeting of the presidents and secretaries of the various craft Internationals.

The conference of Christian women workers consisted of representatives of women workers belonging to Christian trade unions in different countries, and was the second of its kind (2). The agenda included reports on the technical, domestic, social, and moral education of women workers. Resolutions were adopted in favour of legal regulation of apprenticeship, co-operation with chambers of commerce, and with employers' and workers' organisations for the purpose of better technical education, and the creation of institutions for vocational guidance.

The First International Congress of Christian Miners also took place at Innsbruck from 14 to 17 June, as the result of several preliminary conferences called with the object of founding an International Federation of Christian miners. Eight countries were represented: Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Netherlands, Poland, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. The statutes of the new federation were unanimously adopted and officials were elected; the congress then listened to a number of reports on the situation of the mining industry in various countries, workers' control, hours of work, social insurance, mining legislation, conciliation, and the attitude to be adopted towards the International Federation of Miners (Socialist).

The report on social insurance led to the adoption of a resolution to the effect that social insurance should be developed in a uniform manner in the different countries, that freedom of movement and migration should not interfere with the payment of pensions, and that both old age and invalidity insurance should be administered by a single institution.

Another resolution instructed the executive to collect detailed information as to the social legislation in force in various countries and as to the technical problems of social insurance. The executive was also to request the International Labour Office to create a special service to furnish information on miners' insurance, miners' death-rate statistics, etc., and to support the demands of the congress for freedom of migration and for payment of pensions irrespective of nationality or domicile.

With regard to the attitude to be adopted towards the International Federation of Miners (Socialist), it was decided that, while collaboration of miners throughout the world was desirable for the attainment of particular objects, yet Christian miners are unable to reconcile Christian conceptions with Socialist principles, and as the International Federation of Miners only admits one organisation from each country, Christan miners have to safeguard their interests by forming their own international federation

⁽²⁾ For the previous conference see *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 3, Dec. 1921, p. 40.

The Executive Committee of the International Federation of Postal Workers met on 31 May at Coblenz. A communication had been received from the All-Russia Federation of Postal Workers, which has a "voluntary" membership of 124,000, to the effect that it accepted the constitution of the International Federation of Postal Workers. The Russian Federation had, however, previously declared that it desired both to adhere to Amsterdam and at the same time remain affiliated to Moscow. The Executive decided that "it shall be a sine qua non condition of admission of the All-Russian Trade Union to the Federation of Postal Workers that it shall withdraw from the Red Trade Union International".

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

United States

On 7 June the Supreme Court of the United States handed down a unanimous decision on the so-called Coronado coal case to the effect that trade unions can be sued under the provisions of the Sherman-Anti-Trust Law and that strike funds are assessable for damages in a suit brought against a union for damages caused by a strike.

In 1914 a group of mines in Arkansas decided to operate with non-union labour. A strike occurred at the mines of the Coronado Coal Company, which belonged to the group, and upon the replacement of the strikers by non-union men, violent disturbances ensued, which resulted in damage to the mine and prevented its operation. The Company sued the local unions, District No. 21 of the United Mine Workers, and the United Mine Workers' Association itself, for damages in respect of the destruction of its property committed as part of a conspiracy to restrain inter-State commerce. The Supreme-Court, before which the case ultimately came, decided that the local unions and District No. 21 did not commit the various outrages alleged with the intention of restraining inter-State commerce. It also decided that there was nothing in the evidence to show that the International Board of the United Mine Workers authorised the strike, took any part in its preparation, or aided in its maintenance. The Court therefore considered that the United Mine Workers should not have been held subject to joint liability with the district organisation, and thecase was sent back to the Arkansas Court for further proceedings in conformity with this decision.

However, in arriving at these conclusions in connection with the case under consideration, the Supreme Court laid down the highly important general principle that trade unions, although unincorporated, might nevertheless be sued as organisations. Some passages from the decision are quoted below.

We think that such organisations are suable in the Federal courts for their acts and that funds accumulated to be expended in conducting strikes are subject to execution in suits for torts committed by such unions in strikes...

Our conclusion as to the suability of the defendants is confirmed in the case at bar by the words of Sections 7 and 8 of the Anti-Trust Law. The persons who may be sued under Section 7 include "corporations and associations existing under or authorised by the laws either of the United States, or the laws of any of the Territories, the laws of any State, or the laws of any foreign country". The language is very broad, and thewords, given their natural signification, certainly include labour unions like these. . .

Undoubtedly at common law an unincorporated association of persons was not recognised as having any other character than a partnership in whatever was done, and it could only sue or be sued in the name of its members, and their liability had to be enforced against each member. . . But the growth and necessities of these great labour organisations have brought affirmative legal recognition of their existence and usefulness and provisions for their protection, which their members have found necessary. Their right to maintain strikes when they do not violate laws or the rights of others has been declared. . .

Out of the very necessities of the existing conditions and the utter impossibility of doing justice otherwise, the suable character of such an organisation as this has come to be recognised in some jurisdictions. . .

It would be unfortunate if an organisation with as great a power as this international union has in the raising of large funds and in directing the conduct of 400,000 members in carrying on, in a wide territory, industrial controversies and strikes, out of which so much unlawful injury to private rights is possible, could assemble its assets to be used therein free from liability for injuries by torts committed in the course of such strikes. To remand persons injured to a suit against each of the 400,000 members to recover damages and levy on his share of the strike fund would be to leave them remediless.

Though such a conclusion as to the suability of trade unions is of primary importance in the working out of justice and in protecting individuals and society from the possibility of oppression and injury in their lawful rights it is after all in essence and principle merely a procedural matter. As a matter of substantive law, all the members of the union engaged in a combination doing unlawful injury are liable to suit and recovery, and the only question is whether when they have voluntarily, and for the purpose of acquiring concentrated strength and the faculty of quick unit action and elasticity, created a self-acting body with great funds to accomplish their purpose, they may not be sued as this body, and the funds they have accumulated may not be made to satisfy claims for injuries unlawfully caused in carrying out their united purpose.

The close resemblance of the Coronado coal case to the celebrated Taff Vale case in England is pointed out, and it is anticipated in some quarters that organised labour in the United States will find it necessary to adopt similar tactics to those employed by the English trade unionists in order to fight the decision. It will be remembered that trade unionists in England, after the Taff Vale decision, took an active part in politics and succeeded in passing the Trades Disputes Act in 1906.

Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labour, has announced that organised labour will appeal to Congress and the people of the United States to rectify the decision.

The fifth biennial convention of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America was held in Chicago from 11 to 13 May. Great satisfaction was felt at the concession from the Soviet Government granting the right to operate clothing and textile factories in Russia. The plan as outlined is to set up an "American-Russian Trade Industrial Workers' Association", the capital of which should not be less than \$1,000,000, subscribed in \$10 shares by American workers. The convention appropriated \$10,000 for initial expenses of organisation and another \$50,000 for purchase of stock. It is anticipated that the enterprise will pay 7 per cent. on the common stock; any excess of earnings above 10 per cent. is to be devoted to the extension of whatever industrial enterprise may be decided upon.

Another matter of importance dealt with by the convention concerned the question whether the organisation of the needle trades in the United States should take the form of amalgamation or a mere federation. In December 1920 a conference of the various unions in the needle trades decided that a federation should be formed under the title of the Needle Trades Workers' Alliance of America. The federation, however, never actually came into existence. It was argued that mere affiliation could not stand the stress of strike and lock-out, and the convention voted unanimously that the executive should take steps towards the gradual amalgamation of all the needle trades in the United States and Canada.

This question of closer collaboration of workers in the needle trades was also the principal matter of discussion at the sixteenth biennial convention of the *International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union*, which met at Cleveland on 1 May. The convention pronounced in favour of renewing the scheme for the Needle Trades Workers' Alliance as the first step in the direction of uniting the entire needle industry. At the same time a motion in favour of amalgamation of the Union with the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and three smaller organisations was defeated, the reason given being that, while amalgamation was approved in principle, it involved many difficulties, and progress should rather be made one step at a time.

The eighth biennial convention of the National Women's Trade Union League of America was held at Waukegan, Illinois, from 5 to 10 June. The affiliated membership of the League is reported to number approximately 600,000. Branches are maintained in twenty cities. In a resolution addressed by the convention to the American Federation of Labour, the latter was urged to issue local charters to groups of women in the few trades where the international (3) union concerned refuses them admittance. Propaganda is to be undertaken in rural districts with the object of making the women's trade union movement widely known. The convention desires the Women's Bureau of the Federal Department of Labour to make an enquiry into the economic status and labour conditions of the twenty million women employed in home work. Resolutions were adopted in favour of the enforcement of prohibition, unemployment insurance, nationalisation of coal mines, free Federal employment exchange service, and the fixing of 16 years of age as minimum for employment of children.

Great Britain

The new constitution of the National Alliance of Employers and Employed is noted in the section of this issue dealing with Employers' Organisations. Employers and workers have precisely equal representation in all the organs of the Alliance. The labour side of the executive includes representatives from such important national trade unions as the General Federation of Trade Unions itself, the Shipping Guild, National Sailors' and Firemen's Union, Workers' Union, Iron and Steel Trades' Confederation, and Dockers' Union. In the provinces over 2,000 trade union branches have officially declared themselves in support of the principles and methods of the Alliance.

Germany

The German Union of Building Workers (Deutscher Bauarbeiterverband), the membership of which is 486,000, held its fourth annual

^(*) The term 'international' is used in respect of unions having branches both in Canada and the United States.

meeting from 8 to 13 May at Leipzig. One of the chief items on the agenda was that of the formation of a single union covering all workers, manual and non-manual, in the building industry. Although certain unions, in particular the Carpenters, Stone Workers, and Factory Workers have declared that they will remain outside the new organisation, the congress, nevertheless, decided that it should be proceeded with and adopted almost unanimously the project of the new industrial union which is to come into being on 1 January 1923. The chief arguments advanced in favour of amalgamation were that it would simplify the administrative work of the building unions and strengthen the feeling of solidarity among the workers. It was further urged that amalgamation would enable fuller advantage to be taken of the works councils list, and would help the movement for the socialisation of industry.

A report on socialisation dealt mainly with the activities of the Federation of Building Associations (Verband der sozialen Baubetriebe). This organisation employs some 20,000 workers, and has already erected buildings to the value of 470 million marks.

The congress of the Union of Bookbinders and Paper Workers (Verband der Buchbinder and Papierverarbeiter Deutschlands) took place at Cassel from 15 to 20 May. The membership of the organisation is 87,960, of whom 62,810 are women. The congress considered a proposal for forming a federation for the printing industry as a whole. The matter was referred to a special committee for further examination. The new organisation would include printers', lithographers', and bookbinders' unions, and the workers in auxiliary branches.

Italy

A congress of national fascisti corporations (Confederazione delle corporazione sindacali) was held at Milan on 4, 5, and 6 June (4). The 473 delegates represented 2,126 associations with an organised membership of 458,284, distributed among 9 national corporations, of which the 4 largest are: agriculture (277,084), industry (72,000), transport (43,000), and commercial employees (31,000). The agricultural corporation thus contributes three-fifths of the membership.

The congress considered that production in agriculture and all industries should be intensified in accordance with liberal principles. It was in favour of the division of large estates (latifondi), and the abolition of agricultural wage-earning by the gradual introduction of a system of participation by agricultural workers in the profits of agriculture. There should be increased propaganda on behalf of co-operation, and all co-operative organisations should be united into one federation.

Switzerland

On 27 and 28 May the Swiss Trade Union Federation held at Berne an Extraordinary Trade Union Congress, the purpose of which was to emphasise the unanimous opposition of the trade unions to any

⁽⁴⁾ For preliminary conference of fascisti unions, see International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 4, Apr. 1922, p. 594.

amendment of the Hours of Work Act and to reduction of wages. The following quotation represents the tendency of the resolution adopted.

The extension of hours of work cannot put an end to the present depression. It is simply an attempt of reactionaries to regain a lost position. The Committee of the Swiss Trade Union Federation and the Committee for defending the 48-hour week are instructed to take all measures necessary to defeat this criminal attack directed against the greatest achievement of trade union organisation.

The congress affirms that the working class is deeply interested in the claims of Swiss industry on world markets. On the other hand, it rejects any further reduction in wages on the ground of the difficult conditions of life and of the fact that for many workers the increase in their wages, which were inadequate before the war, never compensated for the rise in the cost of living.

The first condition for a reduction in wages is a reduction in the cost of living. . . . In particular [the congress] recommends . . . opening of the frontiers, abolition of import restrictions, reduction of customs tariffs, limitation of profits on vital necessities, opposition to trusts, cheaper credit, reduction of the rate of taxation on small incomes, imposition of a Federal tax on large incomes and properties and on the transmission of property, and the establishment of a grain monopoly.

Until these demands have been met, all wage reductions should be vigorously opposed, as they would lead to a reduction in the consuming power of the working masses and consequently to further distress.

On 26 June of this year a Bill was passed by the Swiss National Council modifying Section 41 of the Hours of Work Act of 27 June 1919. This Section permits a weekly maximum of 52 hours work in case of urgent necessity, particularly in cases of competition from those foreign countries where working hours are longer. The new Bill increases the maximum to 54 hours, in case of urgent necessity, and is to be in force for three years. The Bill will probably be subject to a national referendum.

Belgium

The congress of the Federation of Belgian Metal Workers (Centrale des métallurgistes de Belgique) took place in Brussels on 3, 4, and 5 June. The membership of the Federation is about 150,000. The congress passed a resolution protesting against the reduction in unemployment benefit (a reduction of 20 per cent. on the benefit itself and 33 per cent. on family allowances).

A clause was added to the constitution providing that before declaring a strike the regional committees must employ every possible means of conciliation, including arbitration if they think necessary. Should the management of the factory refuse every arrangement proposed, a referendum must be taken, which will not be valid unless at least 80 per cent. of the workers concerned take part. If the referendum results in carrying two-thirds of the votes of the organised workers, and 75 per cent. of the votes of all the workers, in favour of a strike, the strike may be declared by the executive committee four days after the counting of the votes, provided the number of workers concerned is not over 2,000, and by the national committee if the number is not over 5,000. If the dispute involves over 5,000, an emergency congress must be held.

Argentina

A United Labour Congress held at Buenos Ayres from 6 to 10 March-decided to form the "Argentine Regional Labour Federation". The new body, which will consist solely of trade unions, is to undertake permanent propaganda for grouping the working class in Federal, provincial, and local trade unions. It is to encourage the organisation and centralisation of the workers' big industries, since it has been found that craft unions are not sufficiently strong for the effectual conduct of industrial disputes. As various shades of political opinion are represented in the organisation, the Federation will be strictly trade union in character and respect the intellectual liberty of its members.

South Africa

The fourth annual congress of the Cape Federation of Trades and Labour Unions was opened on 15 April in Cape Town. The following important resolution affecting the position of coloured workers was adopted. It stated

Whereas the question of the colour bar has hitherto been the greatest obstacle to the foundation of a National Federation and to a solid working-class movement in South Africa, and, whereas it would be impossible to-build up such a Federation whilst leaving the coloured worker out of it, quite apart from its being unjust and against the principle of true trade unionism, this Congress is of the opinion that some basis could be found for a settlement of this thorny problem in such a way as to satisfy the demands of the coloured workers of the Cape, whilst safeguarding the present standard enjoyed by organised labour in the North.

A committee was, therefore, to be appointed to find a definite basis for the constitution of a National Federation to include all workers in South Africa.

Employers' Organisations

MPLOYERS' organisations continue to voice protests against the rigid enforcement of the 8-hour day. The necessity of making special allowances in certain districts and for certain industries, the need for a transitional period during which extraordinary exceptions to the general principle would be permitted, and the desirability of international co-ordination in the matter of hours of work, are the points most frequently emphasised.

In the United States interest has lately centred on the dependence of prosperity on foreign trade, and the dependence of foreign trade in turn on conditions in Europe and the settlement of the war debts. In France the question of technical training is receiving considerable attention, the general opinion being that the chambers of commerce should take a leading part in this work.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

The International Inter-Parliamentary Commercial Conference held its eighth session in Paris from 31 May to 3 June 1922. The object of the Conference, according to the first Article of its constitution, is to bring together the commercial committees of the principal Parliaments, with a view to unifying commercial legislation, and thus to assure for those nations participating in its work a more efficacious protection of their interests abroad.

The Conference was attended by representatives of twenty-four nations, the Argentine, Australia, Bulgaria, and Latvia being represented for the first time. Resolutions were passed on the following subjects: exchange and currency, international rivers, international legislation regarding bankruptcy laws, measures restricting export trade, and relations between the International Institute of Commerce and the League of Nations.

The eleventh congress of the International Federation of Master Cotton Spinners and Manufacturers was held in Stockholm 14-16 June. It was attended by about two hundred delegates representing twenty countries, including five countries which were guests of the congress on special invitation, viz. Germany, Brazil, Denmark, Austria, and Poland. One of the main subjects of discussion was that of the 48-hour week and its effects on cotton-spinning. This question was dealt with in five papers—three from England, one from France, and another from Italy. All five speakers were in agreement that the introduction of the 48-hour week had resulted in a diminution of production. It was generally stated also that for a number of reasons, such as the poor quality of the cotton raised, the high cost of textile machinery, and labour shortage, it was impossible to make good this diminution of production by using more machinery or improving the efficiency of the methods in use.

Mr. Harold Cliff, secretary of the Oldham Master Cotton Spinners' Association, said that the majority of employers agreed that a 48-hour week in itself was desirable and should tend to the physical and social welfare of the workers, but that the change from 55½ hours per week to 48 hours per week could not be effected abruptly without disorganisation. He pointed out that although the 48-hour week had been adopted by all the important industrial countries of Europe, the limitation did not apply to the United States of America or to India or Japan. He urged that it would have been better to have arrived at a uniform 48-hour week by stages adjusted in accordance with the ability to carry out the change. In view of the establishment of the International Labour Organisation and the terms of the Convention adopted by it, he did not consider it would be advisable to suggest any increase in the hours of work. As so many nations had already adopted the principle, a useful purpose would be served if the congress urged upon the International Labour Organisation the advisability of endeavouring to get the principle of the 48-hour week established at the earliest possible moment by all the important countries which had not yet done so. Mr. Henri Manuel, vice-president of the Industrial Association of the French Cotton Industry (Syndicat industriel l'industrie cotonière française), expressed the opinion that each nation should have "a free hand in introducing such flexibility into the

principle of the 8-hour day as, in its opinion, appears necessary in the economic interests of the world at large and of the nation in particular".

The congress eventually adopted the following resolution concerning the 48-hour week in the cotton industry:

The congress, which has considered the information given in the addresses delivered during the meeting concerning the effects of the introduction of the 48-hour week and has discussed the situation in its entirety, is convinced that the 48-hour week which has been introduced in the different countries, either by legislation or through agreement with the workers' organisations, has proved economically unsound and is fatal to both the employers' and workers' best interests.

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

France

The Federation of Employers' Organisations in the French Textile Industries (Union des syndicats patronaux des industries textiles de France) held its annual general meeting on 30 May in Paris, all the large textile centres being represented. Among the resolutions passed those relating to hours of work, social insurance, and vocational education and apprenticeship were of particular interest.

The Federation considered that owing to the fact that the hours of attendance in the transport and mining industries do not always coincide with the hours of effective work, legislative action should be taken to provide for a more flexible system than the one at present prevailing. It is suggested that 300 hours overtime a year supplementary to the normal 48-hour week should be allowed in all industries on application by the management of any enterprise. In its resolution on social insurance the Federation expressed the opinion that the Government Bill at present under consideration should be set aside and that Parliament should confine itself to developing health insurance. With respect to vocational education and apprenticeship the Federation considered that the chambers of commerce working in conjunction with the organisations concerned should continue the valuable work they are performing in this field and that no new organisation should be substituted for them.

A recent enquiry into the working of the 8-hour day in France, conducted by the Renaissance politique, littéraire et artistique, obtained the opinions of important employers' organisations on this vital question. The Association of Metal and Mining Industries Mechanical, Electrical, and Metal Engineering (Union des industries métallurgiques et minières de la construction mécanique, électrique et métallique) stated that increases in staff ranging from 45 to 50 per cent. were necessitated by the Eight Hour Day Act in branches engaged in continuous processes. In furnace work not of a continuous nature and in machine work a fall in output of approximately 18 per cent. had resulted. There was no possibility of any general compensation for the reduction in hours of work by means of an improvement in equipment. The Association considered that 300 additional hours overtime per year should be allowed for a period of not less than seven years.

The Central Committee of French Coal Mine Owners (Comité Central des houillères de France) reported that the effect of the Eight

Hour Day Act had been to reduce the effective hours of work by an amount varying between 16 and 18 per cent. The concurrent fall in output per worker had amounted to 20 per cent., taking underground and surface workers together, and 26 per cent. for underground workers alone. This reduction in hours of work and even greater reduction in output had considerably increased the cost of production. It is declared that the Act cannot be maintained in its present form or be strictly applied without entailing serious economic consequences.

The Federation of Employers' Organisations in the French Textile Industries (Union des syndicats patronaux des industries textiles de France) stated that in the textile industries, in which machinery plays a great part and the speed at which the machinery is worked has already reached its maximum, the reduction in output was directly proportional to the reduction in hours of work. The Federation demanded that 300 hours overtime per annum should be granted to all industries.

The General Secretary of the Management Board of the chief French railway companies stated that it had been found necessary to employ 100,000 additional workers, equivalent to 40 per cent. of the total staff, and that the output of the workers had fallen off by 30 to 40 per cent. The increase in costs amounted to 1,100 million francs per annum for the six chief railway systems, 800 millions representing increased expenditure on staff and 300 millions interest and sinking fund on the capital borrowed in order to pay for the new equipment and the material required by the increase in staff. The necessary modifications of the present system could be introduced by means of Administrative Regulations. A number of regulations relating to the work of station staff had been drafted by the railways and submitted to the Minister of Public Works. They provided that the working day should refer to hours of effective work and not to hours of mere attendance; that the 8-hour day should be calculated on an average over a period covering the whole year; and that as a transitional measure 300 hours overtime a year should be permitted.

The Federation of Economic Organisations (Union des intérêts economiques) drew attention to the fact that almost all chambers of commerce, a large number of commercial and industrial organisations, and several general and municipal councils had repeatedly demanded that the Eight Hour Day Act should be amended and that wider exemptions should be allowed to producers. The Lyons Chamber of Commerce demanded that permission be given to work two more hours a day for a period of five years. The Limoges Chamber of Commerce considered that the application of the Act should be suspended until the world economic situation allowed of the conclusion of an international agreement on the question. The Toulouse Chamber of Commerce heid that the Act should be put into operation by stages, with extensive exemptions determined by a consideration for the character of the work and the period of effective work. The Tours and the Indre-et-Loire Chamber of Commerce demanded that parliament should, without infringing on the principle of the Eight Hour Day Act, delay its application during the period of national reconstruction, or should allow wide exemptions, taking into account the economic situation of the country and the requirements of various industries and districts. The Bordeaux Chamber of Commerce suggested that, wherever necessary, normal hours of work should be

increased during a given period, after consultation with the organisations concerned.

The Central Committee of French Shipowners (Comité central des armateurs de France) stated that the 8-hour day was introduced into the mercantile marine "it might almost be said on the condition that the French example was followed by all maritime nations, or, if not, that a compensatory system should be introduced to indemnify French shipping against this fresh burden". As it was, other maritime nations had failed to follow the example set. Statistics were quoted showing the increased cost attributable to the introduction of the 8-hour day. The Central Committee of Shipowners demanded that, with a view to resisting international competition, the Eight Hour Day Act be suspended until the reorganisation of labour on board ship has been made the subject of an international agreement.

The Apprenticeship Committee of the Association of Metal and Mining Industries, mentioned above, has drawn up a report on the reorganisation of the training courses in national technical schools. This report, having been approved by the affiliated employers' associations (chambres syndicales), has now been submitted to the Under-Secretary of State for Technical Education, who is engaged on the task of reorganisation. The Apprenticeship Committee draws attention to the obviously inadequate supply of technical schools. It states that the five schools in existence cannot turn out more than 350 technically qualified workers a year. As regards the training itself, it is maintained that more time should be spent in the workshops, that there should be a greater number of workshops in each school, and that it is essential to give the students a far more complete general education. It is suggested that the programme for the national technical schools should provide for the instruction of two or three times the present number; a period of training of four years, the first three of which should be devoted to general instruction and the fourth to specialisation; and an încrease in the number of workshops, including those fitted up for joiners, fitters, turners, smiths, and foundry workers, and at least one adapted to the special requirements of the locality. It is also recommended that pupils taking manual training should be allowed to specialise after the second year in order to develop their technical skill.

The Association of French Engineers, Boilermakers, and Foundry Masters (Syndicat des mécaniciens, chaudronniers, et fondeurs de France) has also given its views to the Under-Secretary of State for Technical Education on the reorganisation of national technical shools. It points out that the number of national technical schools is inadequate and expresses the opinion that the abolition of state workshops should not involve that of the apprenticeship workshops, as it considers that the creation of new technical schools would be greatly facilitated by the existence of these organisations. In addition, it makes suggestions as to the details of a four years' curriculum of technical instruction in the various crafts.

A meeting of presidents of chambers of commerce was held in Paris on 23 May, 120 chambers of commerce being represented. Among the resolutions passed was one adopted on vocational education and apprenticeship, as follows:

At the instance of the Lille Chamber of Commerce, this meeting: considering that the Act defining the functions of the chambers of

commerce assigns to them all work of value to commerce and industry, and particularly vocational education and apprenticeship. . . . ;

that independent chambers of crafts would only be permissible if the chambers of commerce did not exist or had failed in their duties;

that a large number of chambers of commerce have shown their firm intention of organising vocational education and apprenticeship;

that, moreover, existing schemes of vocational education and apprenticeship must be respected;

that it would be a serious mistake to try to impose the same rules on all industries and all districts;

Protests against the error and injustice of any Act depriving the chambers of commerce of their rightful functions and considers further legislation relating to vocational education and apprenticeship unnecessary.

Great Britain

The National Alliance of Employers and Employed was originally formed for the purpose of providing a joint organisation representative of employers and workers, but its initial work has hitherto necessarily been carried on to a great extent through the enterprise of individual leaders. It is understood that the Alliance is now about to adopt a new constitution based on due representation on all committees of the employers' associations and trade unions or branches of trade unions making up its membership. The business of the Alliance will be conducted by the general meeting of members, a general council, and a national executive committee. In addition, area committees are to be formed wherever found desirable. On all committees employers and employed are to be represented in equal numbers. The employers' federations officially represented upon the executive of the Alliance include the Federation of British Industries, the National Federation of Iron and Steel Manufacturers, the Brassfounders' Employers' Association, the Associated Chambers of Commerce, the Incorporated Federated Association of Boot and Shoe Manufacturers, the Central Landowners' Association, and local associations and federations of employers and chambers of commerce in those districts where area committees of the Alliance have been formed.

Serb, Croat, and Slovene Kingdom

A regular meeting of the Industrial Employers' Federation (Zemaliski Savez Industrialaca) took place on 28 May at Zagreb under the presidency of Mr. S. Alexander. In his address to the meeting Mr. Alexander emphasised the loss in production resulting from the introduction of the 8-hour working day, accentuated in the case of the Serb, Croat, and Slovene Kingdom by the inferior efficiency of labour as compared with more advanced countries. He strongly advocated a prolongation of the hours of labour, with the object not only of increasing production, but also of ameliorating the material conditions of the working classes. The proposed measure for the insurance of workers was severely criticised as tending to impose fresh burdens upon industry, which was already overwhelmed by taxation.

United States

The tenth annual convention of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States was held in Washington on 16 to 18 May. It was estimated that five thousand leading business men from all parts of

the country were in attendance. Besides the general sessions of the convention, group sessions were held on domestic distribution, civic development, fabricated production, finance, foreign commerce, insurance, natural resources, transportation and communication by railways, merchant marine and highway.

Mr. Joseph H. Defrees, President of the Chamber of Commerce, in his address to the convention, reviewed the growth of the Chamber since its organisation ten years ago. During that period, he stated, it had increased from a membership of 65 chambers of commerce to 1,400, while its staff had grown from two to 280. Mr. Defrees declared that the principal problem before American business men

today was the task of restoring Europe.

Mr. Herbert Hoover, Secretary of Commerce, indicated the steps which, in his opinion, were prerequisite to the stabilisation of European affairs. Resolutions were adopted by the convention urging that the United States obtain official representation on the Reparations Commission and take its place with the other nations of the world in the International Court of Justice; reiterating its confidence in the principles of the Federal Reserve Banking System; declaring in favour of the extension of government aid essential to the maintenance of an adequate privately owned and privately operated merchant marine under the United States flag as a necessary safeguard for the commercial advancement of the United States; opposing proposals for the abrogation of the power exercised by the Interstate Commerce Commission to correct inter-State transportation rates; expressing deep appreciation of the services rendered by the Department of Commerce in collecting and distributing general information respecting foreign and domestic commerce; and recommending that the constituent members of the Chamber of Commerce encourage and make possible the attendance of their secretaries at the National School for Commercial Secretaries, which gives instructions in the methods and technique of chamber of commerce administration, both on account of the value of the training to the secretary and because of the benefits his organisations would receive.

The annual convention of the National Association of Manufacturers was held in New York 8 to 10 May. Mr. John E. Edgerton, President of the Association, in his annual address to the convention stated that the proportion of consumers to producers was too large and that the energies and talents of too many people were engaged in the processes of distribution. He thought that the principal factor in the continued high cost of living was the number of those "whose chief activities are to regulate, inspect, denounce, tax, plunder, and otherwise live upon those who are trying to produce something".

Among the questions considered by the convention was that of the open shop. One of the speakers thought that there should be an open shop policy in every State of the Union, while a number of others testified to the increased efficiency resulting from the institution of open shop practices. The general sentiment of the convention was

overwhelmingly in favour of the open shop.

Resolutions were adopted opposing the payment of a cash bonus to ex-Service men, but approving the grant of technical and general educational assistance, and the giving of generous aid to dependent families of ex-Service men and to disabled ex-Service men themselves, favouring the establishment of a national transportation institute in Washington "under private auspices" and under the direction of men

who "have the confidence of the public and who will conduct its work free from parties and political control"; approving the President's proposal to Congress for the support of a United States mercantile marine; and calling upon the Railroad Labour Board and the Interstate Commerce Commission to make effective such voluntary cooperation as would co-ordinate and synchronise rate revision and labour adjustment.

Mr. Herbert Hoover, Secretary of Commerce, addressed the convention on the subject of trade organisations. He advocated the enactment of legislation which would enable these organisations to file voluntarily a statement of their intentions and purposes with some governmental body. Mr. J. J. Davis, Secretary of Labour, who also addressed the convention, drew attention to the waste resulting from industrial conflicts. As the best method to remedy this he suggested the enlargement of the conciliation work carried on by the Department of Labour and the provision of specially trained men to act as conciliators in the great industries where strikes and labour disputes were chronic. Mr. Davis also referred to the immigration situation. He thought that every precaution should be taken to guard against the admission of undesirable aliens and advocated the establishment of a system whereby prospective immigrants would be examined in the country of departure.

The Ninth National Foreign Trade Convention was held at Philadelphia 10 and 12 May. It was attended by some two thousand delegates from all parts of the United States and a number of foreign countries. The convention declaration adopted stated that the productive capacity of the United States was substantially greater than the normal requirements of the domestic market and that, consequently, sustained prosperity depended upon sustained foreign trade. Unemployment, it was considered, would not be reduced to its minimum until the export trade absorbed the last 10 or 20 per cent. of normal production.

The declaration also pronounced in favour of the importation of sound securities, these serving either to liquidate outstanding foreign obligations or to furnish new occupation for American industry. It was stated that the expanding market for foreign securities in the United States had already given practical proof of its usefulness in improving general conditions, and it was important that this market should be further developed. The convention reiterated its declaration of the previous year that the immediate creation of financial machinery to facilitate extension of long-term credits to promote free exchange of exports and imports was imperative. With regard to taxation the convention expressed the view that "the present excessively high income surtax rates drive into tax-free, but unproductive, investment many millions of capital which under wise taxation would find employment in productive enterprise". The convention also favoured the promotion of a United States merchant marine, but considered that until unreasonable regulation, particularly in respect of rates, routes, and services, had been removed, it would be impossible for it to compete successfully with foreign fleets.

A number of speakers declared in favour of the remission in whole or part of the war debts due to the United States, on account of the harmful effect their payment would probably have on foreign trade.

On 16 May announcement was made of the early formation of an American Construction Council with Mr. Franklin D. Roosevelt as Honorary President. This Council will have as its main purposes the restoration of public confidence in the building industry and the establishment of a union of all the various elements in the industry in an endeavour to raise standards and increase efficiency. A statement issued by the new organisation declares that the 250 national associations in the building industry have learned from experience the large amount of duplicate effort which goes on, and the inability of individual associations to grapple effectively with problems outside their special field; they are accordingly in favour of the formation of a comprehensive organisation which will deal with these common problems.

The intention is to elaborate a code of ethics for the construction industry, to develop a national building code, to set up a research and statistical bureau, to take measures calculated to lengthen the construction season, to eliminate waste, to apply measures of standardisation and dimensional simplification, to develop apprenticeship systems, and to encourage local study and public understanding of building situations. The groups in the new organisation comprise architects, engineers, construction, labour, general contractors, subcontractors, material and equipment manufacturers, material and equipment dealers, bond, insurance and real estate interests, and the construction Departments of Federal, State, and municipal governments.

Among the employers' associations which will take an active part in the Council's work are the National Lumber Manufacturers' Association, the Associated General Contractors, the National Confederation of Construction Industries, the National Building Congress, and the National Association of Building Exchanges.

PRODUCTION AND PRICES (1)

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

THE tendency of prices to become stabilised in a number of countries has become increasingly evident since the beginning of 1922, this tendency showing itself first in the cessation in the fall of wholesale prices, while more recently there has been a slight tendency for these prices to rise. After a period which has varied somewhat from country to country, the course of retail prices has followed closely that of wholesale prices. In those countries where the fall in wholesale prices ceased to be considerable during the early months of 1922, it now appears that the general reduction in retail prices is giving place to more stable conditions. Thus, with the exception of Germany, Austria, and Poland, the latest index numbers of the cost of living in all countries for which monthly figures are available show variations of not more than about 2 per cent. from the indexes of the previous month. Of these countries, Italy (Rome), Finland, South Africa, and India (Bombay) have experienced slight increases, while in the United Kingdom, Belgium, and Italy (Milan) there have been reductions in the cost of living.

Of the ex-neutral countries of Europe where the prices are definitely going down, namely, Spain, Norway, Sweden, the Netherlands, and Switzerland, only in Switzerland and in Spain are wholesale and retail

index numbers nearly at the same level.

An examination of the food index numbers indicates that for a large number of countries the latest changes, although more marked than those of the cost of living, have been comparatively small. In most countries in the northern hemisphere, with the exceptions enumerated above, the slight movement of food prices continued in a downward direction, while, in the southern hemisphere, New Zealand food prices fell slightly, and South African prices and those in Australia showed increases. The tendency with regard to countries in the northern hemisphere may be explained to some extent by seasonal changes.

The outstanding exceptions to this general stabilisation of retail prices are Germany, Austria, Poland, and Bulgaria, in which countries prices have continued to rise without serious interruption, and the latest figures show no signs that any immediate change in the upward movement may be anticipated, especially as wholesale prices in these countries still rise rapidly. Thus in Germany and Poland the latest index numbers of the cost of living represent increases of nearly 10 per cent., while in Austria the figure for May is 25 per cent. higher than that for April. In Bulgaria the index number of food prices for February 1922 (the latest figure) was about 5 per cent. higher than in January.

As regards rent, the latest figures, for the countries for which separate data are published, show that it is either still rising or is

⁽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.

maintained at the level reached already. In the United States of America alone a very slight reduction is noticeable.

NOTES TO TABLES

Tables I to VIII which follow correspond with those published in previous numbers of the *Review*. A short account of the different methods by which index numbers are arrived at in the different countries was published in the last number of the *Review* (2), to which reference may be made. The only changes in the series of figures relate to South Africa, Germany, Poland, and Switzerland.

South Africa

In South Africa the index numbers of the cost of living so far published included only food, fuel and lighting, and rent. Since January of this year, however, the figure for miscellaneous expenditure, which includes cost of clothing, has been included in the general number. This more complete index number has now been adopted, but it should be emphasised that the figures prior to January 1922 do not include expenditure under the group of "miscellaneous" and are therefore not strictly comparable with the later figures.

Germany

The improvements contemplated in the preparation of the index numbers were referred to at the end of the article in the July 1922 issue of the International Labour Review (3). These improvements have since been effected, and although the index number for clothing has not yet been published, the revised index numbers from October 1921 are now available, and are incorporated in the tables.

The base remains the same as for previous figures, namely, average of October 1913, January, April and June 1914=100.

Poland

The Central Statistical Office has hitherto published index numbers for the cost of living in 38 chief towns of Poland. These numbers represented expenditure under two groups only, namely, food, and heating and lighting. Owing to some difficulty in collecting exact statistics with regard to the cost of heating and lighting, that Office has now excluded this item from its calculations and publishes a series of index numbers for food for 35 towns only. The previous series has been discontinued, and it is now omitted from table VI. The base for the old series, namely, January 1921=100, is maintained for the new. The Central Statistical Office continues, however, to publish complete cost of living index numbers for seven chief towns, of which those for Warsaw, Lodz, and Posen continue to be published in the International Labour Review.

Switzerland: Marché suisse du Travail.

The first official index number of cost of living has recently been commenced by the Social Statistics Service of the Office fédéral du Travail. Up to the present an index for food alone has been published. It is based on an investigation into household budgets, made in 1920, and refers to four-fifths of the total expenditure on food, and to about one-third of the entire cost of living of a normal family of five persons. Prices used are those secured by the Union coopérative suisse from twenty-three towns. Separate index numbers are given for three groups of consumers, viz. (1) officials and employees, (2) skilled workers, and (3) unskilled workers. The consumption of 1921 is measured for each month from January onwards, using as starting point both June 1914=100, and January 1921=100. The index number for skilled workers based on January 1921 has been incorporated in table VII.

⁽²⁾ See International Labour Review, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 53-65.

⁽³⁾ Ibid. p. 59.

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	Í	many	Australia	Lustria	Belgium (59 tevas)	Canada (60	Den- mark (100	Í	States	Finland
	(9 tawas)	(47 towns)	(Berlin)	(a)	(Vierra)	(a)	tewas)	towns)	(32 t.)	(X 353.)	(21 towns)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(S)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
July 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919	100 103 106 114 118 126	100	100	100 108 116 113 118 129	100	100	400 404 449 443 464 479	100 116 136 155 182 211	100 105 118 142 174 177	100 100 108 127 152 168	100
1920 1921	459 133	842 963	4425 1125	153 149	1:	455 379	192	262	247 180	198 158	931
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov.	133 149 147 144 144 136 133 130 128 127 124	944 904 904 894 880 896 963 1045 1062 1308(c) 1594 1746	1122 1090 1035 976 990 1080 1125 1177 1212	158 + + 158 + + 149 + + 143 + + 138	53300	450 434 444 399 389 384 379 384 386 394 394 393	161 477 463 465 461	237	180 480 477	176 169 163 161 158 156 158 157 156 156 156	1214 1136 1086 1101 1085 1091 1128 1214 1249 1279 1231 1172
Jan. Feb. Mar Apr. May June	139(c) 138 136 137 —	1825 2209 2639 3175 3462	1903 2177 2740 3177 3455	137	66900 77000 77800 87200 409300 187100	387 380 371 367 —	146 *	212	167	154 152 152 152	1124 1120 1107 1109 1111

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa	Geri	nany	Aus- tralia	Austria	Belgium	(14	Canada	Den- mark	Spain (Madrid)	I ——	States	Finland
	(9 towns)	(47 tawns)	(Berlin)	(30 t.) (a)	(Vienna)	(61 t.) (a)	towns) (b)	(6 0	(100 towns)	(b)	(51 towns)	(Mass.)	(21 towns)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
July 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919	100 107 116 128 134 139	100 • • • • • •	100	100 131 130 126 131 147 194	100	100 * * * * 459	100	100 105 114 157 175 186 227	100 128 146 166 187 212 253	100 108 115 121 146 168	100 98 109 143 164 186 215	100 97 109 138 160 176 210	100
1920 1921	497 439	1274	1541	161	•	410	1612	154	236	188 182	145	135	1323
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec.	472 465 460 456 452 444 439 434 433 429 425	1265 1191 1183 1171 1152 1175 1274 1399 1418 1757(c) 2189 2357	1439 1357 1316 1235 1244 1449 1541 1592 1653 1796 2227 2541	184 184 181 173 168 165 161 154 147	57900	493 482 434 417 407 419 410 427 423 434 434 438	4648 4596 4506 4564 4570 4662 4762 4762 2038 2149 2187	490 478 472 165 450 148 454 455 449 448 449	276 * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	195 196 186 189 183 179 182 184 185 188 184	169 155 154 149 142 141 145 152 150 149 147	166 154 141 138 131 129 135 138 135 133 135	1205 1138 1169 1145 1157 1188 1323 1369 1404 1401 1324 1230
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June	139 119 119 121	2463 3020 3602 4356 4680	2622 3051 3580 4255 4531		74800 87100 90400 104300 437400 272100	447 399 382 378 —	2259 2365 — — — —	143 142 138 — —	197	- - - - -	139 139 136 136 136	131 129 131 130	1151 1145 1124 1127 1132

⁽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.
(c) New series.
The sign *signifies "no figures published".
The sign *signifies "figures not available".

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

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

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Ita (Rome)	ily (Nilan)	Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns)	Nether- lands (Amsterdam)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 tevas)	Sweden (40 towns)	Date
(a)		<u> </u>		<u></u>						
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22	(23)
100 * * 238 341	100	100 99 116 146 197 205 313	100 * * 286 280 444	100 117 146 190 253 275 302	100 107 111 119 127 132 149	100 * 142 183 195 217	100	100 125 148 180 203 208 255	100 139 166 219 257 270	July 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920
307	177	387	494	302	157	*	25709	222	236	1921
338 307 295 297	169 162 160 160 167 173 177 180 183 183 182 179	374 379 384 444 396 390 387 391 400 445 423	574 566 568 578 573 506 494 504 520 535 544	304 302 302 296	457 * 456 * 456 * 456	*	14084 17024 17974 17244 17949 20270 20270 25709 30407 39817 48656 47628 46740	234 244 233 228 219 249 222 220 210 203 499	249 * 236 * 234 *	Jon. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec.
291 — — —	473 465 465 462 463	430 426 415 420	523 522 503 490 —	266 — —	* 145 * -	*	46883 48085 52358 — —	188 186 182 181 180	195 * 195 * 190	Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June

TABLE II (cont.). FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

	IRCE	India	It	alg	Norway	New Zealand	Nether- lands	Poland	United Kingdom	Swe- den (40	land	Czrcho- slovakia	Date
(Paris) (b)	(320 t.) (b)	(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(31 towns)	(a)	(Amsterdam) (a)	(Wareaw)	(630 towns)	(40 low18)	(23 towns) (b)	(30 towns) (b)	
(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
100 120 129 183 206 261 373	100 123 142 184 244 289 388	100	100 95 111 137 203 206 318	100 * 154 210 324 304 445	100 123 153 203 271 290 319	100 112 119 127 139 144 167	100 114 117 146 175 196 210	100	100 132 161 204 210 209 262	400 424 436 471 265 342 288	100 119 140 180 229 261 253	100	July 1914 1945 1946 1917 1918 1949
306	363	174	402	506	295	164	180	45655	226	230	209	1346	1921
440 382 358 328 317 342 306 347 329 334 326 323	* 429 * 363 * 350 * 349	163 156 154 154 162 169 174 177 183 180 179	367 376 386 432 421 409 402 417 430 461 459 458	574 564 582 598 598 523 506 548 545 564 570 567	334 308 299 300 292 290 295 297 290 288 281 268	178 175 169 168 166 164 163 161 156 152	193 194 193 187 184 180 180 179 179 168 154	25140 31827 32883 31711 32640 35393 45655 53100 60728 75174 75848 74659	263 249 238 232 248 226 226 225 240 295 485	275 255 247 242 232 231 230 234 228 248 210 202	237 234 231 212 210 214 209 206 200 198 192 189	1643 1494 1423 1450 1456 1445 1346 1362 1474 1519	Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June July Aug. Sept. Oct. Nov. Dec.
319 307 294 304 317	* 323 — —	169 160 161 157 158	469 463 455 —	558 562 525 499 —	257 245 238 234 230	147 145 141 144 145 143	148 149 143 137	73598 75157 81269 — —	179 177 173 172 170	189 188 184 181 17, 178	179 177 167 158 —		Jan. Feb. 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

Da	t o	South Africa	Germany	Austria	Canada	Denmark	United S	tates	Finland
Da	LE	(9 t.)	(Berlin)	(Vienna)	(60 t.)	(100 towns)	(32 towns)	(Mass.)	(24 t.)
(1	}	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
July	1914	100	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	1038
Mar.	1921	*	1077	*	195	(* (*	205	1031
June))	*	1077	*	173	248	223	194	1032
Sept.	»	*	1197	*	173	*	192	184	1090
Dec.))	172	2188	117400	173	225	184	183	1107
Mar.	1922	167	3385	142800		*	176	174	1098
June	»			271200	_	-		-	_

TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa	Germany	Austria	Canada	Denmark	Spain	Daited	States	Finland
Base	(9 towns)	(Berlin)	(Vienna)	(60towns)	(100 t.)	(Madrid)	(321.)	(Mass.)	(21 t.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	100	*	*	97	130	110	101	99	*
» 1916	111	. *	*	99	175	118	108	104	*
» 1917	115	*	*	126	220	119	124	118	*
» 1918	128	*	*	148	275	147	148	136	*
» 1919	131	*	*	156	292	172	146	150	*
» 1920	155	1158	*	193	563	185	172	177	1232
» 1921	*	1316	*	193	401	190	*	181	1265
Mar. 1921	176	1211	*	208	*	193	*	184	1252
June »	*	1316	*	196	401	190	182	173	1270
Sept. »	*	1368	*	190	*	186	181	172	1250
Dec. »	*	2158	50800	186	333	184	181	177	1249
Mar. 1922	*	3263	86000	183	*		176	171	1231
June »	*		167000			l —	l —		

TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS

Da	te	South Africa	Germany	Australia	Austria	Canada	Denmark		States	Finland
"		(9 t.)	(Berlin)	(6 t.)	(Vienna)	(60 t.)	(100 t.)	(32 t.)	(Mass.)	(21 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	*
υ	1918	105	*	99	*	100	108	109	105	*
υ	1919	110	*	105	*	109	113	114	112	*
»	1920	1 16	164	115	*	132	130	135	135	335
»	1921	*	185	121	*	142	141	159	154	553
Mar.	1921	116	164	120	*	138	*	*	148	418
June	»	*	164	121	*	141	141	159	154	535
Sept.	»	*	182	123	*	143	*	160	156	596
Dec.	»	*	182	124	400	143	141	16t	156	603
Mar.	1922	*	200		1400	_	*	160	157	603
June	»	*	- 1		2100	<u> </u>	l <u> </u>		-	l —

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

Ргапсе	India	Ita	ıly	Norway	United Kingdom	Sweden	Da	te
(Paris)	(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(31 towns)	(97 towns)	(40 towns)		
(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17	,
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July	1914
*	*	_	*	107	125	*	ъ°	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	1 — 1	596	260	240	225	Mar.	1922
	_		_ :			210	June	»

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

France	India	It	aly	Norway	New Zealand	United Kinadom	Sweden (40	Switzerland (23	Da	te
(Paris)	(Bombay)	(Roma)	(Mika)	(31 t.)	(4 towns)		towns)	towns)		
(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(15)	(20	
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July	1914
*	*		*	134	102	*	115	115	» Ť	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	١ —	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	_	530	289	191	215	196	212	Mar.	1922
<u> </u>			I —	_	_	_	188		June	»

TABLE V (cont.). RENT INDEX NUMBERS

France	India	1	laly	Norway	New Zealand	United Kingdom	Sweden	Da	te
(Paris)	(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(31 t.)	(25 t.)	(25 t.)	(40 t.)	2	
(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19))
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July	1914
*	*		*	103	101	*	*	»	1915
*	*	i —	j *	106	100	*	108	'n	1916
*	#		*	109	102	*	112	*	1917
*	*	100	100	110	104	*	112	b	1918
100	*	100	100	123	107	*	120	»	1919
100	165	100	108	147	116	118	130))	1920
110	165	157	139	161	121	152	15 5	»	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.	D
133	165		184	166	129	155	163	Dec.))
140	165	_	184	168	132	155	163	Mar.	1922
	I —	-	ا <u></u> ا	<u> </u>			163	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

-	Austria	I	taly	Nethe	rlands	Pol	and
Date	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amster- dam	Lodz	Posen
Dec. 1920		100	100	100	100	•	400
Jan. 4924 Feb. w Mar. w Apr. w May w June w July w Aug. w Sept. w Oct w	100 120 146	405 407 408 414 412 400 97 97 401 403	101 102 106 109 108 100 96 98. 99	95 95 95 95 94	95 94 • 90	400 98 93 86 96 135 152 216	110 119 122 137 144 185 337 467 645 964
Nov. » Dec. »	881	404 403	107 107	• 92	* 86	266 227	899 908
Jan. 1922 Feb. » Mar. » Apr. » May » June »	*	99 99 96 94 —	105 104 103 101 102	93 +	* - - -	233 257 277 — —	886 954 4093 —

TABLE VII. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

_	Austria	I	taly	Nethe	rlands	Poland	Switzer
Date ———	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	(35 t.)	land
Dec. 4920		400	400	400	100	*	
Jan. 1921	100	105	402	•	•	100	400
Feb. »	114	106	402	•		122	98
Mar. »	123	112	440	98	95	126	96
Apr. »	119	117	444	*	•	124	95 92
May »	126	119	113		*	124	92
June »	153	108	104	102	96	146	91 93
July »	147	103	97		•	186	93
Aug. »	172	103	100	•	•	206	94
Sept. »	226	108	103	99	88	254	89 87 86
Oct. »	337	111	112		•	332	87
Nov. »	578	112	115	•	•	337	86
Dec. »	966	444	. 445	96	84	323	83
Jan. 1922	1142	409	444	*		318	82
Feb.	4428	107	109	*	•	333	82 77 76 72
Mar. »	1457	102	108	99	85	"-	76
Apr. D	1619	98	105	*	•	_	72
May »	2028	_	106		*	_	-
June »	_	_		_		i — .	_

TABLE VIII. INDEX NUMBERS FOR OTHER GROUPS

			C	llothin	g		H	eating	and :	lightin	g			Rent		
Date	e	Aus- tria	Ita	aly		her- ids	Aus- tria	Ita	ıly		her- ids	Aus- tria	Ita	aly		her- ids
		Vigna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	imsterdam	Vienns	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Yienna	Milan	Piorence	The Hagne	Amsterda
Dec. Mar. June Sept. Dec. Mar. June	1920 1921 "" " " " " 1922	100 115 138 287 833	100 89 68 68 73 76	100 100 79 79 78 79	100 79 73 71 72 69	100 86 79 77 71 70	100 128 136 273 266	100 118 101 101 93 58	400 406 88 88 94 93	100 96 83 88 84 82	100 97 87 86 75 75	100 100 188 313 313	100 100 100 100 100 132	100 100 100 110 110 109	100 104 109 113 114 116	100 101 111 113 115 120

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

Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

The tendency towards stabilisation of wholesale prices in a number of countries which was observed during the early months of the present year has continued during the period covered by the latest figures, and is in marked contrast with the unprecedented fall during 1921. Apart from Germany and Poland, where the increase in prices has continued with only minor interruptions, there are indications of a slight rise in prices among the European countries, Denmark, France, and the United Kingdom, and among non-European countries, Australia and Canada. It is probable that this rise, although due in part to seasonal variations, signifies a greater optimism with regard to business activity, and may show that for a number of countries the worst period of industrial depression has been reached, and that slow improvement may be anticipated. In the other countries, however, the latest figures show practically no change from those of the previous month.

Compared with the annual average for 1921 the latest prices show a fall of more than about 15 per cent. only in the Scandinavian countries, the United Kingdom and South Africa. The level of maximum prices reached since the war among European countries for which figures are available, with the exception of Poland and Germany, was higher in the following countries than in any of the rest: Italy, the Netherlands, the Scandinavian countries, and France; and it is of interest to note that the decline has been smallest in Italy and France. The drop since the "peak" was attained has been only about 16 per cent. in the case of Italy, while in the case of France it is even less,

about 11 per cent.

The following table shows the index numbers calculated wherever possible on a common base, viz. 1913=100. Three series have been more or less completely revised, namely those for Spain and Belgium, and the series published by the Federal Reserve Board of the United States. Subject to these alterations and to some minor corrections in figures already published, the table corresponds with table II published in the July number of the Review.

The method of compilation of the figures in the different countries has been given in the corresponding article of the July number of the Review (1). The United States Bureau of Labour Statistics announces a revision of its series of index numbers showing changes in the level of wholesale prices. The revised series together with a description of the methods employed will be published in the September number of the International Labour Review.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES (1) (Base shifted to 1913 = 100 as far as possible)

		Ger	many	Austra-		1	China				United	States
Date	South Africa	Offi- cial	Frank- furter Ztg.	lia (Hel- bourne)	Bel- gium	Canada	(Shang- hai)	Den- mark	Egypt (Cairo)	Spain	B. of Lab. Stat.	Fed. Res. Bd.
(')	(*)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(°)	(40)	(11)	(12)	((13)
Annual average				:								
1913	400	100	•	100	•	100	100	100		100	100	100
1914	97	106	100	106	100	100			100	101	100	
1915	107	142		147	*	109	*	138	102	449	101	*
1916	123	153		138		134	*	164	124	141	124	*
1917	444	179	•	153		175	:	228	169	166	176	
1918	153	217	:	178		205		293	207	207	196	-
1919	165	445		189		216	133	294	226	204	212	214
1920	223	1486	1584	228	*	246	140	382	299	221	243	239
1921	160	1911	1867	175	•	182	145	236	480	190	155	148
1991	400	4100	4#00	205		000	138	000	214	249	178	4.00
Jan. Feb.	188	1436 1372	1528 1461	205 204		208	142	290	196	203	167	168 157
Mar.		1338	1461	490		199 194	143	280 270	190	193	162	157 152
	166	1326	1483	179		187	143	257	181	191	154	146
Apr. May	100	1320	1438	175	•	183	145	254	179	187	151	145
June		1366	1517	170		179	148	253	466	186	148	142
July	450	1428	1798	167		176	145	254	164	186	148	143
Aug.	100	1917	1843	168	347	174	149	224	166	183	152	146
Sept.		2067	2067	168	368	172	148	202	176	183	152	146
Oct.	138	2460	2798	164	372	169	146	186	186	185	150	145
Nov.		3416	3348	158	374	168	144	188	181	184	149	145
Dec.		3487	3562	155	369	170	146	178	170	183	149	142
1982							- ''					
Jan.	131	3665	3955	154	366	168	149	177	469	179	148	142
Feb.	*	4103	4888	154	356	169	148	182	152	177	151	146
Mar.	*	5433	6404	153	350	167	452	178	153	177	152	147
Apr.	128	6355	6573	155	344	166	148	177		- :	152	-
May		6458	-	-	- 1	467	-	179	_	-	- 1	
June i	*	- 1	· - I	- 1	— I	_ I	I	_ I	_ '	1		_

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

		India			Nor-	New	Nether-		Uni	ited King	dom		Switzer-
Date	France	(Bom- bay)	Italy	Japan	way	Zealand	lands	Poland	Offi- cial	Eco- no- mist	Sta- tist	Sweden	land
(14)	(15)	(10)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(*0)	(11)	(23)	(13)	(21)	(25)	(20)	(21)
Annual	(1		[]		1			1	i	ĺ	1	ĺ
average	i			l l							١		1 .
1913	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	*	100	400	100	100	
1914	102	100	95	96	115	104	105	100		99	98	116	100
1915	140	٥	133	97	159	123	145			123	127	145	:
1916	188	*	204	117	233	134	222			161	160	185	:
1917	262	*	299	149	344	454 475	286			204	206 226	244	
1918	339	237	409	196	345	178	392 297			225 235	220 242	339 330	
1919	356	222	366 624	240 268	322 377	212	281	*	314	283 283	295	347	
1920	509	215		208	269	201	281 484	·	202	283 484	188	211	190
1921 1921	345	196	578	201	209	201	101		204	101	100	211	190
	407	191	642	204	344	216	243		251	209	230	267	230
Jan. Feb.	376	191	613	195	319	210	197		230	192	215	250	219
Mar.	360	191	604	193	312	203	188		215	189	209	237	208
	347	198	584	190	297	205	176		209	183	200	229	196
Apr.	329	199	547	194	294	204	182		206	182	194	218	186 185
May June	325	197	509	192	294	200	182		202	179	183	218	179
July	330	199	520	197	300	200	176		198	178	186	211	177
Aug.	334	203	542	199	297	197	180		194	179	182	198	181
Sept.	344	207	580	207	287	197	180	60203	191	183	176	182	184
Oct.	331	195	599	219	286	195	169	65539	184	170	163	175	189
Nov.	332	193	595	214	276	191	165	58583	176	166	161	174	184 182 178
Dec.	326	190	595	210	269	189	165	57046	171	162	157	172	176
1922	ا ۵۰۰	.,,	030				.00	0.010			-0.	1	
Jan.	314	190	577	206	260	186	161	59231	168	159	456	170	474
Feb.	308	186	563	204	253	181	162	63445	165	158	156	166	171
Mar.	307	192	533	204	240	180	161	73729	163	160	157	164	163
Apr.	314	188	527	198	236	_ J	161	75106	163	159	459	465	161
May	317	_	524	_	231	-	165	_	164	159	162	164	160
June	_	_		<u> </u>	- 1	- 1	-			<u> </u>	- 1	<i> 1</i>	~

⁽i) Figures supplied by the Economic Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of Unemployment

HE tables below give the latest available statistics regarding unemployment, in comparison with figures published in previous numbers of the Review. In practically all countries an improvement is shown in relation to the position a month ago, and the steady decline in unemployment since the beginning of the year still continues. This decline, however, may be considered as the result mainly of a seasonal improvement in the demand for labour, and in order to determine the changes in the unemployment situation in relation to industrial conditions comparison should be made with the figures in corresponding periods of previous years, thus eliminating the special influence of the seasonal changes.

A comparison with the position a year ago leads to the conclusion that the economic situation as reflected in the percentages of workers unemployed shows in general little or no improvement. Thus on the one hand there is a distinct improvement in Belgium, Canada, and Australia. Also the employment figures for the United States show an advance on those of a year ago, and as this country was among the first to feel the force of the industrial depression, the increase in employment is a welcome sign and may herald a general world improvement in industry and commerce. In the United Kingdom, the position a year ago was exceptional, as in addition to the severity of the industrial depression production was disorganised by the coal stoppage which continued through the second quarter of the year. The present position in also exceptional, as, in consequence of the prolonged dispute in the engineering industry, unemployment has been particularly severe in many branches of the iron and steel trade. There are, however, certain brighter signs, employment having increased in the textile and building industries, and given a period of industrial peace, steady general improvement may be looked for. In the Netherlands in April 1921 unemployment was similar to that of a year ago. On the other hand the Scandinavian countries, Sweden and Denmark, are those in which unemployment is now distinctly higher than in the corresponding period of 1921.

Germany still remains in an exceptional position, not having experienced the industrial stagnation which has affected most other countries, and the percentage of unemployed in April 1922 is one of the lowest on record, being less than 1 per cent. of the 6 million workers covered by the statistics. The artificial stimulus of a continuously depreciating currency which has practically eliminated unemployment from Germany has not, however, led to the same result in Austria, where its influence on industry has been more than counterbalanced by commercial disorganisation, and the latest figures

indicate an increase in unemployment in that country.

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

End of		Austra-			Den-	Massa-	N	Nether-	United	Kingdom	
month	Germauy	tia	Belgium	Cauada	mark	chusetts	Norway	lands	Trade	Compulsory insurance	Sweden
	A. Nu	mber o	f Wor	kers Co	vered	by the	Retur	ns (in '	Thousa	ınds)	
1913 Mar. June Sept. Dec.	2004 2010 1994 1980	237 243 252 251	78 79 76 74	* * *	110 109 115 118	171 172 177 178	29 29 29 29	62 64 68 70	908 922 943 965	2071 2093 2218 2286	50 53 54 60
Mar. June Sept. Dec.	2934 3711 4316 4497	311 303 308 317	* *	174 151 192 174	286 293 310 311	255 250 257 274	33 36 38 38	263 304 314 394	1243 1334 1418 1541	3561 3561 3721 3721	107 119 118 119
1920 Mar. June Sept. Dec. 1921	4939 5600 5442 5664	329 343 345 351	* * 118 546	171 194 189 208	295 306 308 311	281 248 255 297	46 46 46 45	404 407 407 399	1567 1603 1636 1535	3827 4160 4197 11900	126 126 151 146
Mar. June Sept. Dec. 1922	5779 5841 5965 6103	344 364 368 —	668 669 746 757	207 182 183 161	294 299 287 282	237 243 237 209	51 89 74 39	394 396 393 395	1528 1279 1433 1432	12000 12200 12200 11902	165 145 154 144
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June	5798 6159 6284 5592 —	* *	763 740 730 720 681	159 163 158 142 —	280 278 278 278 278 —		11111	372 — — — —	1406 1390 1353 1387 1393	11902 12120 12120 11881 1 11881 1	141 137 150 — —
	 		l 			· · · · · ·	 	l 			· ·······
1913	1 1	B. 1	Percent I	age of	above	Worke	ers Une	emplo y	ed I	1	ı
Mar. June Sept. Dec. 1919	2.8 2.7 2.7 4.8	6.4 7.3 7.0 5.3	1.5 2.1 3.2 3.5	_ _ _	7.8 3.7 3.8 15.1	8.3 4.5 5.0 8.5	$ \begin{array}{c c} 1.8 \\ 0.7 \\ 1.2 \\ 3.7 \end{array} $	3.4 3.9 4.9 9.1	1.9 1.9 2.3 2.6	3.5 2.8 3.7 4.6	7.1 2.6 2.3 4.4
Mar. June Sept. Dec. 1920	3.9 2.5 2.2 2.9	6.5 8.5 6.2 5.2	* * *	5.6 2.6 2.2 3.5	20.5 3.6 3.1 16.5	11.4 2.8 2.7 4.1	2.2 1.1 1.2 2.6	14.2 8.7 4.5 9.0	2.8 1.7 1.6 3.2	* * 6.58	7.6 6.1 3.2 3.8
Mar. June Sept. Dec. 1921	1.9 3.9 4.5 4.1	5.6 6.2 6.2 7.8	* * 5 8 17.4	3.4 2.5 3.3 13.1	6.7 2.0 2.7 15.1	4.1 14.6 16.4 29.2	1.5 0.7 1.8 6.8	7.7 5.9 4.1 13.4	1.1 1.2 2.2 6.1	3.6 2.6 3.8 5.8	4.5 3.4 2.9 15.8
Mar. June Sept. Dec. 1922	3.7 3.0 1.4 1.6	11.4 12.5 11.4 9.5	10.4 9.9 9.6 6.6	16.5 13.2 8.5 15.1	23.6 16.8 16.6 25.2	22.1 20.1 19.1 24.2	16.1 20.9 17.1 22.9	13.9 8.1 6.8 16.6	10.0 23.1 14.8 16.5	11.3 17.8 12.2 16 2	24.5 27.7 27.3 33.2
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May June	3.3 2.7 1.1 0.9 —	* 9.2 — —	6.4 5.8 5.2 3.9 3.0	13.9 10.6 9.6 10.4	28.9 33.1 27.9 24.0 —		1 1 1 1 1	20.0 20.8(2) 14.1(2) 11.9(2) —	16.8 16.3 16.3 17.0 16.4	16.2 15.2 14.4(3) 14.4(3) 13.5(3)	34.8 32.1 30.6 28.6

^{(&#}x27;) For the United Kingdom there is also given the number covered by the Unemployment Insurance Act and the percentage unemployed.

(') Provisional figures. — (') Excluding Irish Free State.

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

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF SHORT TIME

	Belgium	Italy	United 1	Kingdom	Switzerland
Date (End of month)	Number	Number	Number	Percentage of insured workers	Number
1991 April June September December 1999	118,041 86,823 60,958 36,232	69,270 238,940 154,350 178,662	1,077,317 832,340 322,315 315,760	9.0 6.8 2.6 2.7	95,374 76,116 69,421 53,970
January February March April May	36,092 32,100 28,912 35,308 25,712	159,231 149,711 153,542 (1) 135,964	287,499 266,162 222,693 188,639 133,590	2.4 2.2 1.8 1.6 1.1	49,181 46,761 40,315 39,249 34,292

⁽¹⁾ Revised figure.

TABLE III. OTHER STATISTICS RELATING TO UNEMPLOYMENT

	Aus	stria	Fra	nce		Italy		S	witzerla	nd		cho- akia
Date (End of	Vienna Num-	Num-	Num- ber of	Num- ber of per-		er of v		Numl	per of w	vholly red	Num- ber of	Num- ber of per-
month)	ber of appli- cants for work	ber of appli- cants for work	appli- cants for work (¹)	sonsin receipt of bencht	Agri- cul- ture	Indus- tries	Total	Agri- cul- ture	Indus- tries		per- sons unem- ployed	sonsin receipt of benefit
1921 Mar. June Sept. Dec.	24,344 24,802 24,236 19,618	32,403 32,802	44,061 21,316 17,718 17,373	91,225 47,331 21,797 10,032	43,581 84,693	306,338 356,266	250,145 388,744 473,216 541,755	708 1,454	37,962 44,097 53,607 67,748	54,039 66,646	102,180 103,170 70,780 78,312	46,128 26,802
Jan. Feb. Mar. Apr. May	29,619 33,783 37,482 39,472	64,717	48,535 48,807 16,605 14,094 8,456	7,861	171,957 137,484	372,882 332,428	606,819 576,284 498,606 432,372	5,239 4,646	74,832 75,124 66,372 59,177 54,446	99,541 89,099 80,799		54,000

⁽¹⁾ These figures give the number of workers remaining on the live register.
(2) Including miscellaneous occupations. — (3) Provisional figures.

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

Date	Numbers employed	Percent. increase (+)	Index of employment,
(End of month)	by 1,428 firms, to nearest thousand	or decrease (—) on previous month	(January 1921 = 100)
1921 Mar.	1,588,000	- 1.50	97.5
June	1,527,000		93.8
Scpt.	1,545,000	+ 1.20	94.9
Dec. 1922	1,493,000	- 4.70	94.7
Jan.	4,557,000	+ 4.20	95.6
Feb.	1,565,000	+0.57	96.1
Mar. Apr.	1,604,000 1,617,000	$^{+\ 2.50}_{+\ 0.74}$	98.5 99.3

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

	Area under	famine relief	Tracts under « scarcity » and « observation and test »				
Date (End of month)	Estimated population of affected area	Number on relief	Number of persons on test works	Number of persons in receipt of gratuitous relief			
1921 Mar. June Sept. Dec.	8,280,445 40,275,252 6,444,888 382,948	196,251 270,126 86,369 7,810	45,985 42,695 3,352 777	47,753 79,369 24,129 1,335			
1922 Jan. Feb.	303,375 303,375	7,170 2,601	1,609 1,896	991 4,093			

The above remarks refer to total unemployment only. The figures of partial unemployment show that there has been a steady reduction since the second guarter of 1921, when the numbers of workers on short time, in those countries which publish figures, had reached their maximum.

The statistics of famine relief in India show a steady improvement of the situation in that country since June of last year and the numbers now relieved are comparatively very small.

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 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 were given in a series of notes published at the end of the corresponding article in the July number of the Review (1). The fluctuations of unemployment in the different countries can, however, befollowed in the tables, and compared as between one country and another.

⁽¹⁾ See International Labour Review, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 79-80.

MIGRATION

Notes on Migration

N the section on International Action mention is made this month of provisions dealing with emigration, and particularly the transit of emigrants, in the conventions concluded between Italy and Poland, Germany and Poland, Germany, Danzig, and Poland, and France and Belgium. The progress of the International Convention on the Traffic in Women and Children is also noted. Racial problems, and especially that of the emigration of the yellow race, were examined and discussed at the recent Conference of the International Union of League of Nations Societies and formed the subject of various interesting reports and resolutions.

The section dealing with *Emigration Statistics* contains full information on emigration in Poland, the Argentine Republic, and Japan, together with more summary tables for Denmark and Hungary. An account is given of recent emigration of the Mennonites from Canada to the United States, Mexico, and Paraguay. A Committee of Emigration Statistics has been established at Rome, and the different scientific aspects of migration have been studied at New York.

Legislative activity in matters connected with migration continues to be very marked. In the section on Government Policy and Legislation information is given this month on the Acts recently passed in Great Britain, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, the United States, and British India, as well as of a Portuguese Decree which has just been signed. The object of the British Act is to promote cooperation between the mother country and the Dominions so as to secure a better distribution of the population within the Empire. This attempt would appear to be meeting with a favourable reception in the Dominions. Other legislation has been specifically national in character. It is actuated by the idea of regulation and protection that finds expression in existing legislation, either by limiting emigration and immigration, or giving emigrants wider protection and privileges, or subjecting them to stricter control. Mention is also made of Bills introduced in Poland, the United States, and the British Dominions, most of which are similar in intention to existing legislation. In contrast with these, reference is made to the movement in Italy for giving the emigrant greater freedom. Vigorous discussion has taken place on this subject, and a revival of clandestine emigration is notified. Reference is also made to recent tendencies in the emigration policy of Hungary, Mexico, and Brazil.

Under the heading Welfare and Protection Work a further account is given of the work of the High Commissioner of the League of Nations for the emigration of Russian refugees to different countries. Reports of various welfare organisations are examined, including those of the Young Women's Christian Association, several organis-

ations for protecting young girls when travelling, the Bonomelli Association, Dr. Barnardo's Homes, and others. Mention is made of the attitude of French trade unions towards immigrant workers.

The notes conclude with information on agricultural settlements in Russia, Mexico, and the British Dominions.

INTERNATIONAL ACTION

Emigration Questions at the Genoa Conference

The question of the employment of emigrants was considered at the Genoa Conference of 1922, which at its plenary session of 19 May 1922 unanimously passed the resolution proposed by the Economic Commission recommending, in addition to direct arrangements for unemployment insurance or relief, the systematic distribution of all the labour available by the national organisation of employment agencies and the international co-ordination, by means of agreements between the countries concerned, of such agencies (emigration and immigration).

In his closing speech Mr. Rossi, the Italian Delegate, said that "in order to secure fair and reasonable protection for emigrants, the Italian Delegation put forward a proposal to safeguard the traditional currents of emigration and the specialisation of labour". He added: "The Italian Delegation is most anxious that these principles shall be adopted, and is convinced that in future they will prevail. Italy is happy to state that her State Department for the supervision of emigration, in co-ordination with her internal organisation of employment exchanges and measures to deal with unemployment, will enable her to take a most effective part in the reasonable utilisation of labour power".

The International Convention on the Traffic in Women and Children

The second Assembly of the League of Nations asked that the 1921 Convention on the Traffic in Women and Children should remain open for signature until 31 March 1922. After that date governments could adhere, but could not be signatories. Thirty-three countries including two states not Members of the League, namely, Germany and Hungary, signed the Convention before 31 March.

A letter has been received from the Secretary of State of the United States of America regretting that owing to certain clauses of the 1910 Convention the United States could sign neither this Convention nor that of 1921. The difficulty appears to arise out of clauses encroaching on the police function of the different States of the Union, which the Federal Government would be incapable of fulfilling. The Secretary of State points out, however, that the Government of the United States is in full sympathy with the laudable purposes of the Convention, and is greatly interested in the suppression of the traffic in women and children. Moreover, to this end Federal statutes have been enacted which are within the competence of Congress.

It is interesting to note that, while there were 13 signatories to the Agreement of 1904 and the Convention of 1910, to the Convention of 1921 there are 33 original signatories (1).

⁽¹⁾ Monthly Summary of the League of Nations, March 1922. Geneva.

Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children

The first meeting of the Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children, appointed by the Council of the League of Nations in accordance with the resolution of the Conference on the Traffic in Women held in Geneva in July 1921, was convened for 28 June 1922.

The composition of this Committee was determined by the Council of the League. It consists of nine government delegates (British Empire, Denmark, France, Italy, Japan, Poland, Roumania, Spain, Uruguay, and five assessors representing respectively the International Bureau for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, international women's organisations as a whole, the International Catholic Association for the Protection of Girls, the Federation of National Unions for the Protection of Girls, and the Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls. In agreement with the Secretary-General of the League of Nations, the Director of the International Labour Office has instructed the Chief of the Emigration Service of the latter Office to attend the meetings of the Committee.

The agenda before the Committee included, among other matters, the position with respect to ratification of the Conventions of 1921 and 1910 and the Agreement of 1904 on the traffic in women and children, and the employment of women abroad through theatrical, music-hall, café-concert, and cinema agencies.

The German-Polish Treaty on Upper Silesia

The German-Polish Treaty of 15 May 1922 on Upper Silesia devotes certain sections to the question of emigration. Under Article 33, persons who, in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty, have opted for a nationality, may, within twelve months of making such option, change their residence to the territory of the state for which they have opted and are entitled to convey all their movable property free of customs duty. The practical organisation of the migration of persons who have thus opted is to be regulated, if necessary, by agreement between the two Governments.

Article 470 provides for the privileged transit of travellers, and therefore of emigrants, on the railways of Upper Silesia. Its provisions are so framed as to cover, if necessary, the transit of emigrants on other lines as well.

The Treaty stipulates that all travellers, whatever their nationality, with their baggage, may be conveyed without hindrance in these privileged transit trains. Such transit must be effected in closed trains, or closed portions of trains. The countries passed through may not demand passports, travelling permits, or any kind of identification papers from the travellers in transit. It is prohibited to leave or enter the carriage on the territory traversed, or to receive or hand over any kind of articles.

Agreement between Germany, Poland, and the Free City of Danzig

By an agreement dated 1 June 1922, concluded under the Convention of 21 April 1921 which was ratified on 27 April 1922, between Germany,

Poland and the free city of Danzig, similar transit conditions have been laid down for the Polish corridor. Privileged transit is effected in closed carriages or trains. Travellers of all nationalities are exempt from passport, and their baggage from customs, formalities. They are expressly forbidden to receive into the compartment or hand out any kind of article, nor may they leave the carriage, while passing through the country.

Treaty between Italy and Poland

The Italian and Polish Governments have concluded a Treaty which touches on various matters of interest to emigrants.

As regards the general situation of nationals of the two countries Article 1 lays down that subjects of either of the two contracting parties domiciled or temporarily resident on the territory of the other are to be entitled, with respect to their domicile and carrying on of their trade or industry, to the rights, privileges, immunities, favours, and exemptions granted to the most favoured nation.

Article 5 declares that the subjects of the contracting parties may in no case be subjected when carrying on their trade or industry in the territory of the other country to higher rates of taxation of any kind than those imposed on nationals of the country itself. They are similarly exempt from military service and the obligation to undertake compulsory official duties, whether state or municipal.

Article 16 deals more particularly with the position of emigrants and emigration undertakings. It states that the Polish Government is prepared to facilitate the journey of emigrants leaving its territory or in transit for Italian ports, and those returning to their country through these ports.

The Polish Government declares that it agrees to allow Italian steamship companies, which conform in all other respects to Polish legislation, to establish agencies in Poland for the sale of tickets, and to carry on business there for direct transport from Trieste to South American and Mediterranean ports (2).

The Italian Government, in conformity with Italian emigration law, will ensure the same protection to Polish as to Italian emigrants, whether within Italy or on board ship. Moreover, the Italian Government undertakes that every ship leaving the port of Trieste with Polish emigrants on board shall carry an interpreter approved by the Italian emigration authorities (3).

Emigration of the Yellow Races

The International Union of League of Nations Societies held its sixth Plenary Conference at Prague from 3 to 7 June 1922. Among the questions considered was the racial problem and especially the emigration of the yellow races. A report on Japanese emigration was drawn up by Mr. Hatoyama, a Chinese report by Mr. Shi-Ton-Fa, and a general report by Professor Th. Ruyssen of the University of Bordeaux. A resolution containing the following clauses on emigration was adopted by the Conference:

⁽²⁾ Efforts are at present being made by Italy for the extension of this privilege to other steamship lines.
(3) Economista d'Italia, 15 June 1922. Rome.

Every state may by virtue of its sovereignty fix limits on immigration, but justice demands that all races shall receive equal treatment and that there shall be reciprocity between states.

An immigrant once admitted to foreign territory should enjoy the same

rights as all other immigrants.

Racial differences should not in themselves justify difference of treatment between the nationals of any one state.

These conclusions may be compared with those adopted by the International Emigration Commission of the International Labour Office proposing to include on the agenda of the International Labour Conference the question of "equality of treatment, from the economic point of view, without distinction of country of origin for all immigrants legally admitted into the country of immigration".

MIGRATION MOVEMENTS

Italian Committee for Emigration Statistics

A Statistical Committee has been formed at the General Emigration Office consisting of one member of the Superior Statistical Council nominated by the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare, one delegate from the Permanent Emigration Committee, the Commissioner-General of Emigration, and the Director of the Central Statistical Office. Its duty will be to give advice on the technical preparation and execution of statistical enquiries concerning emigration (4).

Emigration from Denmark

Statistics of total oversea emigration in each of the years 1916 to 1920 inclusive are published by the Danish Department of Statistics in the Statistisk Aarbog for 1921 as follows:

Year	Men	Women	Total
Annual average 1911-15	4,440	2,618	7,058
1916	2,311	1,954	4,265
1917	900	714	1,614
1918	416	377	793
1919	2,069	1,272	3,341
1920	4,034	2,266	6,300

The age distribution of emigrants in 1920 is shown in the following table:

Ag	e	Men	Women	Total
Under 15 15-19 20-24 25-29 30-39 40-59 60 and over Age unknown		299 610 1,373 812 554 273 102 11	327 245 498 421 399 252 117 7	626 855 1,871 1,233 953 525 219
	Total	4,034	2,266	6,300

⁽⁴⁾ Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro, 15 June 1922. Rome

In the same year, of the adult emigrants (those over 15 years of age) 1,995 came from the capital (in 1919 1,666), 1,705 from provincial towns (615 in 1919), and 1,974 from rural districts (741 in 1919). Male emigrants over 15 were classified according to occupation as follows: agriculture 917; general labour and domestic service 917; industry 877; commerce 572; shipping 110; other occupations 342.

The destination of almost all the emigrants was America. Thus 3,225 men and 2,011 women left for the United States, 475 men and 105 women for Canada, and 307 men and 137 women for other American

countries, the remainder going to Australia and Africa.

Emigration from Hungary

At the meeting of the Hungarian Emigration Council on 10 June 1922 the head of the Emigration Section of the Ministry of the Interior presented the latest statistics of oversea emigration. Since 1 July 1921 6.004 persons (2.257 men, 2.965 women, and the remainder children under 10) have left Hungary, while from Budapest alone 1,757 emigrated. Of the total number of emigrants 2,891 were travelling with prepaid tickets bought in America, 3,113 bought their tickets in Hungary, and 252 had already previously been in America. For the fiscal year 1922-1923 beginning on 1 July the full number of Hungarians admissible to the United States under the present law, i.e. 5,635, has already been authorised to emigrate. Authorisations were issued first to those already in possession of their passports and tickets (3,100), then to those who had prepaid tickets or who bought tickets in Hungary, provided that they had paid a certain instalment of the fare and were in possession of their passports before 23 May 1922 (5).

Emigration and Repatriation in Poland in 1919, 1920, and 1921

No statistics have yet been published on the number of emigrant or repatriated Poles in 1919 and 1920. By taking the statistics of emigration from the port of Danzig in 1919 and 1920 as the basis a very approximate estimate may be obtained, giving the number of Polish emigrants in 1919 as 7,000 to 8,000, and in 1920 as about 70,000.

In 1921 the Polish Emigration Office issued 109,003 emigration visas. This figure does not include emigrants recruited collectively for work in France and Austria under the diplomatic agreements concluded with these two countries. The total is made up of 107,046 transatlantic emigrants, and 1,957 continental emigrants, 33,891 being men, 50,494 women, and 24,616 children under 12 years of age. The proportion of visas issued to Christian emigrants was 20.8 per cent. as compared with 79.2 per cent. to Jews. Classified according to country of destination the following figures are obtained:

United States	70,389(1)
Cuba	403`´
Mexico	37
Canada	7,524(2)
Brazil	253
Argentine	2,257

⁽⁴⁾ According to the number of visas issued by the United States Consulate at Warsaw, together with an approximate average of the number of persons provided with a saw, together with an approximate a considerable passport.

(*) Figures for Canada and the succeeding countries are based on the number of emigrants' visas granted by the Polish Emigration Office.

⁽⁵⁾ Pester Lloyd, 11 June 1922. Budapest.

Palestine	6,114
Africa	133
France	990
Great Britain	388
Belgium	145
Germany	180
Other European countries	1,040
Total	89,853

The chief ports used by emigrant and repatriated Polish nationals were Danzig, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Hamburg, Trieste, and the French ports.

There have been two distinct currents of repatriation. The first is that of Polish emigrants, the majority of whom were resident in oversea countries, particularly the United States. In 1920 the number of Poles repatriated from that country was approximately equal to the number of Polish emigrants leaving for the United States. In 1921 the former figure was well in excess of the latter (78,898 Poles repatriated from the United States). The second current of repatriation is that of Polish nationals who had been driven into the interior of Russia and the Ukraine during the war. This current, which is by far the more important of the two, is at present of considerable volume. From 1 June 1921 to 1 January 1922 the number of Polish nationals repatriated from Russia, excluding prisoners of war, was as high as 412,708. The destination of a large proportion of these persons was Eastern Poland (Byelostok 98,954; Polesia 97,982; Novogrodek 56,789) (*).

Japanese Emigration

According to Dr. Hatoyama's report to the Prague Conference of the International Union of League of Nations Societies the number of Japanese domiciled abroad was estimated at 648,915 by a census taken on 1 October 1920. The number domiciled in Asia was 342,751, in North America 135,325, in Australasia 120,894, in South America 46,947, in Europe 2,925, and in Africa 73.

Classified by sex and country (only the chief countries being shown), the figures are as follows:

Country	Men	Women	Total
China United States of America (continental area) Hawaii Brazil Canada Philippines Straits Settlements (British possessions) Peru Asiatic Russia Australia Dutch East Indies Hongkong Mexico Argentine Great Britain British India	114,841	85,899	200,740
	75,743	39,443	115,186
	64,145	48,076	112,221
	19,885	14 373	34,258
	11,886	5,830	17,716
	9,740	1,416	11,156
	7,253	3,575	10,828
	7,668	2,434	10,102
	3,823	3,205	7,028
	4,998	276	5,274
	2,883	1,608	4,436
	2,309	774	3,083
	1,925	273	2,198
	1,571	387	1,958
	1,500	138	1,638
	890	388	1,278

⁽⁶⁾ Information communicated by the Polish Government Social Attaché to the International Labour Office.

Slightly different results were obtained from another enquiry undertaken by the Japanese Ministry of Foreign Affairs at the end of June 1920, which provides the following interesting information on the occupations of Japanese residents in the United States, Hawaii and Canada:

Class of worker	United States	Hawaii	Canada
Without occupation Farmers Agricultural labourers Other manual workers Fishermen Traders Miscellaneous salaried employees Students and doctors Laundry workers Other occupations and occupation unknown	58,047 15,194 16,608 15,737 1,327 438 3,036 1,544 1,163 12,923	65,535 \3,585 22,913 5,431 998 660 3,319 — — 11,181	7,858 710 375 3,487 1,827 — — — 3,421
Total	126,017	113,622	17,678

Scientific Study of Immigration into the United States

The third session of the Conference on Immigration Policy (*) was opened in New York on 11 May, and was devoted to a consideration of the scientific aspects of the problem. Prof. Julius Drachsler, of Smith College, made a plea for the collection of reliable, systematised facts, and referred to the scientific work done in the last few years. For example, Dr. Paul H. Douglas had shown that the proportion of skilled workers in the "new" immigration is approximately the same as in the "old", although this is contrary to the popular belief on the subject. He suggested enquiries of two kinds, the first into the vitality, physical development, amalgamation, and cultural acclimatisation of the component parts of the American people, and the second into problems like selection or admission, distribution, and incorporation or assimilation. Before coming to a decision on the public policy to be pursued it was necessary to answer the fundamental question of the desirability or undesirability of ethnic fusion.

Prof. Franz Boas, of Columbia University, also stated what were, in his view, the principal problems to be considered, namely, the degree of homogeneity of the population, the hereditary characteristics of the existing lives, the influence of environment, and the influences of selection. Prof. Morris R. Cohen, of the College of the City of New York, spoke in favour of the study of environmental influences. It was not known which were the superior races and which the inferior races, or what would be the effect, if any, of transplanting races from one environment to another (*).

Migration of Mennonites to Mexico and Paraguay

In 1887 a number of Germans belonging to the sect of the Mennonites settled in Canada. Among other privileges a promise was made them

⁽⁷⁾ Cf. International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 982-983.

⁽⁸⁾ Foreign Born, June 1922. New York.

that they should be allowed to have their children educated in German schools. They were at one time among the most efficient agriculturists in Canada, and were, in fact, in a very comfortable economic position before the war. After the war they were required to send their children to English-speaking schools, and, as the petition which they sent to the Legislature had no result, they decided to leave the country (°). Their properties, which are principally in Saskatchewan and Alberta, were sold in part, apparently at very low prices, paid in cash, to United States capitalists. They attempted to settle elsewhere in North America, but in many places met with difficulties. Their attempts to buy land in Mississippi were frustrated by the American Legion. On the other hand 75 per cent. of the Saskatchewan colony intends to settle in Florida.

The Governments of Mexico and Paraguay, on the other hand, have been very willing to meet the wishes of the Mennonites. In agreement with 11 large landowners in the State of Durango, the Mexican Government has sold 176,000 acres of land to the Mennonites. According to other information the representatives of the Mennonites have also bought 200,000 acres of land in the Mexican State of Chihuahua at \$8 per acre. They have prepared plans for the erection of 20 villages, which will bear the same names as those in which the Mennonites have hitherto lived. Their religion specifically forbids them to live in large towns (10). According to information from Ottawa, 20,000 Mennonites have already set out for Mexico. They are crossing the territory of North America with all their domestic animals and utensils.

Another section of the Mennonites bought land in Paraguay, after the Government of this country had exempted them once and for all from military service and granted them special privileges (11). By an Act of 22 July 1921 the Government of Paraguay granted extensive privileges, which are of general interest. Members of the so-called Mennonite community entering the country as members of a settlement, and their descendants, are to enjoy the following rights and privileges:

- (1) Free and unrestricted exercise of their religion and their form of public worship, and consequently of the right to make declarations in courts of law by affirmation instead of by oath, and exemption from military service in peace or war in the armed or unarmed forces.
- (2) The establishment, management, and upkeep of schools and educational institutions, and instruction in their religion and in their language, which is German, without restriction.
- (3) The unrestricted management of bequests, and more especially the property of widows and orphans, by means of a special form of entail—"orphans' trustee " (Waisenamt)— in conformity with the rules of the community.
- (4) Exemption from all municipal and state rates and taxes. No emigration or other Act at present in force or subsequently passed can prohibit the immigration of Mennonites into the country on grounds of age or physical or mental incapacity.

⁽⁹⁾ Foreign Born, December 1921. New York.

⁽¹⁰⁾ La Prensa, 4 March 1922. Buenos Ayres.

⁽¹¹⁾ Nachrichtenblatt des Reichswanderungsamts, No. 10, 15 May 1922. Berlin.

Emigration and Immigration in the Argentine

The Argentine Republic has again turned its attention to the migration question, on which considerable light has been thrown by a series of recent works. Professor Alexander Bunge, Director General of Statistics, has published a book with full data on present economic problems (12), dealing especially with migration. An exhaustive enquiry into post-war migration has been conducted by the Argentine Social Museum (13) involving the consultation of 46 experts. The Argentine National Economic Conference passed resolutions on legislative requirements, and the Industrial Association (employers) (Asociación del Trabajo) is organising a congress. The results of all these activities combined throw some light on Argentine emigration and immigration.

Argentine immigration before the war may be divided into three periods: (1) from 1870 to 1891, a period of normal immigration corresponding to the country's power of absorption, with a surplus of 51,864 immigrants; (2) from 1892 to 1904, a period of shortage, the excess of immigrants being reduced to 47,788 per annum, although the power of absorption had increased; (3) from 1905 to 1913, a period of excessive immigration, the surplus of immigrants over emigrants amounting to 163,447 on the average, followed by seasonal immigration (immigracion golondrina) and increased unemployment.

During the war years 1914 to 1918 there was an average excess of emigrants over immigrants of 42,640 per annum. Before the war the population of the Argentine Republic was 7,885,237, of whom 5,527,285 were native born, and 2,357,952 were foreign born. Although the proportion of foreigners seemed high, it was not at first considered unsatisfactory, but it became disturbing when it was observed that the Argentine-born majority was largely made up of children, many of whom were the children of foreigners. Thus in 1914 the distribution of the population according to age and place of birth was as follows:

	Age		Native born		Foreign born	
			Percentage	Number	Percentage	
Under 25 Over 25		3,983,099 1,544,186	72.0 28.0	726,233 1,631,719	30.9 69.1	
	Total	5,527,285	100.0	2,357,952	100.0	

Thus the increase in population was due more to immigration than to the natural increase of births over deaths. The immigrant population was largely of Latin blood, and mainly Spanish speaking; of the total 829,701 were Spanish, 79,491 French, 929,863 Italian, and 86,428 Uruguayan. In the eyes of certain persons it was, therefore, a relief that the years of war checked immigration and tended to produce a current of emigration. During the five years of war,

⁽¹²⁾ A. E. Bunge: Los Problemas Economicas del presente. Buenos Ayres,

⁽¹³⁾ MUSEO SOCIAL ARGENTINO: La Immigracion despues de la guerra. Buenos. Ayres, 1919.

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1914 to 1918, the number of immigrants to the Argentine was 225,366, while the number of emigrants was 438,561, giving an excess of the latter of 213,195, of whom 97,584 were Italians and 95,901 Spaniards. The excess of emigrants was at first attributed to European mobilisation, but it having been observed that the proportion of Spaniards leaving the country was higher than that of subjects of the belligerent countries it was decided to examine the matter more closely. Unfortunately statistics could only be quoted for the last two years of the war, 1917 to 1918. These figures showed that the great majority of the excess of emigrants, namely 25,232 out of 43,305, were simply labourers, 6,887 were children, 8,793 women without occupation, 3,001 traders, and 9,347 persons without specified occupation, while there was a surplus of immigrants in skilled trades. This was particularly the case in agriculture, the number of immigrants being 2,663 and of emigrants only 31. Since the war the excess of immigrants has been restored.

Figures of emigration and immigration for 1915 to 1921 have been published in a previous number of the Review (14). The totals given for 1920 and 1921 only related, however, to the first half of each of those years. The following information supplements the figures already published for 1920 (15). The total number of immigrants admitted to the Argentine Republic during 1920 was 155,332, of whom 99,809 came from overseas and 55,523 by river, especially from Uruguay. This total included 58,311 Spaniards, of whom 41,872 came direct from Spain, 45,038 immigrants from Italy, 17,153 from Uruguay, 6,455 from England, and 6,341 from Germany. Agricultural workers constituted 14,912 of the male immigrants, and unskilled labourers 37,885; 2,155 of the women were domestic workers, and 40,375 had no occupation.

The number of immigrants maintained in Government hostels during 1920 at the cost of the Republic was 14,007, and 1,157 were received for medical treatment in the hospital of the General Immigration Board. There were 1,167 prosecutions for contraventions of the Immigration Act during 1920, 773 immigrants were rejected, and a total sum of 72,900 pesos was imposed in fines. During the same period the number of emigrants leaving the country was 104,731; the destination of 68,294 of these was Europe, and 36,437 left by river.

GOVERNMENT POLICY AND LEGISLATION

British Empire

The Empire Settlement Act (16) has met with a good deal of criticismfrom the National Farmers' Union of Great Britain, which has expressed a fear that the agricultural industry will be unduly and even dangerously deprived of labour. It has put forward a demandthat the Government should announce steps to safeguard Britishagricultural production and employment, so that the benefits of the Act may accrue to the surplus town population which can be trained for settlement overseas. A deputation from the Union asked the

⁽¹⁴⁾ International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 4, April 1922, p. 632.

⁽¹⁵⁾ La Emigracion Espanola, 30 March 1922. Madrid.

⁽¹⁶⁾ See International Labour Review, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 88-90...

Minister of Agriculture for an assurance that the emigration of trained British agricultural workers would not be encouraged. The Minister, however, declined to give any promise (17).

On the other hand, a number of schemes are being discussed in different parts of the Empire, in consequence of the reduction in the British army and navy. Lord Rawlinson, the Commander-in-Chief in India, has written to Mr. Hughes, Prime Minister of Australia, to the effect that two thousand young British officers in the Indian army will shortly retire and will receive from £1,000 to £1,500 per head as compensation. He asked Mr. Hughes whether they would be regarded as suitable settlers for Australia. The Commonwealth Prime Minister replied that Australia would give the officers a hearty welcome, and offered either to send a Commonwealth official to India or to pay the expenses of a visit by two officers to Australia. Lord Rawlinson has now asked that the matter be brought to the attention of the State Premiers, with a view to ascertaining what land is available and on what terms. Steps in this direction are being taken.

Efforts are also being made to help these officers in other parts of the Empire. In South Africa a scheme has been organised by the 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association. The Union Government is prepared to provide credits for the purchase of stock, etc. and advances from the Land Bank on mortgage, and to arrange for the purchase of land on deferred payments.

The Government of British Columbia has put forward a scheme for settlement in South Okanagan, and an officer of the Land Department has gone to India to explain the conditions to the officers concerned (18).

Mr. F. C. Wade, Agent-General for British Columbia in London, has made a suggestion for a scheme for assisted Empire migration, again in view of the fact that the British army and navy are being considerably reduced in size (19). The plan is that the men who are being disbanded from the army and navy, unemployed men, and others who are willing to settle overseas, but have not the means to do so, should be formed into land reserves and sent out for, say, two years, to a Dominion, during which time they would draw military rations and military pay, while continuing under military discipline. They could be set to work cutting out and grading roads, clearing farmlands, and building houses, fences, and schools. In two years every man would have found out all that it is necessary to know about felling timber, land clearing, ploughing, harrowing, farm and house building. At the outset each of them would be guaranteed a farm of 100 acres, conditional on giving the full two years' service. Part of their time would be devoted to clearing their own land, and more fand could be brought under cultivation each season. The various Dominions would be well advised to supply all the needed lands at a nominal cost. British Columbia has already reserved 200,000 acres which she is prepared to hand over to the Imperial Government at a very moderate price, every dollar of which she is willing to reinvest in improvements to benefit the settlers.

⁽¹⁷⁾ Morning Post, 1 June 1922, London; Canadian Gazette, 8 June 1922, London.

⁽¹⁸⁾ The Times, 13 May and 1 June 1922. London.

⁽¹⁹⁾ Manitoba Free Press, 27 May 1922. Winnipeg.

Australia

The Western Australian Scheme (20)

Mr. Hughes, Commonwealth Prime Minister, visited Western Australia in April, in order to see the land on which it is proposed to settle immigrants. He made a report on the matter to the Federal Cabinet, which then decided that a draft agreement should be prepared setting out what the Commonwealth and State Governments would do, and defining the particular work on which money would be spent. As soon as the terms are settled and approved by the respective Governments the agreement will be signed and will come into effect at once (21).

Sir James Mitchell, Prime Minister of Western Australia, has concluded his three months' stay in England, and left for Australia on 13 June. He stated in an interview that, with regard to his emigration proposals, everything had gone satisfactorily, and plans had been agreed upon with the Imperial Government (23).

The Western Australian Cabinet has appointed a Land Settlement Advisory Board, which is to have purely advisory functions. Its recommendations will, however, be at once translated into executive action, unless there is disagreement among the Departments concerned, in which case the Cabinet will decide. All land development operations, apart from the construction of bridges, will be the function of the Lands Department and the Board (23).

On 8 May a deputation from the State Executive Committee of the Labour Party was received by the Acting Premier, Mr. H. P. Colebatch. The deputation pointed out that there were many unemployed in Western Australia, and said that it was the duty of the Government to provide work for those already in the State before offering special facilities for those arriving from overseas. If they did not, the Labour Party would notify the people in Great Britain of the conditions in the State. Mr. Colebatch replied that the policy of the Government would combine the bringing out of money as well as of men. This would tend to decrease unemployment. He stated that during the last ten months the Agricultural Bank had advanced for clearing alone just on a quarter of a million pounds, together with £100,000 for fencing, buildings, water supplies, and other works. Under the Mitchell scheme, the new farmers would clear their own farms The land was already in sight for the first year's quota (24).

Queensland

On 6 April a deputation from the New Settlers' League waited on Mr. Theodore, Prime Minister of Queensland, with a view to cooperating with the Government in assisting settlers. The Prime

⁽²⁰⁾ See International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, p. 810.

⁽²¹⁾ West Australian, 29 Apr. 1922. Perth, Western Australia.

⁽²²⁾ Morning Post, 14 June 1922. London.

⁽²³⁾ West Australian, 4 May 1922. Perth, Western Australia.

⁽²⁴⁾ Ibid. 9 May 1922.

Minister outlined his immigration policy in the course of his reply. He is opposed to increasing the facilities for nomination. Immigration must be curtailed at present, because there are so many persons in the State unemployed and unable to get on the land. When the requirements of residents have been satisfied by the rapid development of the land settlement policy, it will be possible to look for immigrants. If Queensland is able to proceed with land settlement in the Burnett, Dawson Valley, areas for cotton in the Central district, and irrigation on the Lower Condamine, that would mean the introduction of additional population to provide for the requirements of the State. Mr. Theodore objects to the policy of the Commonwealth in limiting its assistance to the settling of oversea immigrants (25).

Victoria

In an address at Melbourne on 26 April at the annual conference of the Victorian Division of the New Settlers' League, the Premier, Mr. Lawson, summarised the activities of the Victorian State Government regarding immigration. He stated that the record of Victoria in regard to land settlement was better than was generally supposed, and asked for the co-operation of the great industrial unions in promoting a steady flow of suitable immigrants. The last report of the State Beverage and Water Supply Commission showed that 1,700 soldiers and 439 other settlers had been placed on irrigated farms, an estimated population of 12,556 persons in all. In one area the population is now 15,000, where formerly there were only 10 families. Up to 30 November last 8,461 soldiers had been settled in the State, of whom only slightly over 2 per cent. had given up their holdings. The State Government was endeavouring to do its part in regard to immigration through its Agent-General in London, and asked the co-operation of every citizen of the State (26).

Canada

On 8 May the House of Commons discussed a resolution, introduced by one of the members for British Columbia, demanding that the Government take immediate action to exclude Oriental immigration from the Dominion. The British Columbia representatives stated that the admission of Orientals was seriously menacing the future of the Province, and likely to affect conditions on the prairies if not stopped. Another argument brought forward by the supporters of the resolution was derived from the non-assimilable character of the Orientals.

The Prime Minister opposed the motion, and in the course of his speech said that the Japanese Government had exerted every effort to live up to the existing agreement. The question was one for cooperation and goodwill between the Governments of the two countries. He also announced that negotiations were in progress with China for the regulation of Chinese immigration by a system of passports which he believed would keep this class of immigration within bounds.

⁽²⁵⁾ Daily Standard, 7 Apr. 1922. Brisbane.

⁽²⁶⁾ Melbourne Argus, 27 Apr. 1922. Melbourne.

An amendment to the resolution, moved by the Minister of the Interior, in favour of "effective restriction" of Oriental immigration was carried (27).

On 23 May the Minister of the Interior made a statement in the House of Commons on the Government's policy. Speaking of Oriental immigration, he said he was attempting to find a solution to meet the wishes of members, expressed during the debate on 8 May, for the maintenance of as large a white population as possible in British Columbia.

The Minister referred to the encouragement of child immigration to Canada. Last year 1,500 children were brought in while there were applications for 15,000. Efforts were also being made to secure for Canada a fair percentage of agriculturists, farm labourers, and household servants from Great Britain, the Scandinavian countries, and to a certain extent from the Continent of Europe. The Scandinavian and Icelandic Governments were now looking with greater favour on emigration, the Dutch Government were co-operating in the promotion of emigration, and it was hoped to obtain settlers from Poland. The Government also hoped to secure immigration from the United States, and to induce a number of Canadians to return to their homeland. The Government anticipated that by the establishment of agents in Europe and a more rigid inspection of immigrants before they left home they would be able to avoid some of the unfortunate incidents that have occurred in consequence of rejection on arrival. By allowing passports to be visaed by these agents they hoped to ensure that, when intending immigrants sold up their homes on the other side and embarked for Canada, there would be the least possible difficulty in their passing the test at the Canadian port of entry (28).

Dr. Alfred Sze, Chinese Minister to the United States, who visited Canada in June, stated in a speech at Ottawa that the leaders in China had no desire to encourage the emigration of Chinese labourers, as full employment could be found for them at home (29).

The Western Canada Colonisation Association has made certain proposals, which are stated to have received the approval of the Minister of the Interior, the Cabinet, and the Immigration Committee of Parliament. The plan is the settlement, at a cost of approximately \$30,000,000, of ten million acres of idle land close to railways in the three prairie Provinces, and vacant areas in the other provinces. It is proposed to form a national organisation which shall bring into the country none but experienced agriculturists and agricultural labourers from Great Britain, the United States, and other approved countries (30).

A Bill has been introduced into the House of Commons by Mr. A. W. Neill, an Independent member, providing that immigrants must apply for entrance to Canada to the Department of Immigration before leaving their country of origin. This would prevent great hardship to immigrants, who are frequently excluded at the port of arrival.

⁽²⁷⁾ Times, Morning Post, and Manitoba Free Press, 10 May 1922. London and Winnipeg.

⁽²⁸⁾ Montreal Gazette, 24 May 1922. Montreal.

⁽²⁹⁾ Manchester Guardian, 12 June 1922. Manchester.

⁽so) Canada, 3 June 1922. London. Two représentatives of the Association have since been to London to consult with the Oversea Settlement Committee.

Mr. Neill is also of opinion that his Bill would solve the problem of Oriental immigration, as it would enable Canada to exclude Orientals if she should wish to do so (*1).

Indians and British Guiana

Reference has already been made in these Notes (32) to the stepswhich have been taken to make possible a resumption of Indian emigration to British Guiana. The deputation which was sent to that colony by the Indian Government arrived there early in February. The British Guiana East Indian Association presented the deputation with an address, in which it was stated that the rice industry, which afforded employment to the majority of the Indians in the colony, had suffered severely through lack of a proper system of drainage and irrigation. They said that in order to ensure a sound scheme of . Indian colonisation the land should be prepared so as to remedy these defects, that provision should be made for housing accommodation, medical and sanitary requirements, transport facilities, a pure drinking water supply, money grants, and other facilities. Conditions approximating to those obtaining under the Canadian and Australian methods of colonisation would ensure the success of any settlement scheme adopted.

The Governor, in his speech of welcome, said that there was room in the colony for the settlement not merely of people working as employees of others, but of people working for themselves. The area of the colony was as big as that of England and Scotland put together, and there was room for twenty million persons (33).

The Indian Emigration Act

The new Act (34) passed by the Indian legislature has two main objects. Indentured emigration has been prohibited since 1917 by a Rule under the Defence of India Act, but this Act will shortly expire. The first object of the new Act is, therefore, to make this prohibition permanent. The second is to provide machinery for the future control of emigration. The general underlying principle is the framing of safeguards for the help and protection of would-be emigrants in India and in the land of their adoption.

The Act of 1908 is repealed and the new measure substituted for it. Emigration is defined as the departure by sea out of British India of any person who departs under an agreement to work for hire in any country beyond the limits of India, or who is assisted to depart, otherwise than by a relative, for the purpose of working for hire or engaging in agriculture in any country beyond the limits of India. Persons who emigrate freely, without assistance and without any agreement, are therefore excluded from the definition and are not affected by the Act. The definition also excludes any person going to a country where he has resided for not less than five years, or the wife or child of such person, and the wife or child of a man who has lawfully emigrated if they are going to join him.

⁽³¹⁾ Gazette, 30 May 1922. Montreal.

 ⁽³²⁾ See International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 319.
 (33) Daily Argosy, British Guiana, quoted in the Allahabad Leader, 13 Apr. 1922.

⁽³⁴⁾ Information obtained from official documents.

Power is given to the Local Governments to appoint Protectors of Emigrants, whose duties are to protect and aid all emigrants, to inspect vessels bringing returned emigrants, to enquire into the treatment received by returned emigrants both abroad and during the voyage, to aid and advise returned emigrants, etc. The Local Government may appoint an Advisory Committee to assist a Protector of Emigrants. There is also an important clause which gives the Governor-General in Council power to appoint agents in foreign countries in order to safeguard the interests of Indian emigrants to those countries. This power can, of course, only be exercised with the permission of each government concerned.

A distinction is drawn between emigration of skilled and unskilled workers. The latter is permitted only to such countries and on such terms and conditions as the Governor-General in Council may specify, with the approval of both Chambers of the Indian Legislature. This will enable the Legislature, as stated by Sir George Barnes in introducing the Bill, to refuse approval to any scheme of emigration of unskilled workers to any country where Indians do not enjoy the same political rights as other British subjects. In the case of countries to which this does not apply, the Government's policy is to encourage emigration. The Governor-General has, however, the power to suspend the emigration of unskilled workers to any country, for reasons which must be stated in the notification.

A different system is laid down for skilled workers, who are generally speaking better able to look after themselves. Conditions are therefore prescribed for those who engage or assist skilled workers to emigrate. They must give particulars as to the numbers of emigrants, the place to which they are going, the accommodation to be provided, the provision to be made for the health and well-being of the emigrants, the terms of the agreement, and the security to be furnished for the due observance of such agreement. The Governor-General in Council may prohibit the emigration of skilled workers to any country, if he believes that sufficient grounds exist for such action.

The Governor-General in Council has power to make rules which may deal, among other matters, with the licensing, supervision, and control of recruiting agents, the information to be supplied by such agents, places of accommodation and medical care for emigrants, the minimum age of non-dependent emigrants, the compulsory measures that must be adopted on emigrant ships, and, generally, the security, well-being, and protection of emigrants before departure and on their return to India. Penalties are provided for unlawful emigration or inducement to emigrate, but any prosecution of this kind must be sanctioned by a Protector of Emigrants or a District Magistrate.

The Act refers to emigration to all countries, the exception previously made for Ceylon and the Straits Settlements being continued only for twelve months from the date of the coming into force of the Act.

Reference may be made to the more important amendments brought forward and rejected in the Legislative Assembly. One amendment included a clause making it clear that emigration for the purpose of unskilled work to countries which do not grant to Indians the same political rights as to other British subjects would be prohibited. It was pointed out in reply that the Governor-General was given power to prohibit such emigration to any particular country. A further proposal was made to the effect that an application for authority to

engage or assist persons to emigrate for the purpose of skilled work should satisfy the Government regarding the payment of wages to the emigrant, his safety, the hours of work, the kind of work, accommodation and sanitary arrangements, etc. The Government replied that in the case of some of these matters the Government of India could not make rules, and that in other cases it was desirable to leave the question in the hands of the Local Government.

Mr. N. M. Joshi, representing labour interests, sought to limit the application of the Act to five years, on the ground that restriction of emigration was wrong in principle, and that the conditions, mainly political, which made it desirable at present were temporary.

Emigration Policy in Italy

It appears that for some time there has been a current of clandestine emigration from Italy, particularly towards France, either direct, or through Belgium, Switzerland, and Luxemburg. An account has previously been given (35) of the conditions which must be fulfilled by Italian workers emigrating to France who, in order to obtain a passport, must produce a labour agreement or a summons from an employer duly countersigned by the authorities. In order to evade the obligation to produce such papers, several Italian workers have applied for passports for Switzerland, or else, owing to the difficulty of entering that country, for Belgium and Luxemburg, for which countries there is no compulsion to possess a labour contract, so that they may ultimately reach France by the northern and less guarded frontier.

The General Emigration Office has collected statistics of the workers who have thus reached France via other countries on passports with visas for Belgium and Luxemburg, without previously providing themselves with a labour agreement (36). The total number of persons leaving between 1 February and 30 April 1922 by the stations of Come-Chiasso, Ponte-Chiasso, Domodossola, Iselle, and Luino alone was 12,035. Some persons crossed the mountains in order to escape all control. The Emigration Office has frequently drawn attention to the advantages of possessing a regular labour contract duly inspected by the authorities, and to the risks involved by this irregular method of leaving the country. In view of the size of the movement, it has now decided to take active steps. Mention has already been made of the restrictions introduced on Italian emigration to Belgium. recent Circular of the Office states that a large number of emigrants have lately applied for passports to Luxemburg, and that it is obvious they do not intend to settle in the Grand Duchy, but to go from there to some other country. Therefore passports for Luxemburg will in future only be issued to persons in possession of a regular contract, or who have been duly summoned by a Luxemburg employer, and received papers with the visa of the Italian Consul in the Grand Duchy, and of the Italian General Emigration Office (37).

Portuguese Decree on Emigration

The Lisbon press of 27 May publishes the text of a Decree signed by the President of the Portuguese Republic. The chief purpose of

⁽³⁵⁾ International Labour Review, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 82 and 83. (36) Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro, 7 June 1922. Rome.

⁽³⁷⁾ Societa Umanitaria: Corrispondenza settimanale, 18 May 1922. Rome.

the Decree is to define the conditions to be fulfilled by emigrants before leaving the country. According to the Decree, a Portuguese worker may only leave for a European country or colony of a European country if he can prove to the competent Portuguese authorities that work has been secured for him in the country to which he is going. Such proof must consist of a declaration signed by the employer for whom he intends to work abroad. This document must be countersigned by the Portuguese Consul-General in the district of destination, and must give explicit information on all useful points, particularly in connection with the wages guaranteed to the worker and other conditions of labour. The Portuguese General Emigration Department is instructed to supervise the observation of the Decree.

Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom

The Emigration Act of 30 December 1921, published in the Official Gazette of 21 February 1922 and brought into operation the same day, supersedes in the different countries of the Kingdom all previous Orders, including those of 21 May 1921 and 12 May 1920, as well as former Austrian and Hungarian Orders.

The administration of emigration is entrusted to the Ministry for Social Affairs, under which an Emigration Section is established instructed to draw up an annual report on emigration questions. Emigration commissioners are appointed in all national ports, and a representative of the Emigration Section is to be attached to the diplomatic and consular services of all countries to which emigration attains substantial proportions.

On principle emigration is free, but it may be suspended by the Minister for a certain time in any given direction, if the interest of the country so demands. In order to emigrate an emigrant must be provided with a passport, and must embark at a national port. Passports are not issued unless an emigrant can prove that he has fulfilled his military and fiscal obligations, satisfies the conditions required by the country of destination, and has reached the age of 18 years. If he is not 18, he may only leave in company with his parent or guardian, or the accredited representative of such persons. He must also prove that no criminal action is pending against him.

Shipping companies who intend to transport emigrants must obtain a permit from the Ministerial Council, and comply with all the provisions of the Act. They must pay a deposit of 500,000 dinars as security for the execution of their obligations, both towards the emigrant and the state. They must, moreover, pay a fee for each emigrant embarked, and allow the Minister unlimited right to supervise their operations. Companies may not employ agents or carry on the business of money-changing, or make any propaganda for emigration. They are completely responsible for all acts of their representatives.

Emigrant and immigrant transport may only be effected on vessels embarking and disembarking at national ports, and under the conditions laid down by the maritime authorities. Contracts and agreements must be approved by the Minister. Payment must be effected in Serbian currency. All ships transporting over fifty emigrants must carry a representative of the Ministry, whose duty it is to supervise and control the sanitary accommodation and the carrying out of laws and regulations. The company must undertake to repatriate gratis all emigrants who are rejected on arrival, and to

supply the Government with fifteen free tickets for the return journey of poor emigrants approved by the authorities. The company or its authorised representative must draw up a contract in duplicate written in the Serb, Croat, or Slovene languages. If the point of departure is within the country, all cost of transport, board, lodging, medical aid, and the conveyance of luggage must be undertaken by the company until the time of embarkation. Provision is also made for compensating the emigrant in the event of breach of contract or delay in its execution.

An Emigration Fund is established which is to consist of the revenue from fees imposed under the Act and regulations. Emigrants returning to the country may also be required to pay a duty for the benefit of the Fund. The latter is to be used to meet the cost of the emigration service, grants and subsidies to emigrants' organisations, grants to poor emigrants, the erection of emigration institutes, and in general for all purposes of value to emigrants.

Polish Emigration Bill

The Polish Emigration Office has drafted an Emigration Bill to be submitted shortly to the National Emigration Council before its introduction to Government and Parliament.

The underlying principles of the Bill are as follows:

- (1) All persons are considered as emigrants who leave the country to take up a gainful manual occupation, or carry on a small business abroad, as well as all relatives and friends accompanying such persons or leaving for the purpose of joining them, as also all persons travelling third class or steerage, whatever the purpose of their journey.
- (2) Foreign emigrants passing through Poland are entitled to all privileges granted by Polish law; they may also obtain relief from the Polish state under international Conventions.
- (3) The emigration of minors of 18 years of age or under, even when authorised by their parents, must be approved by the Emigration Office. Persons encouraging the emigration of minors who have not obtained such approval are liable to double the penalties established under the Act of 21 October 1921 on private employment exchanges.
- (4) Emigration is prohibited in the case of all persons who fail to satisfy the conditions of admission imposed by law in the country of destination. Shipping companies are responsible for the transport of such emigrants in accordance with the terms of their licenses.
- (5) The Minister of Labour, in agreement with the Ministers of Foreign Affairs and the Interior, and on the proposal of the Director of the Emigration Office, may prohibit the emigration towards certain countries of given classes of emigrants for a defined period.
- (6) All state action relating to emigration, re-emigration, immigration, and relief of emigrants, is directed and co-ordinated by the Emigration Office at the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare. The Director of the Emigration Office is appointed by the President of the Republic on the nomination of the Minister of Labour in agreement with the Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Finance. The organs of the Emigration Office are emigration bureaux established in the chief

frontier stations and at all important points of assembly within the country, state employment exchanges in other districts, the Emigration Inspector at the Port of Danzig, and emigration attaches serving with the diplomatic and consular agents of the Republic in the principal immigration centres abroad, who are appointed by the Minister of Foreign Affairs on the nomination of the Minister of Labour.

- (7) Attached to the Emigration Office is the Emigration Council (38), which is to advise on all Bills and international Conventions concerning emigration, and on all important action taken by the Emigration Office.
- (8) The costs of maintaining the Emigration Office and its organs, and of relieving emigrants, are to be met out of an Emigration Fund derived from the revenue of various taxes (authorities for visas, charges for the medical care provided by the Emigration Office, licences to shipping companies, capitation fees for all Polish workers engaged by foreign employers, etc.) and the proceeds of fines imposed for contraventions of the provisions of the Emigration Act. The Emigration Fund is to be placed under the permanent control of a special committee.

United States

Immigration.

On 29 May Mr. E. J. Henning, United States Assistant Secretary of Labour, speaking at a luncheon given by the Cunard Company, said that, with a view to preventing the separation of families, the Government were as far as possible excluding husbands who had left their families on the other side. Moreover, they did not want immigrants who came with no intention of becoming citizens, but returned after having saved the largest possible percentage of their earnings. They expected through the co-operation of other nations to perform the work of segregating at European ports people who could come to the United States from those who could not. That would be the biggest step ever taken in handling immigration.

In an address before the United States Chamber of Commerce Convention on 17 May 1922 the Commissioner-General of Immigration claimed that the Three per Cent. Act had accomplished two things, namely restricted immigration to a figure far below the normal prewar movement, and more than doubled the proportion of immigrants coming from northern and western Europe. Otherwise it had hardly contributed towards a constructive immigration policy. Of the immigrants admissible from northern and western Europe, only 37 per cent. arrived during the first nine months, but the Commissioner-General thought this proportion would be increased as soon as there was a renewed demand for labour in America. This would make possible an immigration policy based on qualitative selection, which contribute to the upbuilding rather than to the possible undermining of American citizenship, ideals, and institutions. A considerably larger proportion of the immigrants during the present fiscal year had gone to the agricultural States than was the case in previous years.

⁽³⁸⁾ The Polish National Emigration Council is already in existence. It was established by a Decree of the Ministerial Council of 9 June 1921. See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 500.

Passports and Visas.

There is a movement at present in favour of the reduction of passport and visa fees in the United States. It was one of the questions discussed at the United States Chamber of Commerce Convention from 16 to 18 May, when a resolution was put forward calling on the Government to reduce these fees to a reasonable level and to enter into agreements with foreign governments for the mutual discontinuance of passport visas and, where conditions warrant, the complete discontinuance of passport requirements. A Bill has now been introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. Mills to reduce the fee for passport visas by American consuls from \$10 to \$2.

A Bill (H. R. 11562) has been introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. McClintic to amend the Act of 1917. It provides for a tax of \$25 on every alien, including seamen, entering the United States, with the exception of children under 16 accompanying their mother or father. The tax is to be paid by the shipping company or transport agent, but will not to be levied on aliens who have resided for at least one year in Canada, Newfoundland, Cuba, or Mexico. No alien is to be admitted to the United States unless he has in his possession at least \$100. There are also clauses dealing with manifests (39).

Naturalisation.

It may be recalled that Mr. Johnson, chairman of the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalisation, introduced Bills on 21 April and 1 November 1921 dealing with naturalisation, and on 1 February 1922 he stated that Congress would probably take up this question after the Three per Cent. Act had been extended (40). On 11 March, Mr. Johnson presented a third Bill (H. R. 10860), which puts his proposals in more clearly arranged form, and in the Congressional Digest he gives a summary of the measure (41). Its main features are as follows: each resident alien must register annually and pay a fee of \$5; money collected as fees will be used as a citizenship instruction fund under the control of the Secretary of Labour; witnesses will no longer be required at naturalisation hearings; independent naturalisation of married women, and the retention of American citizenship by resident American women who marry foreigners, is authorised.

In October and November 1921, when the earlier Bill was under discussion, Mr. J. J. Davis, Secretary of Labour, made a statement on the subject before the House Committee on Immigration and Naturalisation. Mr. Davis, who is himself a naturalised alien, strongly advocated compulsory registration of aliens, and believed that aliens should report at least every three months. By this method it would be possible to relieve all those aliens who are now taken advantage of, by "boss aliens", for example. He suggested payment of a fee of \$25, so that the alien could be sent to a public school and be taught something about America and about the Constitution of the United States. When the alien made his final application for naturalisation, the examiner would know what progress he has made.

⁽³⁹⁾ Foreign Born, June 1922. New York.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 117, and No. 4, April 1922, p. 643.

⁽⁴¹⁾ Quoted in Foreign Born, May 1922. New York.

Alien Land Act.

The California State Supreme Court has given a decision which declares unconstitutional that portion of the California Alien Land Act which forbids aliens ineligible for citizenship to act as trustees of the agricultural lands of their American-born children. The case in point was that of a Japanese who had bought land in the name of his son, and it was contended by the supporters of the Act that the exercise of this right imperils the future control of the agricultural resources of the State by Americans of the white race.

Shipping Policy

It is reported that the clause in the United States Ship Subsidy Bill stipulating that one-half of all immigrants must be transported in United States vessels has been defeated in the Committee of the House (*2). It is also stated that an amendment has been passed giving the President power either to negotiate with the countries concerned on the subject of the existing treaties of commerce, or to denounce these treaties, which are at present a hindrance to the establishement of the proposed partial monopoly of immigrant traffic (*3). Retaliation was feared, and an article in the Nautical Gazette (*4) points out that this might take one of the following forms:— other nations might require all their emigrants to sail on their own vessels (it is stated that this has already been done by Italy); they might refuse to grant licenses to American ships; the deposits required of American ships might be made prohibitive; or passport visas might be refused for American commercial travellers.

Mr. C. Hipwood, Assistant Secretary in charge of the Mercantile Marine Department of the British Board of Trade, spoke recently, in the course of a lecture, of two strong tendencies in shipping at present—the one international and the other national. In the former direction he instanced the gradual application of uniform standards to all ships, irrespective of flag. The "national" tendency is seen in the attempt of the maritime nations to strengthen their own mercantile marine (45).

The *Economist*, in commenting on the above lecture from the point of view of emigration, draws attention to measures adopted or under consideration in Italy, Germany, Jugo-Slavia, Poland, the United States, and the South American countries (46), and fears that British

⁽⁴²⁾ Journal de la Marine marchande, 15 June 1922. Paris.

⁽⁴²⁾ Le Notizie sull' Emigrazione e sul Lavoro, 13 June 1922. Rome.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Quoted in Foreign Born, May 1922. New York.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ Board of Trade Journal, 2 March 1922. London.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ Reference to the shipping policy of Italy, Jugo-Slavia, Poland, and the United States is made in the International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 309 (Italy): Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 97 (United States); and in the present issue (Jugo-Slavia and Poland). Germany, according to the Economist, is seeking to regain the position it held before the war, when there were control stations on the eastern frontier which diverted the stream of emigrants to German shipping lines. This is stated to be contrary to the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles.

lines will be squeezed out of the emigrant traffic between Continental Europe and America. The solution would be simplified if all the British stood solidly together. In existing circumstances, counter measures should be taken by the British Government in support of "the most vital of all British industries" (47). It may be noted that in Great Britain, during the discussion on the Empire Settlement Act, the Government stated that it would be their policy to use British ships wherever they were available.

Mexico

The Mexican Government has announced that the emigration of labourers to the United States will be restricted. Money has been voted for the employment on the construction of roads and other public works of men who would otherwise migrate. An Office for the protection of emigrants similar to those of Italy and Poland has been added to the Department of the Interior (48).

Re-admission of Germans to South and South-West Africa

The Government of the Union of South Africa has decided to remove the stipulation that the admission of Germans who had been repatriated at the expense of the Union should be conditional upon the refund of the expenses of repatriation. The removal of this restriction does not as yet apply to South-West Africa. The re-admission of German subjects to the Union is governed by the Immigrants Regulation Act, and the final decision on re-admission in each individual case rests with the Minister of the Interior. When application for re-admission is made to the High Commissioner of the Union of South Africa in London, the applicant must show that he either has already found a post in South Africa, or is in possession of sufficient means to maintain himself for at least one year (49).

WELFARE AND PROTECTION WORK

Official Organisations

Assistance to Russian Refugees

In previous numbers of the Review information has been given regarding the efforts of the High Commissioner on behalf of the Russian refugees to find a solution for the terrible problem presented by their utter destitution and lack of employment (50).

The Advisory Committee of Voluntary Organisations for the Assistance of Russian Refugees, at its meeting on 30 May 1922, adopted the following resolution, which was moved by Mr. Lucien Wolf of the Jewish Colonisation Association:

The Advisory Committee of the High Commissariat for Russian Refugees, representing the chief voluntary societies collaborating in Russian relief, notes with deep disappointment the failure of the efforts made to obtain admission

⁽⁴⁷⁾ The Bconomist, 8 and 15 April 1922. London.

⁽⁴⁸⁾ Foreign Born, May 1922. New York. (49) Nachrichtenblatt des Reichswanderungsamts, No. 11, 1 June 1922. Berlin. (50) International Labour Review, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 100-102.

for a larger number of Russian refugees into great countries of immigration overseas. This failure threatens to compromise scriously and radically the work of the High Commissariat, and to aggravate the terrible problem of alleviating the sufferings of these refugees. In these circumstances the Commistee appeals to public opinion in the great oversea countries, and asks them to come to the help of Europe in dealing with the question of refugees. Europe has already made great sacrifices by absorbing in her own labour markets, themselves glutted and depressed, hundreds of thousands of these refugees, and by spending large sums for the maintenance of the Russians who have fled in great numbers, especially to the small states bordering on Russia. The great countries of immigration are urgently requested to take their share in these sacrifices by relaxing their restrictions on immigration, so as to allow a large body of these refugees, whose numbers, trades and other qualifications could be determined by mutual agreement, to enter them.

Repatriation of Poles from Russia

The number of Polish subjects repatriated from Russia is, as has already been pointed out, very large (51), and the Polish Government has instructed the Emigration Office to take charge of this repatriation. In the second half of 1921 this office used sanitary and disinfecting trains and set up receiving centres, and during this period the cost of repatriation amounted to 1,524,000 Polish marks. In the various centres where they arrived the repatriated Poles received food, baths and medical attention at the cost of the state. They were vaccinated and in some cases given clothing. On leaving the receiving centres they were sent to their homes at the expense of the Polish Government.

The Canadian Council of Immigration of Women

The Canadian Council of Immigration of Women met in Ottawa from 22 to 24 March with representatives from six Provinces and fourteen national organisations, including the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada. The Minister of the Interior said that, in the event of the Federal Government handing over the natural resources to the Provinces, immigration would become more of a provincial question, and it was proposed that each Provincial Government should appoint two special immigration officers, one man and one woman, who should be called together at frequent periods in a Dominion Conference. In view of this announcement, and the fact that the work for which the Council was established has been accomplished, a resolution was passed to the effect that, as soon as the Minister calls into action this other body, further meetings of the Council are considered to be unnecessary, unless the Minister desires it to meet.

Other resolutions adopted and presented to the Minister included the following:

Endorsement of the Minister's declaration for the continuation of the present restrictions and agreeing that the quality rather than the quantity of immigration should be the first consideration.

That as far as possible immigrants should undergo a medical and mental examination before embarkation.

That a medical officer with psychiatric training be retained upon the staff of the London office.

⁽⁵¹⁾ See above, p. 247.

That care should be taken to see that the caterer at ports shall supply food of good quality and at moderate prices, with sanitary service and conditions. No charge to be made for infants in detention except for actual food purchased.

That a woman be included on all Boards of Enquiry dealing with unac-

companied women, to be present at all examinations.

That the Council approves of the present head tax and recommends stringent

enforcement of the Act.

That in view of the need of a continued restrictive and selective immigration policy, the Council urges the Department not to delegate to any non-governmental body its rights of selection and admission; and that no grants be made to any such body for the purpose of inducing immigration.

That the Council endorses the present policy of the Women's Division in appointing women officers in Canada and overseas; and declares its appreciation of the work of the hostels and of the co-operation of the Red Cross at the ports.

That a survey of the employments for women be undertaken by the Provincial Governments to the end that better information may be placed at the disposal of intending women immigrants (52).

Private Organisations

Protection of Women Emigrants and Travellers

In preparation for the first meeting of the Permanent Advisory Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children, three great international associations for the protection of women have each prepared a report on their work which is of considerable interest from the point of view of the protection of women emigrants (53). The Federation of National Unions for the Protection of Girls has, since its reconstitution in 1921, consisted of seven national associations, in the 'Netherlands, France, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, Denmark, and Belgium, and three groups, in Great Britain, Egypt, and Norway; it has correspondents in 16 other countries, and a total membership of about 16,000. Before the war it had 518 hostels accommodating about 270,000 girls per year, managed 118 employment exchanges, and provided representatives at 125 railway stations who assisted 50,000 girls every year.

The Jewish Association for the Protection of Girls, in addition to its central office, manages a large number of hostels and local committees in France, Belgium, Germany, Scandinavia, Poland, the United

States, the Netherlands, Hungary, and elsewhere.

The International Catholic Association for the Protection of Girls has its headquarters at Fribourg (Switzerland), controlling 17 national committees in Argentine, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Luxemburg, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Spain, and Switzerland. Associations have also been founded in Austria, Czechoslovakia, Norway, and Roumania. The principal centres of the Association in Africa are in Egypt (Cairo, Alexandria, and Port Said), Algeria, and Tunis, while it has many agencies and offices in North, Central, and South America and in Australia and Asia (Syria, Turkey, Japan, China, and India).

⁽⁵²⁾ Labour Gazette (Canada), May 1922. Ottawa.

⁽⁵³⁾ Cf. League of Nations: Consultative Commission on the Traffic in Women and Children, First Session, preparatory documents, G. 365, M. 216, 1922, IV, C. T. F. E. 80. Geneva, 1 June 1922.

All these three associations were founded primarily to fight the white slave traffic and to help and protect women and girls, especially when travelling or abroad. Their methods include the maintenance of hostels at very low charges and free employment exchanges, and the employment of representatives at railway stations to meet women or girls travelling alone, find them accommodation, and give them advice or other assistance. The Jewish association, in addition, cooperates through its head office with governments, the police, and the steamship companies to assist Jewish women emigrants and to conduct enquiries abroad. It will also, if requested, make enquiries in advance regarding the reputability of any post or person to which a Jewish woman is travelling. Since the war it has largely concentrated its energies on the Jewish communities in central and eastern Europe, where the congestion of destitute refugees led to fears of a recrudescence of the white slave traffic as soon as restrictions on migration were relaxed. Its report states that an international Jewish conference is to be held shortly in order to co-ordinate work for the protection of women and children emigrants at frontier stations and on board ship as well as at ports. The report of the Catholic association notes an increase in the white slave traffic in European countries with a depreciated exchange, especially in Germany.

In addition to these reports mention may be made of a report issued by the International Bureau for the Suppression of the White Slave Traffic, which traces the history of this movement. During the past year the Office has resumed the relations which were interrupted by the war with the national committees in central Europe, and has endeavoured to organise national committees in Poland, Czechoslovakia, and Greece. The Committees set up in the United States have amalgamated with the Association for Moral and Social Hygiene, and a committee has been formed in the Free City of Danzig.

The Young Women's Christian Association

An interesting report has been submitted to the World's Committee of the Y.W.C.A. by the International Migration Service of that organisation, summarising the work accomplished. During the past year much has been done in the way of organising migration work various countries, distributing educational information. establishing connections with Governments and other international organisations. Reference is made to the fact that two Y.W.C.A. representatives were present during the meetings of the International Emigration Commission in Geneva in August 1921, and of the International Conference on the Traffic in Women and Children in July 1921. Migration work is now being done in Belgium, the Near East, Denmark, South America, England, France, Czechoslovakia, Poland, United States, Canada, and Japan, and there are also correspondents in Hungary, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, Sweden, and Germany. In Japan there are institutions for migrants in Kobe and Yokohama, to which intending migrants have to report before they can obtain a passport and transportation. This work is subsidised by the Government. In conclusion it is stated that service for migrants that is not international in machinery and principle is only a duplication of well-done work of other national organisations; any effective international work must centre round some central co-ordinating body.

Dr. Barnardo's Homes

At the annual meeting of Dr. Barnardo's Homes it was announced that in 1921 506 boys and girls were sent to Canada, and a pioneer party of 47 boys to Sydney.

The Bonomelli Association

The Opera Bonomelli, the great Catholic association for the protection of Italian emigrants, has just published its report and accounts for 1921 (54). Its receipts amounted to 745,297.14 lire as 599,715.04 lire in 1920. Government subsidies accounted for 183,000 lire of this amount, and those of communes and provinces for 6,050 lire. The expenditure is classified under two main heads: maintenance of emigration offices (458,128.34 lire) and of the hostels established at Bergamo, Bologna, Chiasso, Domodossola, Milan, and Ventimiglia (202,086.25 lire). During the year the association has been mainly occupied in improving its internal organisation, and has set up offices and hostels in the Trentino, which it wishes to organise in the same way as the rest of Italy. A large number of circulating libraries, schools, and classes have also been established. The children's sections are particularly active. The association is beginning to re-open its offices in Germany, notably in Berlin. Offices have also been set up at Rheims and Cherbourg, but the largest number (about 70) is still in Switzerland. All these institutions are under the patronage of a Bishop and supervised by inspectors, who were first appointed in 1921. The publications of the association comprise La Patria, a weekly journal, and the monthly bulletin, the Opera Bonomelli.

Jewish Migrants through Lithuania

As a result of an agreement between the Lithuanian Government and the various Jewish associations (55) a central Jewish Emigration Committee has been founded to carry out the programme of assistance to Jewish refugees from Russia which was offered by these associations. The Committee has undertaken the construction of buildings on the frontier between Lithuania and Latvia to house Jewish emigrants crossing Lithuania, and has organised medical inspection by a staff engaged by the committee. The Jewish organisations in Lithuania co-operate with the Committee, which expects to have its buildings completed at the beginning of July. The large number of Jewish repatriated emigrants returning to Lithuania and their poverty are also the subject of consideration by these organisations (56).

Trade Unions and Foreign Workers in France

At the meeting of the International Trade Union Congress at Rome on Wednesday, 26 April, Mr. Jouhaux, the French delegate, drew

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Opera Bonomelli, 15 June 1922. Milan.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 315.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Bulletin of the Executive Committee of the Jewish World Conference, No. 4, 17 May 1922. Paris.

attention to the importance of emigration to the workers' organisations. He pointed out that there are at present in France about 500,000 Italian workers and a large number of Belgian, Czechoslovak, Polish, and even British workers. The majority of these workers do not join the trade unions and may even act in opposition to them. The speaker stated that workers immigrating into France should apply to the organisations of the General Confederation of Labour, and called on the International Federation of Trade Unions to take the necessary steps thoroughly to investigate problems of emigration and immigration.

A similar point of view led to the conclusion of an agreement between the French Federation of Building Workers and the Belgian Central Union of Building Workers. Under this the union leaves the French federation to issue federal cards and stamps to members of the Belgian union working in France (57). In return the Belgian union undertakes to pay for these cards and stamps and to assist the latter in propaganda in France in the towns where Belgian workers are chiefly congregated, mainly by sending delegates to these towns, if necessary, at its own expense. The Belgian union declares that it accepts beforehand the conditions of labour, customs, and usages laid down by the French federation.

LAND SETTLEMENT

Swedish Settlements in Mexico

The Swedish Government apparently intends to encourage emigration by a number of its nationals to Mexico, in order to found a Swedish agricultural settlement. The district chosen for this purpose in Mexico will be near the frontier between the town of Sonoras and the Gulf of California. The land comprising this district belongs for the most part to the state. The Swedish Minister for Foreign Affairs has instituted a detailed enquiry into the chances of success of this plan, and the Swedish Legation in Mexico has been instructed to report on the character of the district in question, its communications, the distribution of landed property there, and the probable cost of emigration, travelling, etc. (58).

German Settlement in Soviet Russia

The journal of the German Migration Office issues a warning to German subjects against plans for agricultural settlements in Russia (50). According to this journal newspaper reports on the subject should be accepted with caution. Between the commencement of negotiations and the granting of a concession a long delay, and many formalities, must be expected. Companies with a large capital, which seriously attempt to obtain concessions of land in Russia, do not make use of newspaper publicity. Even when, in some cases, the negotiations lead to the granting of a concession, the companies concerned cannot immediately begin actual work. As the lands ceded lie in the famine

⁽⁵⁷⁾ Mouvement syndical belge, 10 June 1922. Brussels.

⁽³⁸⁾ Social Demokraten, 28 April 1922. Stockholm. (39) Nachrichtenblatt des Reichswanderungsamts, No. 10, 15 May 1922. Berlin.

area, the preliminary conditions for the beginning of actual work must be defined, and many questions settled, of which the intending emigrant, lacking information, hardly thinks at all. A company which at the present time takes German workers to Russia accepts a very heavy responsibility and extensive liabilities on account of maintenance, food supply, medical attendance, and personal security of its employees. At the same time, in accordance with the wishes of the Soviet Government, the workers needed are to be engaged as far as possible from the native population. At present, therefore, there can be no idea of settling German labour on the concessions. In addition no company at present in negotiation with Russia is in a position to state with any certainty what will be the practical value of the concessions to be granted.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Notes on Industrial Hygiene

THE FIFTH NATIONAL CONGRESS ON INDUSTRIAL MEDICINE IN ITALY Florence, 11-14 June 1922

The Fifth National Congress on Industrial Medicine in Italy took place at Florence, where the second congress had also been held in 1909 (1). The Palazzo dei Signori, which, in the days of the guilds of crafts and trades, had witnessed the history of events in the world of labour, once again opened its doors to those who crowded into the opening session.

Representatives were sent by the workers' organisations, such as the General Confederation of Labour (Confederatione Generale del Lavoro), the railwaymen's trade union, etc., and by the employers' organisations throughout the twenty-nine provinces of the country; also by a large number of municipal authorities, by the medical inspectors of factories, by the National Accident Insurance Fund, and by municipal and provincial labour offices. Other delegates were Mr. Pometta, representing the Swiss National Insurance Fund at Lucerne, Dr. Glibert, Director of the Belgian Industrial Medical Service, and Dr. Carozzi, representing the International Labour Office.

INDUSTRIAL MEDICINE IN RELATION TO SOCIAL PROBLEMS

Speeches by Dr. Ciampolini, chairman of the Organising Committee, and the mayor of Florence were followed by one from the Minister of Labour. The Minister laid stress on the need for co-ordination of all efforts aiming at the protection of the worker, in the interests of the whole community as well as in the interests of the worker himself. He pointed out how the principles laid down at previous national congresses of medicine had gradually dissipated the obscurities which had attached to certain biological and pathological phenomena and problems in the sphere of labour. Contrariwise, the study of the problems which had been attacked had led to more than one triumph in the vast field of clinical science and therapeutics. The sole contribution which the speaker professed to be able to make personally to the congress was the faith which he had in its work. Not that he could be in any way indifferent to the victories won by medicine in the field of social legislation; in his opinion few branches of human knowledge had equalled industrial medicine in the laboriousness and doggedness of the research which it had evoked, research pursued on the cercando e ricercando principles of a Galileo.

⁽⁴⁾ The first congress was held at Palermo in 1907, the third at Turin in 1911, and the fourth at Rome in 1913. The proceedings of these congresses together total over 1,500 pages, which present a general review of the problems of industrial disease as studied by the most authoritative representatives of medical science in Italy.

The Minister proceeded to note the change which had been made in the actual title given to the congress; instead of being "The Congress on Industrial Diseases" it was now "The Congress on Industrial Medicine"; this was a sign that the principles underlying the work to be undertaken had also changed. Indeed, the programme before the congress was not restricted exclusively to problems of professional pathology; it had been greatly extended and enlarged, and now was in touch with the scientific and experimental side of industrial medicine. Such new undertakings were in harmony with present demands; granted that the medical problems determining legislative measures required examination, it followed that some indications were required of what were the gaps in our knowledge.

The Act for insuring workers against accident occurring in the course of agricultural operations, which had come into force thirteen years after the Act for insurance against accident in industry, brought to the forefront a whole series of problems of the greatest gravity and proved how necessary it was to co-ordinate these two legislative measures. The Minister drew attention to two problems which had already been discussed at previous congresses and which called for the most urgent solution, namely, the problem of the inspection of labour operations, and the problem of issuing regulations as to health and hygiene conditions for such operations. The principal aim of inspection was to impose uniformity in preventive measures and to reduce to a minimum the opposition bred by habit and custom. The spirit animating this opposition must be made to disappear and give way to a large and definite conception of the part to be played by the state in protecting the worker, duties which were the inevitable consequence of the great reforms which had taken place in the sphere of the worker's rights. The speaker stressed the interest he felt in carrying through a reform of the labour inspectorate on the principles which had been laid down. "Our labour legislation", he stated, "ought to be so drafted as to make easy, in the international sphere, the preparation of Agreements, which are of the first importance to a nation which, like Italy, is called upon to provide the rest of the world with the energy inherent in the strong arms of its workers".

Another reform to be recommended would be to establish in the provinces permanent departments, endowed with competence and authority as from the central government and able to supervise the carrying out of regulations. The labour clinics and similar institutions which had already been set on foot might be such bodies, and collaborate in solving the basic problems arising out of the protection of the worker.

The need for an immediate regulation of hygiene and health conditions in industrial operations was also admitted by the speaker, who stated that the proposals already made would undoubtedly be considered adequate by competent authorities; it was his intention, he added, to issue them at the earliest opportunity.

INFIRMITY AND SICKNESS INSURANCE

Preventive Measures

The first report, which was on Preventive Measures against Infirmity and Sickness, was presented by Professor Devoto of Milan. Article 3 of the Legislative Decree on Infirmity and Old Age, promulgated three

years previously, lays down a complete series of preventive measures dealing with infirmity and sickness. This Decree, adequately interpreted and applied, is a measure of the greatest importance in raising the national standard of physique and economic efficiency, seeing that prevention is always better than cure. The legislative recognition of this idea in a measure based on the principles of mutual aid and prevention is an event of real historic importance.

An examination of statistical data shows that but few among the working population reach an age beyond sixty. The majority of workers die before having reached that age, chiefly of chronic disease. Professor Devoto, who has made a prolonged study of the question, has previously suggested lowering the pension age to sixty for men and fifty-five for women, statistics proving that few survive to enjoy pension benefits under the present system.

The speaker then proceeded to investigate the statistics as to chronic disease. Article 7 of the Decree defines as "disabled by infirmity" all persons whose wages have fallen to one-third of their customary wages in consequence of their inability to work. The 'chronic invalid' of ordinary clinical practice is the 'infirm' person of medical legislation and the 'beneficiary in receipt of sickness benefit' of the insurance societies. Available figures are not absolutely exact; they do not, for instance, include women. Again, the list of causes of death is not exact; it is well known that statistics disregard chronic disease and record chiefly a final incident showing acute and independent features.

The mortality statistics of 1914 show the deaths of 643,355 persons, of whom 327,046 were men. Causes of death are classified as follows.

Causes	Numbers	Percentage
Premature death	35,882	5.6
Common diseases, developing rapidly	210,724	32.7
Acute infectious disease	36,526	5.7
Tuberculosis	51,959	8.1
Tumours	23,944 $47,602$	7.4
Senility Violent deaths		2.5
Unknown causes	$16,001 \\ 43.371$	7.0
Common diseases. developing slowly	175,346	27.3

TABLE 1

The number of deaths due to "tuberculosis", "tumours", and "common diseases developing slowly" is 251,249, i.e. 39.0 per cent. of the total number of deaths. The figures in the last-named group can be further classified as follows.

TABLE II

Common diseases developing slowly	Numbers	Percentage
Nervous and mental disease	29.383	16.7
Diseases of the heart and circulatory system	77,864	44
Kidney diseases	16,379 $21,506$	9.3
Diseases of the digestive system Constitutional disease	15,334	12.2 8.7
Chronic articular rheumatism Diseases of the respiratory system (ex-	870	0.6
cept tuberculosis)	14.010	8.0

It has been proved that 70 per cent. of the deaths due to diseases of the "circulatory system", and 82 per cent. of the deaths due to "diseases of the heart" are found among the working population. Taking the whole number of deaths due to "common diseases developing slowly", it was not possible, stated Professor Devoto, to name the percentages to be put down to industrial and agricultural workers respectively, as the data are here incomplete. A point that is clear, however, is that the highest mortality incidence for this group of diseases occurs between the ages of 60 and 70. The following is the classification of deaths due to this group of diseases by age; (the general mortality rate is 17.9 per thousand).

TΛ	DT	E.	TIT

Age groups	Number of deaths	Percentage of deaths	Numbers of the popu- lation in the various age groups in 1911	
0-9 years	10,984	6.2	8,063,451	
10-19 »	4,386	2.5	6,902,859	
20-39 »	13,569	7.7	9,471,266	
40-59 »	31,084	17.5	6,592,917	
60-79 »	94,150	53.8	3,281,506	
80 years and over	21,173	12.1	354,378	

Preventive measures to combat infirmity and chronic disease have been taken ever since medical science has existed. Striking results have been attained, especially during the last twenty years. Much is to be put down to the action of local authorities, of private institutions, and of individual workers; yet at the same time an urgent appeal to the legislator is required if an effectual struggle is to be carried on against industrial disease.

Infirmity due to sickness is the result either of acute disease, recent or previous, or of a whole series of different causes which have affected, for a period of some considerable length, either a person of sound constitution or a person suffering from hereditary weakness, and retarded his development. Latent infirmity, the presence of which is proved by sudden or rapid death, only occurs from time to time and is signalised by the change from a potentially diseased condition to an actually diseased condition. Indeed, post mortem examination proves that sudden death in the case of persons in apparently good health is almost always the result of latent infirmity.

The need, then, is to avert the 'incident' which may have fatal results and to realise that periodical medical visits are required for the workers, just as periodical inspections are required for machinery; here the speaker drew attention to the methods in use among American life insurance societies designed to restrict to the lowest limits temporary and permanent sickness among their clients. The worker who is suffering from illness is entitled to ask his society to assist him in regaining his former state of health. For instance, persons recovering from infectious diseases which have affected their kidneys, myocardium, and endocardium are entitled to demand a rest period sufficiently prolonged, proper diet, and gradual resumption of work, in a word, the whole of the conditions which are actually accorded in the

convalescent homes attached to the German sickness insurance funds. In many cases the doctor who is in daily contact with the worker can initiate useful preventive measures.

Professor Devoto next proceeded to discuss the problem of nervous and mental diseases. In the asylum for the insane at Mombello in Lombardy the total of all patients for the years 1911 to 1920 (excluding soldiers admitted during the war) may be classified as follows.

			ADEB 11			
		Number of patients		Cases of insanity due to alcoholism		
	Sex	Total	Annual average	Number	Per cent.	Annual average
	Men Women	7,173 5,825	717 582	2,058 229	29.0 4.0	205 23
1	Total	12,998	1,299	2,287		228

TABLE IV

The total number of deaths due to alcoholism which occurred in Italy between the years 1887 and 1916 inclusive is 18,695. The mortality rate arising out of alcoholism as registered at the Mombello asylum, namely, an average of 25 per annual average of 228 patients under treatment, is only a vague indication of the real number of cases of insanity traceable to alcoholism. However, it gives some idea of the huge sums spent by municipal and provincial authorities and by institutions on the care of these persons.

Medical science has undoubtedly made enormous progress in investigating the causes of certain diseases, especially of tuberculosis, malaria, overwork, and diseases due to industrial poisons. The fight against these scourges should be carried on by methods previously and systematically thought out; use should be made of the great system of insurance which already exists and which has won the confidence of the classes of the population affected, and its various branches should be effectually co-ordinated.

Professor Devoto described the principal features of such an insurance scheme; it should include a system of health books for all insured persons, periodical medical visits to workers and insured persons, medical supervision of convalescent insured persons recovering from infectious diseases, agreed arrangements between the different hospitals as to convalescent homes and seaside and other fresh air homes, co-operation between the National Fund and scientific institutions in propaganda work, prophylactic measures and the education of public opinion, and, lastly, the regulation of the health conditions of labour. His concluding remarks were to the effect that such a system amounted to a complete reform of the present national organisation of hygiene and health work, and could only be built up in a solid way on insurance principles. This was the view of every political party.

After a lengthy discussion the following resolution was agreed to by the congress.

The Fifth National Congress of Industrial Medicine, in view of the fact that the stipulations of Article 3 of the Legislative Decree on Infirmity and Old Age have not yet been carried over into administrative practice, recommends that, when this Decree shall acquire the force of law, Parliament

shall maintain the provisions of Article 3 and shall ask the Government to issue administrative regulations making good this deficiency, such as shall procure better and more effectual curative and preventive treatment of infirmity.

Among the communications received on the subject of insurance mention may be made of one from Dr. Teleky of Düsseldorf, dealing with the organisation and statistical methods of German insurance funds. In his own name and in that of Dr. Koelsch, Dr. Telehy communicated to the congress the good wishes of the medical profession in Germany and Austria.

LENGTH AND DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING HOURS

The second report was communicated by Dr. E. Masi, Director of the Medical Service of the State Railways, and dealt with *The Organisation of Labour on the Principle of Shifts*. The first part of Dr. Masi's report dealt with the mechanism of fatigue from the physical and psychological points of view, on the effects of training of the motor organs and the mental faculties, and the injury caused by overtraining. Output ought to be regulated by a wise distribution of periods of work. It is well known that the worker cannot produce his maximum output unless he starts work after a rest of sufficient length to ensure the disappearance of all the fatigue caused by his previous efforts.

Dr. Masi then proceeded to discuss the question of shifts and time tables. He is convinced that output rises with shorter working hours, as is proved by experience and also by the effects of the Sunday rest. In spite of the fact that there is as yet no legislative measure enforcing the 8-hour day, it nevertheless applies to about four million workers in the country. Dr. Masi also laid stress on the need for providing the worker with every possible facility for the intelligent and healthful use of his leisure time. Overtime, in his opinion, ought to be avoided as far as is at all possible, and night work should be subject to special regulation. Shorter working hours should, of course, be in force for women and children.

The speaker then analysed the report by Mr. Turati on the 8-hour day and discussed at some length the special conditions applying to agriculture. Finally, he passed to the subject of which he has a unique knowledge, namely, the 8-hour day as applied to railway workers. Three classes of railway workers were in question: clerical staff, engine-shop workers, and railway staff properly so called. In the case of the office staff the attempt which had been made by the General Management to organise a continuous service had ended in disastrous failure. In the case of the engine-shop workers a comparison was given between the output of certain shops, where each period of four working hours was followed by a period of two hours of rest, with shops where work was continuous. Certain statistics were presented proving that the output in certain shops of the first type was twofifths higher than that of the shops of the second type. Women, in Dr. Masi's opinion, should not be employed for telegraphic work, in the ticket offices, or in the goods forwarding offices; night work, contact with the public, the nervous tension required, the noise of the machines, the bad air, all conditions which could not be evaded by persons engaged in these services, would be injurious to the health of women and appreciably decrease output.

As for the engine-shop workers experience had proved that 4 hours' work in the morning followed by a rest period of 2 hours and another 4 hours' work in the afternoon made up an excellent time-table. An 8-hour working day is, in the opinion of Dr. Masi, too short in the case of men merely in charge; men in charge or controlling goods stations etc. could easily put in 12 hours a day or 8 hours per night, provided always that it was a question of mere attendance. In the case of train staff and engine-shop staff the question is undoubtedly much more complicated. It is often very difficult to keep to the 8-hour working day. The average working day of the men on the machines is 5 hours; however, 3 at least of these 5 hours are spent on accessory work, such as the cleaning of machinery. Omitting the details reported as to the arrangements of the shifts on the railways, Dr. Masi's general conclusions may be given as follows:

(1) An 8-hour day should be retained for all grades of railway workers; a 7-hour day, interrupted by a rest-period of at least 2 hours,

should be worked by the office staff.

(2) Night work should be done by men only; it should be arranged in 4-hour shifts wherever locomotive drivers, building workers, or any other class of worker doing arduous work or doing work under defective hygienic conditions are in question.

(3) A longer working day than the 8-hour day should be worked by staff employed on attendance duty or merely in charge at stations and in offices; it should not, however, exceed 10 hours and should

be followed by 12 consecutive hours of rest.

(4) The time-table of train staff and machinery workers should be so arranged that the 8-hour day should mean 8 hours of effective work, but should include two rest periods, more especially at night.

(5) Overtime should continue to be prohibited in all grades, unless in a few exceptional cases, when the period of work might be even prolonged up to 14 hours, interrupted, however, by rest pauses arranged so as to result in 10 or 12 hours of effective work (2).

This report gave rise to an interesting and somewhat lively discussion. The representatives of the railwaymen's union declared that the speaker had outstepped the limits laid down in his title. In the course of the discussion Dr. Samaja, Medical Consultant Officer to the union, presented a detailed communication on the occupational diseases of railway workers. With a view to avoiding any misunderstanding as to the 8-hour day as applied to railway work, Dr. Masi withdrew his conclusions, and the congress resumed complete liberty of opinion. The following resolution was adopted.

The congress is of opinion that the principle of the 8-hour day should be maintained as incontrovertible; that periods of effective work should be interrupted by rest pauses varying according to the special conditions of work and the grade of the worker; that problems as to organisation of work cannot be fully solved except by experimental and direct study of fatigue phenomena in various occupations, among various groups of persons, and under various conditions; and therefore recommends that institutions established for the purpose of organising labour or protecting the worker should establish, or further the establishment of, laboratories to be attached to the great state or private foundations for the practical study of all problems connected with the scientific organisation of labour.

⁽²⁾ The Industrial Hygiene Service of the International Labour Office has in hand an investigation on hygiene and health work in the Italian state railways.

PLUMBISM

The report on Old and New Theories of Plumbism was presented by Professor Biondi, Director of the Institute of Forensic Medicine at the University of Sienna, who has made a twenty-year study of problems of occupational and experimental lead poisoning. The speaker deplored the fact that it should still be necessary at the present day to make reference to the past in the study of this question rather than to be able to point to new and triumphant progress. However, the work of the national congresses, together with what had been done at two international congresses, the international congress on Medicine and that on Labour, coupled with the efforts made by Italian scientists to get rid of error and empiricism had now made it possible to present the problem in a properly scientific way.

At the present time, continued the speaker, investigators were face to face with a new type of empiricism even more dangerous than the old type in that it put forth pseudo-scientific claims. The new theories current about plumbism were, in fact, the reminiscence of mistakes which one might have supposed had been definitely got rid of, or the results of the crystallisation of theories which had initially been erroneous, or else the outcome of a so-called scientific point of view which could not hold its own against the most elementary criticism.

As far back as the very first international congress on occupational diseases there had been a discussion which had successfully combated certain a priori suggestions about the absorption of some of the lead compounds, suggestions which had seriously threatened to interfere with the basis of prophylactic measures against occupational plumbism. It had been claimed that some insoluble compounds like sulphur could not be absorbed by the gastro-intestinal system, and that workers in contact with sulphur were not exposed to plumbism. The other point of view was that the solubility or insolubility of lead compounds was no criterion as to their non-absorption through the intestinal organs, since we have to do with conditions the operation of which is unknown to us and which allow the absorption of insoluble compounds. Such irrefutable proof has been obtained of the enteral absorption of these insoluble compounds that it is no longer possible to deny it or to doubt it.

The speaker laid even greater stress on the problem of the enteral absorption of insoluble lead compounds. It is erroneous, according to him, to consider as parenteral poisoning that present in the case of workers poisoned through exposure to lead dust and to admit that poisoning takes place through the respiratory system. Discussions on the quantity of dust absorbed seemed to him beside the point. It is now universally known that the larger part of the dust is ingested rather than inhaled. There is no difficulty in understanding how plumbism may appear after inhalation of lead dust just as it appears after the eating of food without a previous washing of the hands. Nevertheless, that lead dust can be absorbed through the respiratory organs is not to be denied. This is a proved fact, it is not merely a probable surmise. But Professor Biondi's point was that the parenteral method of absorption was not the principal one; it may be even less important than is estimated by some English investigators.

Professor Biondi proceeded to a close criticism of the methods adopted by certain investigators in testing individual receptivity and tolerance, two intimately connected factors. Instances are recorded

in medical literature of persons exposed to lead poisoning who have been in excellent health and showed no symptom of plumbism; these cases cannot be ruled out by a mere denial, though every possibility of clinical observation should have been exhausted before such cases were diagnosed as instances of "resistance to plumbism" or "immunity". However, proof even of an experimental kind has been obtained that the "capacity towards plumbism" is present to a markedly different degree in different individuals. But no systematic research has yet been undertaken to show whether resistance to the action of lead is the consequence of a low degree of absorption of that substance, as has been proved by Cloetta in the case of arsenic. The researches carried on by Professor Biondi and his pupils would seem to disprove this suggestion in the case of lead. While noticing individual differences the presence of lead has invariably been detected in the urine of the animals used for the experiments and also in the urine of workers seriously exposed to lead poisoning. The phenomenon of tolerance of lead can be observed in animals and in man in the . absence even of slight indications of the well-known symptoms of poisoning. Tolerance of the presence of lead as observed in animals and in man cannot be explained by any decrease in the capacity of absorption, but only by means of some other noticeable modus operandi.

Metallic poisons, as is well known, have none of the properties of an antigen; serum taken from the human subject or the rabbit affected with lead poisoning has no anticomplementary action. The hypothesis of a mechanism of humoral defence will possibly have to give way to that of an immunity obtained through histogenesis. However, Professor Biondi's present investigations offer some hope that the first of these two hypotheses may prove the true one. He is attempting to obtain immunity reactions by indirect means, even in the case of metallic poisonings and consequently even for plumbism. It is true that only protein substances in a colloidal state have evinced any of the qualities of an antigen; it is equally true that in the formation by the organism of absorption colloidal non-reversible combinations lie possibilities of transforming into antigens bodies which of themselves have no such character, such as metallic albumena. In spite of the fact that experiments with mercury and lead proteins have given no antibodies which can be detected with certainty, Professor Biondi hopes to succeed in his object by means of new technical devices.

The future will reveal the mechanism which lies at the bottom of this immunity, and the processes which it sets on foot. At present we can only make a guess at the nature of such mechanism, which is based on some principle of neutralising the deposited poison or eliminating it, simpler than what the older theories about immunisation allowed us to conceive. Meanwhile we are not entitled to recognise as "tolerance" what is in reality nothing more than an "apparent silence" of symptoms, or on that account to expose so-called immune workers to grave risks.

Recent years have admittedly seen very great progress made in the tests used in diagnosing plumbism. Nevertheless, at the Third International Labour Conference at Geneva, some errors were revived, according to the speaker, which our knowledge of a very much earlier date ought easily to have cleared out of the way. It is one thing to detect lead absorption by, or lead penetration into, the fluids

or tissues of the human body, and quite another to diagnose a morbid lesion arising from lead poisoning. Again, proof that an individual has absorbed, or is absorbing and expelling, lead into and from his system or that he is showing some one or other of the pathological conditions characteristic of plumbism is not the same as asserting and estimating in him an incapacity to carry on his work. Finally, it may happen that morbid conditions diagnosed in the lead worker are not caused by plumbism; on the other hand, many conditions are diagnosed as everyday diseases when they are really caused, influenced, or seriously aggravated by plumbism. The surest test of the usefulness of preventive measures is to measure the effect of the poison on the worker's body. The proved absorption of lead does not indicate the certainty of a lead lesion. But to wait until symptoms of this appear before admitting the existence of an injury means delaying the putting into effect of preventive measures until the harm has been done. It is just as probable that the injury exists as soon as the presence of lead has been proved; but it is still slight and still such as can be dealt with. Professor Biondi suggested determining the degree of risk according to the amount of lead absorbed or even according to the ensemble of symptoms which might be called "lesser" plumbism, and not according to the characteristic symptoms of the disease or according to statistics, as is done in Germany.

The speaker stated his agreement with Buschold in holding that the decrease in plumbism among lead workers was accompanied by a corresponding increase in the number of cases of diseases of the kidney, heart, and respiratory and nervous systems. He is also of opinion that nephritis, arteriosclerosis, and lesions of the myocardium among lead workers can be traced back to plumbism, but admits that medical science has still a great deal of ground to cover before it will be in a position to diagnose in such a way as to prove a lead poisoning origin in each case.

Symptoms indicating lead "absorption" are at present indistinguishable from those which justify the "early" diagnosis of plumbism. No perfectly clear distinction will be able to be drawn until proof can be obtained that lead can, in certain cases, pass through the body without giving rise to organic lesions. The future will, it is to be hoped, disclose methods of research which will enable us to track down the phenomena which are now beyond our knowledge. There already exists, in any case, one method for proving the absorption or non-absorption of lead, and that is the detection of lead in the urine. The presence of lead can be so detected even in the absence of all other symptoms. The presence of lead in the urine, however, is not constant, but often intermittent and this perfectly explains the negative results obtained by some investigators. When iodides are administered, the elimination of lead is provoked or intensified. Investigation of lead in the feces on the other hand, has only the value of a preliminary symptom; only in exceptional cases does it suffice to prove the absorption of lead. The presence of lead in the feces is proof that the subject has ingested lead in his body; but unless lead is found in the urine, or there are symptoms of plumbism, there is no proof that it has been absorbed through the enteral way. In the case of persons who have been exposed only for a short time to the risk of lead poisoning it may be that the presence of lead in the feces is a sign that the poison is being eliminated in this way. In

any case, Professor Biondi insists that examination of the feces is only of secondary importance by comparison with examination of the urine.

Lack of space forbids our reproducing Professor Biondi's interesting discussion on methods of colouring the blood. He is definitely against recent suggestions for examining the blood in thick drops on the ground that this method leads to the discovery of basophile granular corpuscles; even when not truly present, the method "manufactures" granular corpuscles by some process not yet properly understood; their presence is the result of a wrong technical method. Professor Biondi thinks Seiffert's test equally impracticable, as this too "manufactures" granular corpuscles by employing inexact methods. He referred to his own detailed examination of the question at the Fourth National Congress on Industrial Diseases at Rome, desiring to stress the view that basophile granular corpuscles have none of the specific importance attributed to them by some authors in their diagnosis of plumbism. He insists that granulated red corpuscles are nothing more than recently formed elements periodically ejected into the blood by the hematopoietic organs, presenting themselves perhaps in two different colloidal forms, with the result that, under conditions which are not yet properly understood, they assume the special appearance noted when fixed and treated with basic staining reagents.

No hematologist can admit the out-of-date view, recently revived by Schoerfeld, which assumes that a polychromatic phase of the red corpuscles takes the place of the basophile granular phase during the latent and also the later period of plumbism. In the same way mononucleosis, eosinophilys, an increase in the number of blood platelets, and a decrease of the haemoglobin are of merely relative importance; none of these phenomena can be held to be characteristic symptoms of plumbism. The blue line of the gums, on the other hand, is as valuable as ever and, in Professor Biondi's view, one of the most recognisable symptoms permitting an early diagnosis of plumbism. But even allowing that other investigations on the urine can contribute in a useful degree towards diagnosing some of the collateral symptoms of plumbism, Professor Biondi is of opinion that it is impossible to agree, e.g. with the view that hematoporphyzinuria is an early and characteristic symptom. Pallor he considers too subjective a symptom to be useful; moreover, it is one difficult to estimate in workers of the South of Europe or the Italian islands, whose complexion is, in any case, more or less brown.

A symptom which has recently been stressed by Bourguignon and which deserves more consideration than it has received in the past is Glibert's symptom of a decrease in power of the extensor muscles of the wrist and fingers.

Professor Biondi is no adherent of the new theories which argue that certain symptoms observed in workers in the painter's trade are to be put down to the turpentine contained in the paint. It is true that some investigators assert that painter's colic is to be traced to turpentine and that turpentine is the real cause of kidney lesions in persons suffering from lead poisoning, or at least a predominating contributory cause of nephritis. Professor Biondi points out that no difference whatever has so far been traced between the symptoms and course of the colic affecting painters and of the colic affecting lead smelters or lead miners, who are not exposed to the effects of

turpentine. His own considerable researches into this problem have never made it possible to prove the existence of symptoms which could be traced to the action of turpentine. Even in painters who had inhaled turpentine fumes in great quantity he had failed to observe the characteristic odour of violet in the urine always noticed where even a minute quantity of turpentine has been absorbed. In spite of these negative results, Professor Biondi continued the new investigations which he was carrying on at his Institute; these investigations concern clinical and histological data. The results, however, are not such as to permit acceptance of the new theory which, even were it proved true, would have no effect on the modern view of plumbism. Professor Biondi's concluding remarks were to the effect that he hoped research on plumbism would be confined within the severe restrictions of toxicology and medical science and eschew all pseudo-scientific suggestions.

The report of Professor Biondi was followed by a long and interesting discussion. Mr. Glibert referred to experiments made in his laboratory by the chemist attached to the Medical Inspectorate, which had shown that filter papers contained not only copper, but lead as well. Professor Sclavo also stressed the importance of a preliminary testing of all reagents and glass apparatus previous to any experiments on lead problems. Professor Ottolenghi gave a survey of recent theory on the subject of resistance and immunity. Experiments made on unicellulars show that the cell has the property of transforming toxic substances into harmless or less harmful bodies, in which case the theory of the greater or lesser sensitiveness of a cell becomes less likely. The result, however, is not the same in the two cases. In any case, this defensive action of the cell is not permanent; it is true that tissues which have acquired the faculty of resisting some toxic action transmit such faculty to their daughter-cells, but only for a certain time, and almost any circumstance may bring this passing defensive reaction to a stop.

HYGIENE AND AGRICULTURE

The fourth topic on the agenda, Agricultural Hygiene after the War, was discussed on the basis of a report presented by Professor A. Monti of the University of Pavia. A brief summary of this noticeable contribution is here given.

The war, while bringing new evils on agricultural workers, also procured for them some definite advantages. The peasants who stayed in their own homes during the war never wanted food. They acquired a material well-being which continued even after the war was ended and which they had not known before, and they began to be aware of their political power. In all countries the peasant is less poor than he has been; he has better food and better clothes. His standard of cleanliness, however, has not risen nor has he learnt how to keep up his house nor how to arrange the diet which he provides for his family. Pellagra has died out almost entirely, and physiologists no longer find the misery of twenty years ago. Nevertheless, the war has carried the evil habits and vices of town-life into the villages, and has introduced or encouraged the spread of infectious diseases in the country side. Alcoholism and syphilis have made rapid strides in the country and their effects will be felt in a few decades. Almost as

soon as the Armistice had been signed breeding spots for typhoid, dysentery, and malaria were formed. Demobilisation resulted in the return of "carriers" to their families, whom they proceeded to infect. Bad sanitation, dung-hills heaped up next to the house, and the presence of flies did the rest. Typhoid has now spread through the isolated farms, which until now had been immune from this disease. Bacillary dysentery, which had also been rare, is now frequent, and the number of chronic cases going about are so many sources of infection. The recrudescence of malaria is an even graver problem, threatening the good work accomplished during the thirty years preceding the war. Malarial infection had been successfully routed out of a large number of localities and the malaria mortality rate in Italy had been noticeably lowered; (the number of fatal cases of malaria had been brought down from 21,000 in 1887 to 2,000 in 1914).

The problem of knowing whether an intensive cultivation can eliminate malaria or whether, on the contrary, malaria paralyses cultivation by compelling the agricultural labourer to abandon infected soils, is still under discussion. These two very different points of view have inspired two different methods of combating malaria. new outburst during the war and new wide diffusion of the disease in areas hitherto completely free from it show that the connections between agriculture and malaria are not so simple as the adherents of either point of view suppose, and that each of them contains only part of the truth. As long ago as the Barbarian invasions, malaria had infected the Venetian plain and Dalmatia, which, in the time of the Romans, had been exempt. According to the evidence of Strabo, Vitruvius, and Cassiodorus, malaria infection had brought about the decline of agriculture and lowered the physical standard of the race. Unless we today take up the fight against this disease, it will once again claim new hecatombs of victims among the workers and will spread ruin over the fertile plains of the Po valley. No time is to be lost. Cases of pernicious malaria, a form which has not been known for the last forty years, are being recorded and the scourge has appeared in villages until now exempt.

Malaria is conditioned by three things: climate, the anopheles, and the infected human subject. In Italy cases of malaria occur up to an altitude of 1,000 metres above sea level and at even higher altitudes. An Alpine climate is the only climate capable of preventing the propagation of the parasites in the mosquito and in man. The anopheles, originally found in warmer climates, has spread over Europe in the course of several centuries. During the war the disease was carried by means of trusses of hay, or by infected animals or infected humans. The anopheles have invaded the Carso, and the construction of reservoirs for vine culture have helped them to penetrate into the Apennine hills. Man is not the only host of the malaria parasite; anthropoid apes carry similar parasites. In Italy, however, the spread of malaria is essentially caused by infected human subjects who can be a source of latent malarial infection for a whole vear. Malaria is spread and established differently in different places, according to the nature of the country, the number of infected persons arriving, and local conditions. The disease at once dies out in mountainous districts where there are no mosquitoes; it can give rise to a limited number of fresh cases, without, however, obtaining a definite hold, in the hill villages where there are very few anopheles or which are already known to harbour anopheles and yet are not

malarious; it can establish itself in districts hitherto exempt and only recently invaded by the anopheles; finally, it can multiply with great intensity in the hot plains in spite of disinfection precautions.

Malaria endangers work, wealth, and the future of the race. The struggle against this scourge should take the form of disinfecting the human subject and desinfecting his surroundings. The first of these tasks devolves on the clinical practitioner and the pathologist; the second must be handled by the sanitary specialist, the engineer, and the public health specialist. No possible means of fighting the evil should be neglected and the various resources brought into play must be co-ordinated.

Drainage of marshy areas includes a certain number of mechanical protective measures, aiming at procuring safety at night without exposure to mosquito bites, and also destruction of larvae on a big scale, so that fertility may be restored and the food supply of large numbers of workers assured. Minor measures for the destruction of the larvae supplement the major measures. Such are the draining off of stagnant waters (which are perfect breeding houses for the anopheles), the construction of drainage canals, the building up of embankments with a view to preventing the formation of ponds, and the protection of drinking places for farm-stock. Larvae in ponds and reservoirs can be destroyed by means of petroleum, which asphyxiates them, and also by the breeding of fish, which feed on them, in ricegrounds and ponds. Finally, the adult mosquitoes haunting kitchens and stables must also be destroyed.

The treatment of the population in the marshy areas must include both medical preventive measures during a period of epidemic and systematic treatment of all malaria cases continued even during the periods when the epidemic dies down. The fight against this scourge will never be successful until its organisation has been adapted to suit different local conditions. Satisfactory results will depend on the conscientious and voluntary co-operation of the agricultural population, of labour organisations, and of the medical and teaching professions. Teachers should have special courses provided for them at the universities and would then be valuable assistants in popularising, among the children of the country population, the minor measures for the destruction of the larvae.

Parliament would do well to vote the necessary sums without requiring that any central bureaucratic institution should be set up, such as would very likely obstruct the taking of practical steps. The setting up of autonomous provincial bodies of volunteers, drawn from the medical and teaching professions and from representatives of classes interested in the problem would be much more effective and is our only hope of triumphing over the problem of malaria.

This interesting communication was followed by a lengthy discussion, which eventually resulted in the adoption of the following resolutions.

The congress will print and distribute Professor Monti's paper Agricultural Hygiene after the War in its Relation to Malarial Infection and recommends the setting up in every district of special bodies working in agreement with labour organisations with a view to the carrying out of the necessary preventive measures against the spread of infection.

The congress approves the suggestions of Professor Sclavo as to the sanitary precautions to be observed in laying out farms and demands the extension to the agricultural worker of the preventive measures laid down

for the benefit of other types of labour, an active propaganda in the interests of public hygiene, and the issue of clear regulations as to the sanitation

of rural housing accommodation.

The congress is of opinion that the fight against malaria, which up till now has been entrusted to committees, officials, or public welfare societies, one and all restricting their action to carrying out measures as laid down by the law, and one and all working in an atmosphere which is passive or indifferent, should rather be entrusted to organisations of workers or of employers. Such bodies can best command the means both of educating the masses and of applying the measures required in the struggle against malarial infection.

ACCIDENT AND SICKNESS INSURANCE

The final report communicated to the congress was one by Professor Borri, which sketched a programme of ideals for medical science in its application to social problems and suggested the reform of accident legislation (3). A communication by Dr. Prosperi on insurance against occupational diseases had the effect of dividing the congress into two parties on the question of separate insurance against occupational diseases or general insurance against all diseases. The congress showed a division of opinion in voting the following resolutions.

The congress is of opinion that the risks of occupational diseases are capable of being assimilated to accident risks and, in view of the fact that any partial legislation might delay the coming into force of the Act on sickness insurance which public opinion has so long been demanding, recommends that this Act be promulgated with the least possible delay and that it should include special regulations on occupational diseases.

The congress, while in favour of putting into force the Act on sickness insurance, recommends to Parliament immediate action with a view to re-assimilating the position of workers suffering from the effects of accident and of those suffering from occupational disease by means of a speedy promulgation of the Act on insurance against industrial disease, based on the principle of occupational risks.

During the course of the congress Dr. Masi read an interesting paper on Ramazzini. The members of the congress also visited several factories, as well as the municipal refuse destruction works and the hospital train which was put at their disposal by the medical service of the state railways. A visit was also paid to an exhibition of safety devices against accident which were displayed in the rooms adjoining the conference hall. A number of papers were contributed in the course of a special session (4), although a complete series was not distributed to the members.

The Sixth National Congress will be held at Venice in 1924.

⁽³⁾ This communication has appeared in La Rassegna di Presidenze sociale.

^{1922,} No. 3. Rome.
(4) A complete list of papers contributed will be given later, under Recent Literature on Industrial Hygiene in the pages of this Review.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Notes on Vocational Guidance

WORK OF THE STRASBURG VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE OFFICE

The Strasburg Chamber of Crafts has organised a regional service of vocational guidance for Alsace and Lorraine, which is directed by Mr. Julien Fontègne. This service enjoys competent assistance from many quarters: school doctors, employers' and workers' organisations, chambers of commerce, and employment offices. Parents, and the children themselves while still at school, are invited by well organised propaganda to come to the vocational guidance office for advice.

As will be seen, the results have been crowned with success, and, in the course of sixteen months' working (February 1921 to June 1922), the Strasburg office had been visited by more than 1,100 apprentices, i.e. by over 60 per cent, of children leaving school. It has further achieved the interesting result of reducing by 75 per cent, the number of children who wished to become labourers. In 1921 this means of livelihood, requiring no technical knowledge, was chosen by 8 per cent, of children, while in 1922 it was chosen by only 2 per cent.

The vocational adviser has at his disposal ample documentary information concerning the apprentice who is to be directed towards the occupation which suits him or turned away from that for which he lacks aptitude. The first document is the school return, in which the pupil indicates, besides particulars of his identity, his favourite subject of study, the subject he dislikes (if any), his favourite games both at school and at home, and, finally, the manual work which he especially prefers. This first part of the information in the return is completed by the vocational adviser in an interview with the child, and in another with the parents. In the return the class teacher also responds to the following questions, from his personal observation: how the child expresses himself or ally and in writing; what are his average marks in spelling, arithmetic and mental arithmetic; what are his strong and his weak subjects; whether he is a quick or a slow worker; and, finally, four additional questions as to neatness. cleanliness, character, attention, and memory. Besides these general remarks, the teacher states what manual work the pupil has done at school, and what results he achieved.

To this return, which is a rough sketch of the personality of the apprentice, is added a medical report from the school doctor. In addition to weight and measurements, answers are given to a series of questions as to the child's muscular, skeletal, and nervous systems, the shape of his legs and feet (which may indicate avoidance of certain occupations), liability to varicose veins, anaemia, colds, etc. The child must undergo as well a special examination for eyesight, hearing, and sense of smell, which may also furnish data indicating that certain

occupations are to be avoided. The doctor is further asked for his observations as to skin diseases, moisture and shape of the hands, and sensitiveness of the skin. The heart, respiratory, and digestive systems, teeth and gums are also medically examined; ruptures, for which operation is advised, are among the disabilities which must be mentioned in the report. Even the bearing of the apprentice must be commented upon by the doctor. Finally, the latter is asked, from the medical point of view, of course, the following question: "Would you advise the child to adopt the occupation which he has in mind?"

To complete the information gathered from the school return and the medical report, the apprentice is required to write a French essay on the occupation which he wishes to take up, explaining his reasons

for choosing it.

An examination of the apprentice's psychology from the vocational standpoint determines his power of attention, ability to combine geometrical solids, visual memory of shapes, sense of touch, etc., and rounds off the vocational adviser's knowledge of the aptitudes of his subject. This examination consists of asking the pupil to reproduce from memory a black silhouette which he has been allowed to look at for a few moments; to say what geometrical shapes could be composed out of a number of scattered pieces shown to him; to estimate the length of a strip of cardboard; to distinguish materials by feel; and, finally, to sort out skeins of various colours.

The vocational adviser, now in possession of the elements required for an appreciation—taken together they form a whole which is fairly complete—should proceed to find out whether the physiological and psychological characteristics of the apprentice are such as to allow him to take up the occupation for which he shows a preference. To this end the adviser consults a series of short monographs on manual occupations prepared by the Strasburg Office, in which are shown the physiological and psychological qualities required to become a first-class workman. In such a monograph the apprentice himself will find interesting data as to the occupation which he wishes to enter (wages, unemployment, etc.). Here, for example, is the monograph on joinery in general:

(1) Physiological aptitudes

At least medium stature. Medium strength. Regular curve of fatigue. Good sight and hearing (difficulties for the one-eyed). Ability to distinguish shades of colours. Flexible fingers and handiness. Ambidexterity as far as possible. Sound lungs (in view of dust, smell of glue, corrosives, openair work, resistance to draughts).

The following are warned not to enter this occupation:

- (a) those who have a tendency towards curvature of the spine;
- (b) those who are afflicted with rupture or varicose veins;
- (c) those who are flat-footed or knock-kneed;
- (d) those who are subject to nervous disorders (machine work).
- (2) Physiological incapacities possible in the disabled and those injured in industrial accidents

Loss of one leg with stump at least 15 cm. long. Loss either of the index and middle fingers together, or of the little and ring fingers together. Loss of all fingers half compensated by the first phalanx in two fingers. Loss of the thumb largely compensated by the play of the metacarpal bone of the thumb. Loss of the thumb and index finger if prehension is still possible (according to Dr. Gourdon). Loss of the fore-arm or of three-quarters of the arm (prosthesis).

(3) Psychological and intellectual aptitudes Practical intelligence. Ability to distinguish by touch slight roughnesses, different degrees of polish and roughness, different thickness (sense of polish). A good eye for comparing and measuring without instruments and for distinguishing at sight differences in shape and thickness (sense of dimension). Ability to concentrate attention and observe accurately. Good general memory and, in particular, memory of shapes. Ability to imagine solida and assemblages from sketches. Sense of perspective. Artistic sense of form. Ability to make economical use of material. Technical and mechanical sense, ability to understand rapidly the structure and working of machines and tools. Manual skill, precision, steady and regular movements, sensitive touch.

(4) Moral qualities

All those which are required in a person working with others and for others. Diligence, cleanliness, neatness, carefulness, conscientiousness. Ability to adapt oneself easily to others (work mates) and to work in a team.

(5) Scholastic attainments.

Fair ability at mental arithmetic (surfaces and volumes). Some acquaintance with geometry. Taste for geometrical and ornamental drawing.

(6) Advantages and disadvantages of the occupation (cf. Prospects)

Little or no unemployment in general. No special occupational disease. Accidents somewhat rare.

(7) Apprenticeship

Best starting age: 14 to 15 years

Duration: three years

Supply and demand: shortage of apprentices. Recommended occupation.

Wages: approximate weekly wages without board or lodging for apprentices are

first year: 3-6 francs second year: 6-10 francs third year: 10-20 francs.

(8) Prospects and improvement

(a) Wages of journeyman: 2.85 francs to 2.90 francs per hour on the average (cf. collective agreements). (b) Opportunity for setting up an independent business without great outlay. (c) In case of partial unemployment, possibility of finding a situation as: pattern-maker, carpenter, cartwright, coach-builder, cooper, cabinet-maker, packing-case maker, glazier, billiard table maker, toy-maker, brush-maker, turner, etc. (d) Opportunity, after one or two years' practical work, of entering the building section of the National Technical School, and becoming, after three years' study, foreman, designer, technician, contractor. (e) Technical course at the School of Building Industries, continuation course of the Chamber of Crafts.

The final factor taken into consideration by the vocational advisers in making their decision is the state of the labour market. It is essential to supply vocations with no more apprentices than they require, so that some trades may not be overcrowded while others lack labour. The Regional Employment Office furnishes periodically all necessary information in this matter. The vocational adviser then delivers a certificate to the apprentice to the effect that the latter, after examination, possesses all the qualities necessary for success in the occupation of e.g. joiner. Provided with this certificate the youngman presents himself at the Regional Employment Office, which endeavours to find him a firm where he can carry out his apprentice-ship.

The Strasburg Vocational Guidance Office has addressed to all the industrial associations of the district detailed questionnaires which have resulted in accurate data for the preparation of monographs on occupations. In order to bring home to the lad or the girl, as well as to parents and teachers, the exact advantages of various occupations.

and the reasons favouring the choice of one or other of them, Mr. Julien Fontègne has published an interesting pamphlet (1) which is distributed generally, and more especially in the schools.

APPRENTICESHIP IN ALSACE-LORRAINE

On the occasion of the twentieth exhibition of the work of apprentices, journeymen, and master craftsmen organised at Obernai, and held from 20 May to 18 June 1921, the Chamber of Crafts of Alsace-Lorraine has published in its official organ (2) an article by Mr. Fontègne entitled Vocational Guidance of Apprentices for the Wood and Furnishing Industries. The author, after briefly describing the activities of the Strasburg Vocational Guidance Office, gives some very interesting figures relating to these industries.

Vocational Guidance relating to the Wood and Furniture Industries (3)

Boys	mbers
wishing to learn a trade in the wood or furniture industry	150
presenting themselves at the Strasburg Vocational Guidance Office	
between February 1921 and 26 April 1922	7 40
presenting themselves at the Office for assistance in entering a wood	
trade	65
guided in accordance with their choice or towards a similar trade	57
warned not to enter a wood trade	8
previously choosing another trade and directed by the Office into a	
wood or furniture trade	20
guided towards a wood or furniture trade (total number)	77(4)
placed in situations by the Strasburg Municipal Employment Office	
in a wood or furniture trade (total number)	6 9(4)

Finally, a table is given illustrating apprenticeship, etc. in the wood and furniture trades throughout Alsace-Lorraine during 1921. This table shows that 819 boys had been articled as apprentices in these trades, that 1,833 were actually under terms of apprenticeship (one to three years), that 282 apprentices were taking the journeyman's examination, and that 56 journeymen were taking the master craftsman's examination.

In the same issue of the *Gazette des Métiers* we find, over the signature of Mr. H. Ley, General Secretary of the Chamber of Crafts of Alsace-Lorraine, some interesting statistical data as to artisans' workshops and the number of apprentices. The author draws the following conclusions from these statistics:

In 1910 the population of Alsace was 1,874,014 persons; for every 1,000 inhabitants there were in that year 18 artisans' workshops, with 4 apprentices between them. In 1921 the population was 1,709,749; for every 1,000 inhabitants there were 22 artisans' workshops, with 6 apprentices between them. The number of artisans' workshops and of apprentices employed in

⁽¹⁾ Julien Fontegne: Entretiens sur l'orientation professionnelle à l'usage des parents, des instituteurs et des conscillers de vocations. 31 pp. Strasburg.
(2) La Gazette des Métiers, 19 May 1922. Strasburg.

⁽³⁾ Total number of all boys leaving Strasburg primary schools between 1 April 1921 and 15 April 1922 was 1,277.

⁽⁴⁾ A large proportion of children leaving Strasburg primary schools at Easter 1922 are at present receiving vocational guidance; situations are being sought for them.

them has, therefore, increased between 1910 and 1921, and that in spite of a reduction in population. The ratio of the number of apprentices to the number of artisans' workshops rose from 25.57 per cent. in 1910 to 28.30 per cent. in 1921. This result is doubtless without parallel in the whole of France. It would be untrue to speak of an apprenticeship crisis in Alsace-Lorraine.

WORK OF THE LABOUR OFFICE OF NANTES

The Regional Labour Office of Nantes has recently published, in the form of a report edited by Mr. Thery, a summary of the results of its first experiments in the matter of vocational guidance.

Opened on 1 April 1921, the Office was intended not only for children still at school, but also for those who had left school some years. During the first nine months of its existence it received 720 visits, which may be classified as follows: children, 634 (254 different subjects); employers, 52; other visitors, 34. The report gives a detailed description of the methods employed by the Office: compilation of individual records, with the aid of the school and medical authorities; enquiry as to the wishes of the child; propaganda by means of leaflets; collaboration with a great variety of services between which the Vocational Guidance Committee acts as a link. A close examination of returns filled in by school children has enabled a comparison to be made between the occupation of the father and the wish expressed by the child with regard to its future career. It was found that "the younger the child, the more he is attracted by the occupation of his father. Towards the end of the school period, the tendency to follow in the footsteps of the father diminishes, increasing, however, rather suddenly at the moment when the child leaves school, and, the older the children are when they leave school, the higher is the proportion." Among children aged from 11 to 13 years this proportion does not exceed 15 per cent.; it is 29.5 per cent. in the case of children aged from 14 to 16 years.

Mr. Thery compares his enquiry, which covered 400 children, with a similar investigation undertaken at Geneva in 1918 (5), and states his conclusions in the following terms:

One might perhaps explain this home influence, which varies with the age of the school children, in the following manner. Up to 10 or 12 years of age, the personality of the child is as yet scarcely defined, and he only sees or understands what his parents do or say. He therefore intends to be later on what his father is now. Between 11 and 13 years his personality begins to become independent of home influence, and perhaps he is now more susceptible to outside influence, and is more inclined to fall in with the suggestions of his comrades who are learning a trade, which they talk of with the importance and enthusiasm of their age. There is, therefore, nothing astonishing if the occupation of the father finds less favour. Then suddenly the child will be called upon to take a decision. In a few months he will be leaving school. His hopes and desires will then have to reckon with necessities; failure in examinations, weak constitution, or any other physical defect, will all have to be taken into account. There is also an excess of candidates for certain occupations. Very often it happens that a child cannot follow out his desires, and as his ideas and those of his parents with regard to an occupation are very limited, and as their ignorance of possible openings is profound, the home influence gets the upper hand, and thus is explained why finally a youth tends to adopt his father's trade. Can we draw any practical conclusion from

these considerations? We think so. The occupation taken up does not seem to be, in general, the consequence of choice, but rather the result of suggestion. In these circumstances it is easy to see the importance of vocational guidance, especially as a means of suggestion.

THE NATIONAL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES

The National Vocational Guidance Association (6) continues its work of co-ordinating and amalgamating the efforts of the various associations set up in the United States to encourage and develop vocational guidance. The National Association comprises eight branch associations located in New York, Chicago, Minneapolis, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, New England, California, and Kansas City. These branch associations held their general meeting at Chicago from 23 to 25 February, in agreement with the Department of Labour, which had convened a conference on employment exchanges on the preceding day. At the same time as the meeting of the Association another conference was held on problems of vocational guidance arising in the colleges.

The conference discussed the following questions in full meeting: (1) the supply of information on occupations and trades to the schools (Miss Jane Addams); (2) the philosophical aspect of vocational guidance (Professor Tufts) and its sociological aspect (Miss Addams); (3) problems and tasks of the moment (Miss Woolley, President of the Association, and Mr. D. Davidson). Four special sub-committees were appointed to consider vocational guidance in the high schools and in rural districts, psychological tests, and the relations between employment exchanges and vocational guidance bureaux.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CORPORATION IN NEW YORK

On 16 February 1922 an association was established at New York under the title of the Psychological Corporation. Its objects were described as follows (7):

The application of psychology to business is to be tried by a group of psychologists who announced yesterday the incorporation of the Psychological Corporation Applied psychology received impetus during the war, when intelligence and other tests were designed to determine the fitness of soldiers. Some of the backers of the Psychological Corporation believe that it would be possible to increase by 70 million dollars the national wealth every year by properly fitting every man, woman, and child to the kind of work each could best perform.

The list of directors of the new corporation includes the most prominent psychologists in American universities. The officers include J. MacKeen Cattell, President, Walter Dill Scott and Lewis M. Terman, Vice-presidents, Edward L. Thorndike, and Dean R. Brimhall.

According to the terms of its charter "the objects and powers of this corporation shall be the advancement of psychology and the promotion of the useful applications of psychology. It shall have

^(*) Secretary, Anne S. Davis, Vocational Guidance Department, City Schools, Chicago.

⁽⁷⁾ New York Times, 17 Feb. 1922. New York.

power to enter into contracts for the execution of psychological work. to render expert services involving the application of psychology to educational, business, administrative, and other problems and to do all other things not inconsistent with the law under which this corporation is organised to advance psychology and promote its useful applications ".

The statement issued in connection with the charter makes certain

comments thereon.

There is much psychological work of economic value that might at present be undertaken to advantage and there are those competent to dothe work, but no satisfactory method exists for bringing them together. It is desirable to extend the work . . . and to provide more adequately for those who take up psychology, whether as an independent profession or in universities and other institutions.

Perhaps the greatest opportunity is the investigation of problems directly. or indirectly of economic value to individuals or groups, of which the work in industrial chemistry of the Mellon Institute of Pittsburg in an example. Some seventy fellows, mostly younger men, paid an average salary of about \$3,000, are engaged in research on problems of use to manufacturing chemists. The Psychological Corporation proposes to use the existing. laboratories, where the special work can be done to the best advantage, and thus to assist the universities and their psychologists.

The problem of selection for general intelligence and for special aptitudesor training is one in which psychology can be of great service at the present time. If standard tests are developed to be used everywhere, both among employees in groups and with individuals seeking employment or advancement, the Corporation can give useful employment to many psychologists, and probably earn sufficient income to carry on its work

and by research improve and standardise the tests.

TIME AND MOTION STUDY

Several reports have recently been published by the Industrial Fatigue Research Board of Great Britain on vocational selection and similar questions. Some of these have already been noted in the Review (8). Report No. 14, by Mr. Eric Farmer, deals with time and motion study (9). The author begins by defining time and motion study as follows:

Time study is the study of the time taken to perform each particular operation in an industrial task, and from the data thus obtained endeavouring to fix the proper time the task as a whole should take. Motion study is the study of the movements involved in a task with a view to eliminating such as are unnecessary, and improving those that are necessary. It may be divided into extensive motion study which is concerned with the larger movements of the body, and intensive motion study, which isconcerned with the smaller movements of the hands and fingers.

The author then describes the systems of Taylor and Gilbreth respectively. He criticises the inhuman side of Taylor's system and states that his most important contribution to the subject was his study of rest pauses. Gilbreth gave most attention to study of the movements required by any given task, making use of various methods. He took cinematographic records of movements timed to the tenth of

⁽⁸⁾ International Labour Review, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 988-990.
(9) Great Britain, Medical Research Council, Industrial Fatigue Research. Board: Time and Motion Study; Report No. 14, by E. FARMER. 63 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1921.

a second, and, in order to obtain greater accuracy, a cross-sectioned background and work bench were used to measure exact distances. Difficulty was still found, however, in visualising the exact path of each movement, and so the cyclegraph was invented. By this method motions are recorded by a small electric light attached to the hand or other moving part of the person employed on a task. The motion is recorded on an ordinary photographic film. By using a stereoscopic camera it was possible to see the path taken by the objects under observation in three dimensions. In order to obtain a time record an interrupter was introduced into the light circuit which caused the light to flash at an even rate at a given number of times per second. This record is known as astereocyclegraph.

Both Taylor's and Gilbreth's systems were based on speed. Gilbreth even went so far as to say that in teaching a new movement speed must be insisted upon from the very first. Farmer does not agree with this. He states that the organisation of work should be entrusted to scientists and not, to quote Hoxie (10), to men "poorly paid, with no

authority and little power of reasoning."

Much valuable time is lost in factories through defective organisation, shown in such ways as unsuitable tools, bad arrangement of working hours and rest periods. If work is carried on in a sitting position, the question of the type of seat is most important, and the fatigue curve of the worker may be considerably changed by an alteration in the seats provided. The essential features of the new method should be, first of all, that more account should be taken of physiological and psychological laws, so that all possible strain of the muscles and nervous system is avoided. Secondly, the new method should meet with the approval of the workers and should have the result of making them feel less tired and more satisfied with their work. In all cases that have come to the writer's notice where the principles suggested have been applied, increase of output and earnings has resulted, though in no case was any effort made to get workers to increase their effort.

In systematising any work, the most difficult thing to modify is the rhythm which each individual worker has adopted and to which he is accustomed. The worker himself believes that all his motions are necessary. When the motions which are actually necessary for a task have been determined, the motions resulting from the individual rhythm of each worker must be considered, to see how far they can be retained in order that the worker may feel at his ease. This is especially important in the case of workers of a certain age whose rhythm has become semi-automatic. In systematising work the endeavour should be not only to decrease physical effort, but to spare the worker as much conscious voluntary effort as possible.

The author then criticises time study as employed by Taylor and Gilbreth. Regrettable injustice is caused by giving additional remuneration for every increase of speed. Nothing is more dangerous than standardising work with a stop watch. According to the author of this report, the time factor has been given too great importance in time study. The general object should be to eliminate superfluous motions and to obtain a graceful and harmonious rhythm without hurrying the worker. Time study may be of value in testing the efficiency of a

⁽¹⁰⁾ HOXE: Scientific Management and Labour, p. 56. New York, Appleton 1916.

machine, estimating the amount of time lost in a badly organised plant, or in calculating the variations in output under different conditions of light and temperature.

Mr. Farmer then gives the results of certain experiments made in a confectionery factory. The first of these dealt with dipping, which consists of putting a centre (an almond, walnut, brazil nut, or caramel) in a basin of melted sugar with the left hand, covering it with sugar by working it with the fork held in the right hand, and then placing the finished sweet on a tray. This operation is repeated on an average 22,400 times per week, and the process is very fatiguing, as the girls stand over the basin of melted sugar, which is kept hot by means of a gas jet. The working hours are from 7.30 a.m. to 12.30 and 1.30 to 5.30 p.m., with intervals of half an hour in the morning and in the afternoon.

In spite of the fact that the work is comparatively simple, it was observed that output stood in direct relation to age and experience. In observing the workers who were the subject of the experiment it was found that 21 per cent. of the total working time was spent in unproductive labour. By replacing the old trays by larger ones and giving each worker a larger number of them unproductive labour was reduced to 7.44 per cent. Certain other minor alterations were introduced and the workers were put in a different room. It was observed after three months that these workers were producing 88 per cent. more than workers on the old method in the original room. This meant that girls of 14 and 15 were earning a sum equivalent to that earned by girls of 18 in the old room.

Another experiment was made on workers employed on bottling sweets. By systematising the work earnings were increased by 50 per cent. and the room used by the workers was able to accommodate 90 per cent. more workers than before the experiment was made.

GOVERNMENT REPORTS

COLLECTIVE AGREEMENTS IN SWEDEN IN 1920 (1)

HE annual reports published by the Swedish Social Board (Socialstyrelsen) have briefly indicated the main tendencies of collective agreements concluded in the course of each year. The present report analyses the whole body of agreements in force in Sweden on 1 January 1921. Of the two volumes the first gives a general idea of the scope of these agreements and also supplies statistical data as to the number of agreements in various industries which include certain basic clauses. These clauses refer particularly to workers' non-interference in management, right of association, settlement of disputes, methods of wages payment, holidays, compensation in case of accident or disease, etc. A comparison is attempted with previous reports and especially with the basic enquiry of 1907-1908, with a view to tracing the development of collective agreements during recent years. A table shows the wages stipulated in each agreement, together with wages rates for certain classes of workers. One chapter studies the forms of workers' organisation to be found in the different industries, and shows how the growth of the trade unions during the last ten years has been co-incident with the extension of collective agreements. In certain industries where the work presents special features a more detailed analysis is given of clauses relating to such subjects as hours of work and wages.

The second volume contains the complete texts of a number of typical agreements, selected so as to illustrate different industries. A few district or local agreements of special importance, and a few of the most typical agreements concluded with individual firms, are also included.

Number and Importance of Collective Agreements

The number of collective agreements in force at the end of 1920 was 2,278; to these 12,778 employers and 437,587 workers were party. There is no better test of the growing importance of collective agreements than the number of workers to whom they apply, and the number recorded has never been so great as it was at the end of 1920. Almost every industry of importance may now be said to be regulated by collective agreement. The number of agreements concluded in the different industries is shown in the table on the next page.

Contracting Parties

The larger number of collective agreements (1,476) were concluded by organised groups. In all cases where the employer belonged to

⁽¹⁾ Sveriges officiella Statistik, Socialstatistik, Kungl. Socialstyrelsen: Kollektivavtal i Sverige vid arsskiftet 1920-21. Del. I. Utbredning och Innehall, 190 pp. Del. II, Kollektivavtal i urval, 275 pp. Stockholm. 1922.

Groups of Industries	Number of collective	Number of contracting parties	
	agreements	Employers	loyers Workers
Extraction of minerals and metal working Earth, peat, and stone Forest and wood Paper and printing Food and drink Textile and clothing Leather, hair, and rubber Chemical Building Communal undertakings Shops and warehouses Land and sea transport Agriculture and fisheries Other industries	137 208 278 111 276 117 75 85 307 136 134 337 14 63	751 3J2 693 736 1,280 1,018 1,351 84 2,196 120 565 950 1,372 1,360	104,345 24,810 41,589 43,742 28,846 33,747 15,851 11,701 25,935 14,608 6,248 47,717 26,690 11,758
Total	2,278	12,778	437,587

an employers' association the workers also belonged to a trades union. Among the 802 agreements entered into with unorganised employers there were only 11 in which the workers themselves were also unorganised.

Areas covered

The larger number of agreements (1,150, covering 159,931 workers) concerned single undertakings; a comparatively smaller number (646, covering 53,946 workers) were agreements covering the whole or most of the establishments in a single industry in a particular place, while an even smaller number (49, covering 34,089 workers) were district agreements. A certain number of national agreements (33, covering 190,621 workers) were concluded, notably in the following industries: blast furnaces and steel works, mechanical engineering, glass making, carpentry and furniture making, paper making, flour milling, the tobacco, the textile, the tanning industry, boot making, manufacture of electrical apparatus, navigation, the restaurant industry.

Duration of Agreements

Owing to the instability of the labour market agreements have usually been concluded in recent years for short periods only. Thus 285 agreements, covering 37,997 workers, were concluded for less than one year; 1,406, covering 285,464 workers, for one year; 346, covering 81,649 workers, for from one to two years; and 203, covering 29,268 workers, for from two to three years; only 4 agreements, covering 777 workers, were valid for a longer period than three years. In 34 agreements, covering 1,432 workers, the time for which they were to remain in force was not stated.

The number of agreements expiring during the last quarter of the year was 876, covering 279,953 workers, or 64 per cent of the total number of workers concerned in collective agreements. It is usual for agreements to expire on 31 December, giving rise to a somewhat critical period in the labour market at the end of the year.

Notice before Leaving or Discharge

It was stipulated in 1,253 agreements, covering 206,550 workers, that a certain notice must be given by either side. This notice was fixed at one week or less in 689 agreements, covering 121,930 workers, at two weeks in 320 agreements, covering 62,891 workers, and at three weeks or over in 244 agreements, covering 21,729 workers.

Rights of Management: Freedom of Association

Among the clauses relating to the management of undertakings and to freedom of association must first of all be noticed Section 23 of the Rules of the Swedish Employers' Association, according to which the employers reserve to themselves the right of dismissing and engaging workers, of planning and distributing the work, and of employing workers whether they are organised or not. Clauses of this kind, with or without the addition of an article for the protection of the workers, were to be found in 1,602 agreements, covering 335,742 workers. Clauses for the purpose of ensuring to workers liberty of association existed in 1,626 agreements, covering 389,864 workers. In 788 agreements, covering 236,485 workers, it was laid down that foremen and other persons who might be considered to represent the employers should not be members of trade unions.

Conciliation, Arbitration, and Negotiation

For the settlement of disputes which might arise during the time for which the agreements were in force or out of their interpretation or application, 1,152 agreements, covering 237,971 workers, mentioned arrangements for negotiation, in the first place, between the parties direct, and, failing agreement, between the chief organisations on either side. In 639 agreements, covering 160,063 workers, it was laid down that disputes must come before a conciliation and arbitration committee; 20 agreements (covering 12,658 workers) extended arbitration to disputes on questions of principle.

Wages

A few agreements (26, covering 7,484 workers) provided for piecework rates only; a larger number (788, covering 91,666 workers) provided for time-work rates only, while the majority (1,464, covering 338,437 workers) stipulated or admitted both methods of wages payment. In the case of piece-work, 254 agreements, covering 80,584 workers, assured to the worker a 'guaranteed time-rate', i.e. that the piece-rates earned should not produce a wage lower than a certain guaranteed minimum, while 415 agreements, covering 93,762 workers, only made this guarantee in certain cases.

Hours

Since the working week had been reduced to a 48-hour week by the Act on hours of work, which came into force on 1 January 1920, collective agreements were, for the most part, confined to arranging the distribution of these hours over the week. In general, the hours of work were 8½ on the first five days of the week, and 5½ on Saturday. However, 83 agreements, covering 38,237 workers, provided for hours

of work exceeding 48 in the week; most of these covered classes of workers to whom the Act did not apply, such as agricultural labourers, hospital employees, hairdressers, and employees in restaurants and shops. A few agreements relating to certain classes of workers like miners, stove makers, chimney sweeps, etc., stipulated a shorter working week than the one laid down in the Act.

Overtime

Almost all agreements included provisions as to overtime; the number omitting mention of overtime was only 199, covering 25,626 workers. Overtime rates were for the most part fixed at 35 to 50 per cent. above normal rates; rates for special work were still higher, being 50 to 100 per cent. above the normal rates for night work, and 100 per cent. above the normal for Sunday or holiday work.

Holidays

The First of May holiday was provided in 1,846 agreements, covering 326,206 workers, either for the whole day or after a certain hour; 1,621 agreements, covering 278,955 workers, allowed workers the whole day or part of a day on the eve of a great festival; 1,052, covering 171,619 workers, contained clauses providing that workers should have an opportunity of taking part in national or communal elections. By the terms of 1,520 agreements, covering 321,333 workers, a number which represents not quite three-quarters of the total number of persons covered by collective agreements, workers had the right to annual holidays, the length of which was fixed at less than one week in 584 agreements, covering 190,732 workers, at one week in 541 agreements, covering 57,955 workers, at a number of working days varying between 7 and 11 in 156 agreements, covering 38,509 workers, and at two weeks or more in 239 agreements, covering 53,137 workers.

Insurance and Accident Compensation

Clauses relating to accidents were usually only an application of the legislation in force. Several agreements, nevertheless, imposed on employers more extensive obligations than those fixed by law. Thus 478 agreements, covering 35,488 workers, imposed on employers the obligation of insuring their workers for the period which elapses between the time they fall ill and the first payment of sickness benefit under the law; 726 agreements, covering 64,250 workers, fixed the minimum allowance payable over this period. By the terms of 87 agreements, covering 7,973 workers, workers were also to be insured at the cost of employers against accidents arising outside their work, unless the employer himself undertook to pay compensation should occasion arise.

Assistance during Sickness

In 739 agreements, covering 110,467 workers, employers guaranteed to their staff relief in kind for the duration of their illness; in general, the time during which relief was granted was limited, usually to three months. Eighty agreements, covering 12,135 workers, imposed on the workers the obligation of belonging to a sickness fund or stipulated that the employer should pay into one of these funds a certain sum for the

purpose of insuring his workers against this risk. Free medical attendance for workers at employers' cost was provided by 972 agreements, covering 239,544 workers; of these 643 agreements, covering 145,018 workers, extended this privilege to the family of the worker. In 291 agreements, covering 70,343 workers, the employers assumed responsibility for the cost of drugs, and in 410 agreements, covering 103,055, they undertook to pay hospital expenses.

Apprenticeship

Provisions relating to apprenticeship were included in 315 agreements, covering 41,028 workers. The most important were naturally those which referred to the wages of apprentices and the duration of apprenticeship; such were to be found in 306 agreements, covering 40,636 workers. Clauses limiting the number of apprentices in each establishment were included in 196 agreements, covering 12,529 workers, while 140 agreements, covering 19,754 workers, fixed a minimum age for the employment of apprentices.

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This is a questionnaire sent to all governments in view of the Conference which will meet in October 1922. An extract is given from the questionnaire sent out in 1921 prior to the meeting of the International Emigration Commission, and the answers of the governments. In addition the subject is treated in three sections: (1) communication of available documentary material; (2) form of presentation of existing statistics; (3) collection of statistical material on a uniform basis. The object is to obtain statistics and other information which is internationally comparable.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Accommodation for the International Labour Office. Extract from the report of the Finance Committee, approved by the Governing Body, and memorandum submitted by the Direction. 14 pp. Geneva. 1922.

— The Records of the Second Assembly. Plenary meetings held from 5 September to 5 October 1921. 904+vii pp. Geneva. 1922.

Verbatim report of the plenary meetings of the second Assembly. The texts of various reports, resolutions, etc. are given in a large number of appendices throughout the volume.

— The Records of the Second Assembly. Meetings of the Committees (II). Fourth Committee: Finances and Internal Organisation of the League. Fifth Committee: Humanitarian Questions. Sixth Committee: Enquiry into applications for Admission of States to the League and Political Questions. 604 pp. Geneva. 1922.

PERMANENT COURT OF INTERNATIONAL JUSTICE: Requests for Advisory Opinions transmitted to the Court, and the Resolutions of the Council of the League of Nations of 12 May 1922, with the text of these resolutions. Distr. 116. 1922. 11 pp. Leiden, A. W. Sijthoff. 1922.

Advisory opinions are requested on the two points: (1) Does the competence of the International Labour Organisation extent to international regulation of the conditions of labour of persons employed in agriculture? (2) Was the Workers' Delegate for the Netherlands at the Third Session of the International Labour Conference nominated in accordance with the provisions of part 3 of Article 389 of the Treaty of Versailles?

Convention germano-polonaise relative à la Haute-Silèsie, faite à Genève le 15 mai 1922. 309 pp. Geneva. 1922.

The fourth part (pp. 69-93) of the Convention between Germany and Polandrelative to Upper Silesia deals with employers' and workers' organisations, collective agreements, various kinds of social insurance, etc.

INSTITUT INTERNATIONAL D'AGRICULTURE, SERVICE DE LA STATISTI-QUE GÉNÉRALE: Recueil de cœfficients et d'équivalences. Cæfficients pour la conversion des poids, mesures et monnaies au système métrique décimal; tableaux d'équivalence des unités de mesure du système métrique décimal, enunités de mesures anglo-saxonnes. Fourth edition by M. A. Lucchese. 191 pp. Rome.

Conversion tables of metric and English money, weights, and measures.

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BELGIUM

Annuaire administratif de Belgique et de la Capitale du Royaume. XLIII+1231 pp. Brussels, Bruylant. 1922.

The Belgian official year book.

CHAMBRE DES REPRÉSENTANTS: Proposition de loi instituant l'Œuvre nationale des Loisirs du Travailleur. Nº 34. Séance du 2 février 1922. Discours de M. Louis Piérard, député. 31 pp. Brussels. 1922.

It is not sufficient, Mr. Piérard points out, to give the worker leisure; he must also be provided with the means for the healthy enjoyment of it, and be given other distractions than "the public-house - the poor man's drawing room - or degrading gambling in which he stakes his wages". This has been understood elsewhere, especially in England and the United States. In-Belgium itself, since the Armistice, an interesting beginning has been made; but the need has become apparent for a national organisation to co-ordinate the work of existing institutions and create new ones, and at the same time to serve as a centre for the exchange of information and for propaganda. Such would be the function of the National Workers' Leisure Organisation proposed by the present Bill. Naturally there is no question of exercising any sort of compulsion upon the worker, as some people have thought, nor of imposing upon him prescribed forms of recreation; the intention is solely to bring within his reach healthy amusements which will give him recreation and education at the same time. Among the means which could be utilised for this purpose may be mentioned gardening, physical culture, open-air life, artistic education (especially musical education), the theatre, and education in general subjects. The organisation should be completed by building in every commune a kind of workers' club, to which all could resort.

An appendix contains the text of the Bill, setting forth in detail the planof the proposed organisation. HAUT-COMMISSARIAT DE BELGIQUE DANS LES TERRITOIRES RHÉNANS, BURE'AU DES QUESTIONS OUVRIÈRES ET SOCIALES: Le marché du travail en zone belge d'occupation pendant l'année 1921. Coût de la vie et salaires au 31 décembre 1921. 69+vi pp. Coblenz. February 1922.

The Belgian High Commission has just published a study prepared by Mr. O. M. Gérard, which is a history of the labour market in the Belgian area of occupation during the year 1921. The principal questions therein examined are those of unemployment, labour disputes, cost of living, wages, and hours of work. There are tables showing the cost of living and wages as they stood on 31 December 1921. This publication, which is a sequel to two other similar studies which appeared on 15 November 1920 and 30 June 1921, will in future be issued every six months.

EGYPT

MINISTÈRE DES FINANCES. DÉPARTEMENT DE LA STATISTIQUE GÉNÉRALE: Annuaire statistique de l'Egypte, 1921. E. 13. 289 pp. Cairo, Bureau des Publications du Gouvernement. 1922. 30 piastres (Turkish).

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FRANCE

COMMISSARIAT GÉNÉRAL DE LA RÉPUBLIQUE, DIRECTION DU TRAVAIL; OFFICE DE STATISTIQUE D'ALSACE ET DE LORRAINE: Comptes rendus statistiques. La population d'Alsace et de Lorraine en 1921. Résultats généraux du recensement du 6 mars 1921. Fascicule No. 8. 60 pp. Strasburg, Imprimerie Strasbourgeoise. 1921.

A summary of the last census of Alsace and Lorraine.

MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL. CONSEIL SUPÉRIEUR DU TRAVAIL: Vingtcinquième session, novembre 1921. I: Compte rendu; II: Annexes. XIX+ 71 pp. Paris, Imprimerie Nationale. 1922.

The report of the 25th session of the Superior Labour Council. The appendices contain: (1) a report on the extension of the Act of 10 July 1915 amending Titles 3 and 5 of Book I of the Labour Code (wages of home workers in the clothing industry) to certain classes of work not covered by Section 33, presented on behalf of the Permanent Committee by the reporter, Mr. Edmond Briat; (2) a report on family allowances, presented on behalf of the Permanent Committee by the reporter, Mr. Pralon.

MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL. DIRECTION DU TRAVAIL: Statistique des gréves survenues pendant les années 1915, 1916, 1917, 1918. 312 pp. Paris, Imprimerie Nationale. 1922.

Strike statistics for the war years in France.

ALGERIA

GOUVERNEMENT GÉNÉRAL DE L'ALGÉRIE. DIRECTION DE L'AGRICUL-TURE, DU COMMERCE, ET DE LA COLONISATION, SERVICE DU TRAVAIL: Les lois ouvrières et les institutions sociales en Algérie. 31 pp. Algiers, Imprimerie orientale Fontana frères. 1922.

This short descriptive study, which is issued by way of information, and not as an expression of official views, briefly surveys labour legislation and social institutions as they exist in Algeria in 1922. As is pointed out in the preface, the application to Algeria of French laws for the protection of the

workers and for the improvement of their conditions of life constitutes a delicate problem, in view of the present state of industry and labour in that country. It must not be forgotten that in Algeria there are, besides the population of French origin, a compact group of native workers and a considerable number of foreign immigrants who are often unable to understand the sgnificance of social questions. For this reason there can be no strict and rapid assimilation of conditions to those of the mother country; the policy should rather be one of prudent adaptation admitting various methods of application.

GERMANY

REICHS-ARBEITSAMT: Arbeitsverhältnisse in den der Gewerbeaufsicht unterstellten Betrieben nach den Jahresberichten der Preussischen Gewerbeaufsichtsbeamten für das Jahr 1921. By Gewerberat Buys. Reichs-Arbeitsblatt No. 10, 31 May 1922, pp. 321-324. Berlin.

A summary of the labour inspectors' reports for 1921, containing statistics as to the number of firms subject to inspection and the workers employed there, the economic situation and the application of the 8-hour day and Sunday rest.

SAXONY

TARIFSTELLE DES SACHSISCHEN ARBEITSMINISTERIUMS: Lohn und Arbeitsbedingungen der gewerblichen Arbeiter, der kaufmännischen Angestellten, Beamten, und Werkmeister im Freistaat Sachsen nach dem Stande der Tarifverträge vom Ende Oktober 1921. 243 pp. Dresden. 1921.

This is a collection of statistical tables relating to labour and wage conditions among manual workers, salaried employees, civil servants, technical workers, etc. in the State of Saxony, under the collective agreements in force at the end of October 1921.

GREAT BRITAIN

MEDICAL RESEARCH COUNCIL, INDUSTRIAL FATIGUE RESEARCH BOARD: Two Investigations in Potters' Shops; Report No. 18, Potteries Series No. 1; by H. M. Vernon, M. D., assisted by T. Bedford. 74 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1922. 2s. 6d.

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SWEDEN

SVERIGES OFFICIELLA STATISTIK, SOCIALSTATISTIK; KUNGL. SOCIAL-STYRELSEN. Kollectivavtal i Sverige vid arsskiftet 1920-1921. Del. I. Utbredning och Innehall. 190 pp.; Del. II, Kollectivavtal i Urval. 275 pp. Stockholm, 1922.

This publication, dealing with collective agreements in force in Sweden in 1920, is analysed in this issue under the heading of Government Reports.

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ARNAUNÉ, Aug.: La Monnaie, le Crédit, et le Change. I. La circulation, ses instruments, son mécanisme. Ouvrage couronné par l'Académie des Sciences morales et politiques. Sixth edition, recast and brought up to date. x+293 pp. Paris, Alcan. 1922. 15 francs.

This volume which deals with currency, credit and foreign exchanges in general, will be followed by two others, one on metallic currency systems and the other on systems of fiduciary circulation.

BANQUE POUR LE COMMERCE ET L'INDUSTRIE A VARSOVIE: La Pologne-moderne économique et financière. 87 pp. illustrated, 1 map. Paris, Brussels, Antwerp, Rotterdam. 1922.

A description of economic and financial conditions in Poland today.

BELGISCHE TRANSPORTARBEIDERSBOND: De Belgische transportarbeidersbond vanaf de stichting in 1913 tot einde 1921. 231 pp. Antwerp. 1922. 5 francs (Belgian).

This publication traces the history of the Belgian Federation of Transport Workers from its foundation in 1913 until the end of 1921.

BERGER, Dr.: Fragen der Arbeit auf der internationalen Wirtschaftskonferenz in Genua. Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, No. 10, May 1922, pp. 316-319: Berlin.

This article deals with the work of the Sub-Commission of the Economic Commission at the Genoa Conference (April 1922) and with the resolutions adopted by the Economic Commission itself (1).

Bibliothèque d'information sociale. Edited by C. Bouclé. Paris, Garnier. 1921.

Under the direction of Mr. C. Bouglé, Professor of Economic History at the Sorbonne, a Library of Social Information is in process of formation which is intended to meet the needs not only of scholars and specialists but also of men of action and the general public. It will include books dealing with the moral, political, and economic condition of the various countries as they have emerged from the war; with the schemes which have been put forward and the experiments which have been made in the fields of education, industry and finance, in commencing the work of reconstruction; and the new forms which the relations between nations and between classes are assuming. The publishers consider that, now that the great war is over, what is most needed is extensive and accurate information on social subjects, as being the primary condition of any fruitful action.

Among the books already published which have reference to labour questions may be mentioned: Ch. Cestre: Production industrielle et justice sociale en Amérique (2); M. Leroy: Les techniques nouvelles du syndicalisme (3); Ch. Guignebert: Le Problème religieux dans la France d'avjourd'hui (4). Among the volumes now in preparation should by noted: M. Augé-Laribé: Le paysan d'après-querre and Prof. Ch. Gide, La coopération et l'après-querre.

BONNETT, Clarence E.: Employers' Associations in the United States. 594 pp. New York, Macmillan Company. 1922.

In the preface to this book the author points out that "books on tradeunions exist in abundance, but no book heretofore has confined itself to a discussion of employers' associations in the United States, or, for that matter, in any English-speaking country", and proceeds to make out a very good case why a movement of such great social significance should not be neglected in this way. The book itself consists of an introductory chapter on "The Industrial Conflict", thirteen chapters on as many typical organisations, and a chapter summarising the information given. The organisations selected include

⁽¹⁾ See International Labour Office: The Genoa Conference and the International Labour Office. Supplement to Industrial. and Labour Information, 2 June 1922, Vol. II, No 9.

^(*) See International Labour Review, Vol. III, No. 3, Sept. 1921, p. 404.

⁽³⁾ Ibid., Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 172.

⁽⁴⁾ See below, p. 309.

four associations in the iron and steel industry, two in the building industry, two in the printing industry, four associations having propaganda and legislation as their primary purpose, and one local association. Details are given as to membership, constitution, financial basis, obligations of members, and the objects and principles of the association, together with some account of its evolution and activities. Documentary evidence is usually cited in support of stalements made, and very numerous references are given to articles in general newspapers and periodicals, as well as to the literature issued by the associations themselves.

Bonnet, Georges, and Aubouin, Roger: Les Finances de la France. 381 pp. Paris, Payot. 1921. 7.50 francs.

This is a technical work dealing with the mechanism of French public finance (budget and taxation), the financial situation in 1921, and the means of restoring financial equilibrium in France.

Bowman, Isaiah: The New World. 632 pp. London, Harrap. 1922.

This book by the Director of the American Geographical Society of New York is an attempt to grapple with the problem of political geography as complicated by the war. Taking the countries of the world in turn, the historical evolution of their frontiers is traced and the contingent political difficulties explained. The insertion of 215 maps and 65 engravings is an invaluable aid to the fuller understanding of the text.

CALAMANI, Dott. G.: L'organismo della previdenza sociale in Italia. 36 pp. Milan, Cordani. 1922.

This volume is a reprint of the lectures given by Dr. Calamani to the doctors and surgeons of the Milan Clinic for Industrial Diseases in December 1921. It gives a brief summary of the nature and working of the various branches of social welfare and relief, followed by an examination of the present lendencies of social insurance in Italy.

CONFEDERAZIONE GENERALE DELL'AGRICOLTURA: Relazione confederale. 32 pp. Roma. 1922.

The Director of the Italian Confederation of Agriculture, Mr. A. Donini, submitted to the general meeting of the Confederation a valuable report, which has just been published. It contains interesting information on the work of the Confederation, its agrarian policy, and its affiliated organisations. Questions of agricultural legislation, such as the Bill relating to the *latifondi*, agricultural agreements, social insurance, etc., are dealt with in detail, as also are questions connected with commerce, agricultural credit, etc. With regard to international problems, the report refers to the participation of the Confederation in the Third Session of the International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1921) and explains the attitude maintained there by the representatives of the Confederation.

Dietze, Dr. C. von: Die deutschen Landarbeiterverhältnisse seit der Revolution. 237 pp. Berlin, Paul Barey. 1922.

This work, published in collaboration with the Institute directed by Dr. Max Sering, deals with the agrarian question and with the exploitation of land in the Berlin district, and also with problems of agricultural labour in eastern Germany. Taking the period of the German Revolution, as marking an important date in the agrarian history of the country, as his starting point, the author first of all studies the recent application of labour legislation to agriculture, and in particular the new German Order respecting agricultural labour, the Works Councils Act and methods of conciliation in agriculture. He then describes the professional organisations most actively concerned with questions of agricul-

tural labour in Eastern Germany. Labour and wage conditions in agriculture in Eastern Prussia, Pomerania, Mecklenburg, Schleswig and Brandenburg are also analysed. The last chapter includes a critical examination of the results obtained up to the present in matters of agricultural labour. The volume is completed by a series of statistical tables.

DOUGLAS, Paul, H.: American Apprenticeship and Industrial Education; Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law, edited by the Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University; Volume xcv, No. 2, Whole Number 216. 348 pp. New York, Columbia University. 1921.

This book includes a survey of the development and decay of apprenticeship in the United States of America, noting the modern revival of the system in Wisconsin. The author also considers in some detail the general educational requirements of modern industry and the conditions of labour of children and women in industry. Under the heading "Modern Substitutes for Apprenticeship" an exhaustive description is given of the various types of schools offering industrial education, analysing their comparative scope and value. After touching on the importance of vocational guidance in any scheme for industrial education, the author considers the general social and economic aspects of education. An interesting chapter outlines the respective attitudes of labour and capital towards industrial education.

The book is more than a historical and political study, however, as the concluding chapter puts forward constructive suggestions for increasing the efficiency and scope of industrial education in the United States. Chief among these may be mentioned the raising of the age of compulsory full-time school attendance to 16, with the necessary supplementary measures for the maintenance of the children so kept in school, and suitable modification of the curricula. The author also concludes that the part-time continuation school is the most valuable form of further education for industry and citizenship after the age of compulsory full-time attendance is passed. With this should go a greatly extended system of vocational guidance. He emphasises the value of collective action of employers and workers in organising and supervising the training of workers. The book closes with a useful bibliographical note, and as a whole provides a wealth of information on all matters connected with vocational education in the United States.

FARNHAM, Dwight T.: America vs. Europe in Industry. 492 pp. New York, Ronald Press Company. 1921.

Having to choose between the course of presenting "a mass of verified detail long after it had become ancient history and that of presenting the broad general facts at once", the author of this book decided to produce it as rapidly as possible "in the interest of standardisation of industry and elimination of industrial wastes". It gives a large amount of miscellaneous but useful information concerning industrial relations, organisation, conditions, technical and business methods, management, incentives, and opinions in Great Britain, Germany, France, and Italy. The facts are given from an American point of View, and in many cases comparison is made with the corresponding phases of industrial life in the United States.

FRANKFURTER ZEITUNG: Die Wirtschaftskurve mit Indexsahlen der Frankfurter Zeitung, No. 2, April 1922. 88 pp. Frankfort-on-Main.

This is the second number of a series of economic studies published quarterly by the Frankfurter Zeitung and gives a survey of industrial, commercial and financial conditions in Germany, together with international comparison of the volume of production of important commodities, and the value and volume of imports and exports, figures for a pre-war year being given in many cases in relation to present conditions.

With regard to labour conditions, special sections deal with wages, cost of living, and unemployment, particularly in the Frankfort-on-Main district. Graphic and diagrammatic presention is a feature of the publication.

GIDE, Charles. Cours sur la coopération, professé au Collège de France en 1921-22. Paris, Association pour l'enseignement de la Coopération. 1922.

The distributive co-operative societies decided three years ago to endow a Chair of Co-operation at the Collège de France, which was to be occupied by Mr. Charles Gide. The course opened on 1 December 1921, and the principal lectures have been reproduced in a series of pamphlets. As he was addressing an audience the majority of whom were neither officials nor members of co-operative societies, Mr. Gide avoided treating his subject from the technical point of view. Without entering into the internal working of co-operative societies he seeks to assign to them their true place in the economic system, and shows what effect they have had on that system and how it has re-acted upon them. At the same time he explains economic processes from the point of view of the consumer, and enquires to what extent the principles of co-operative organisation are in agreement or conflict with the "natural laws" of political economy. These questions are treated in a lucid and vivid style.

The pamphlets which have already appeared up to the present form two series under the following titles. First series: (1) La coopération, la place qu'elle réclame dans l'enseignement économique (23 pp. 0.75 francs); (2) Formation et évolution de la notion du juste prix (49 pp. 1 franc); (3) De la mesure des prix, comment on établit les nombres-indices (23 pp. 0.75 francs); (4) Les mouvements des prix et leurs causes (27 pp. 0.75 francs). Second series: (1) Fourier, précurseur de la coopération (18 pp. 0.60 francs); (2) Le phalanstère et le ménage collectif (23 pp. 0.75 francs).

GUIGNEBERT, Charles: Le Problème religieux dans la France d'aujourd'hui. xvi+322 pp. Paris, Garnier, 1922. 6 francs.

Leaving out of consideration both Protestantism and Judaism, Mr. Guignebert investigates the situation of Catholicism in France from the political, social, intellectual, and religious points of view. In the chapter devoted to the social aspect of the religious problem (pp. 87-130), he begins by defining the traditional attitude of the Church in social matters and by emphasising "the natural and spiritual incompatibility" which exists between the social doctrine of the Church and that of socialism. "At a very early period", he states, "the Church showed itself to be not an instrument of progress towards a better social organisation, but rather a pillar of conversatism". Then, in his study of the attitude of the Church since its separation from the State, he develops the idea that its new activity is merely part of a policy of opportunism; the many social institutions which it has created are "enterprises for consolidating and propagating Catholicism", which in spite of their apparent confusion form part of a general scheme. He concludes by saying that "there is no question that the conception of society which is gaining ground today is not the Church's conception, which belongs to the past..."

HAPGOOD, Powers: In Non-Union Mines. 48 pp. New York. Bureau of Industrial Research. 1922.

A graphic first-hand account of conditions of work in non-union mines in Central Pennsylvania, being part of a diary kept by a member of the United Mine Workers of America, who left Harvard in 1920 and went to work in coal mines in Montana and Colorado. His employment in the non-union mines was undertaken at the request of the Bureau of Industrial Research.

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HAYOTAMA, Dr.: Rapport sur la situation des Japonais résidant à l'étranger. 15 pp.

This report on the position of Japanese subjects resident abroad will be analysed in the Notes on Migration.

HEYDE, Ludwig: Abriss der Sozialpolitik. Second edition. 198 pp. Leipzig, Quelle und Meyer. 1922.

As he states in the preface to his book, Mr. Heyde has not tried to give more than a general outline of the basis and direction of social policy and legislation in Germany and Austria. Although he has left out of consideration legislation on behalf of those disabled in the war, and has only taken account of demobilisation measures in so far as they could serve as the basis of further development, he has nevertheless assembled a valuable collection of documents relating to the programme and history of social reform since 1848. In the third part of the volume he describes the state of social legislation in Germany and Austria in 1920. The fact that the development of their legislation was by no means completed at that time does not diminish the interest of the sketch, which has an undeniable historical value and might serve as the starting point for a study of later legislative development. The author does not confine himself to enumerating and commenting upon the various laws; he attacks the problems themselves and endeavours to find their solution.

INSTITUT GOSPODARSTWA SPOLECZNEGO: Rosja Sowiecka pod wzgledem spolecznym i gospodarczym. Vol. I, Part 1. 232 pp. Warsaw.

The Institute of Social Economy in Warsaw has undertaken the publication of a work in three volumes with the aim of presenting, in an objective form, the results of Bolshevism in Russia, results in which Poland, in view of her proximity to Russia, is especially interested. The Institute has been prompted to undertake this work by the universal interest which the situation in Russia has aroused, and the intention is to give a clear exposition of economic and political affairs in that country.

The work is edited by Professor Ludwig Krzywicki and the first part of Volume I has just appeared. It is divided into three chapters, the first of which deals with the Soviet industrial policy and its results and describes the organisation of the Supreme Economic Council. The second chapter treats of finance and includes divisions on taxation in money and in kind, banking, the paper money issue and the general financial policy of the Soviets. The third chapter deals with the agrarian policy, the organisation of the central and local agrarian bodies and the change in policy towards the peasants. The volume ends with a number of appendices containing the full text of the Soviet Constitution and the principal laws and Decrees relating to industry, finance, and agriculture.

The second part (which is still in the press) of Volume I will deal with co-operation, nationalisation of industry, labour organisation, working hours, labour protection, social insurance, and trade unions. The principal Decrees by which these matters are regulated will be added as appendices. The second volume will deal with economic conditions, transport, and the various industries, while the third will be devoted to foreign trade concessions.

It is a matter for regret that Professor Krzywicki's work should be issued in Polish only, as its usefulness to readers in Western Europe is thereby greatly restricted.

KAHN, Otto H.: A Plea for Prosperity. 32 pp. Europe and Ourselves. 17 pp. New York, The Committee of American Business Men, 1922.

A Plea for Prosperity is the reprint of an address delivered before the Association of Stock Exchange firms, New York City. Its main thesis is that the incidence of present-day taxation is unjust and uneconomic. The author urges the necessity of educating the public so that they may be able to distinguish between economic delusions and true remedies.

Europe and Ourselves, an address before the Advertising Club, New York City, declares in favour of the general remission of international debts. This policy is advocated not on sentimental grounds but because it is considered doubtful whether these debts ever will be paid for the most part, while it is not easy to see how America could receive them without damage to her own trade. It is pointed out that in any case the pledges which might he obtained in return for such remission and the prospective resultant trade improvement would be a better "dollar and cents proposition" than any attempt to collect them.

Luzzatti, Luigi: La Paix monétaire à la Conférence de Génes. 128 pp. Rome, Libreria di scienze e lettere. 1922.

A technical work in which Mr. Luzzatti advocates the creation of "An International Conference for Monetary Peace".

MARCH, L., MORET, J., HAWTREY, R. G., GIDE, Ch., AFTALIAN, A., BARONE, E., AUGÉ-LARIBÉ, RIST, Ch., LAZARD, Max, DUGÉ DE BERNONVILLE: Problèmes actuels de l'Economique. Special number of the Revue de Métaphysique et de Morale, April-June 1921. 477 pp. Paris, Armand Golin. 1921.

The aim of the Revue de Métaphysique et de Morale in publishing this series of articles is to present a synthesis, however incomplete, of the contribution which scientific opinion has been able to make in recent years to the great problems of economics. Mr. L. March shows how statistical methods can be applied to observation, classification, and the synthetic treatment of economic problems, as well as to the measurement of variability and covariations; Mr. J. Moret develops a general theory of exchange and equilibrium of prices; Mr. R. G. Hawtrey treats of the European monetary situation. Mr. Charles Gide demonstrates the importance of consumption in economic life; Mr. A. Aftalian describes the phenomenon of economic cycles, and endeavours to find its scientific explanation; Mr. E. Barone studies the working of producers' syndicates, trusts, and cartels; Mr. Augé-Laribé investigates the part played by the earth and by the forces of nature in modern economic systems; Mr. Charles Rist studies saving both from the social and the psychological points of view; Mr. Max Lazard explains and comments upon the theory of John B. Clark, the American professor, of the utilisation and remuneration of human labour; and, finally, Mr. Dugé de Bernonville describes the present state of the problems of vocational guidance and overwork. "The economic life of each individual", the author of the preface points out, "is more and more dominated by that of the whole community, and national life by international life. Our generation is called upon, after a gigantic catastrophe, to reorganise the system of production and exchange at once throughout the world and in each country. It tends, on the other hand, to group individuals according to their professional or class interests and to bring these groups into opposition. Thus it has never been more necessary to take a comprehensive view of the situation ".

MAURETTE, Fernand: Les grands marchés des matières premières. 198 pp. 18 maps, 3 diagrams. Paris. Collection Armand Colin (No. 18). 1922, 5 francs.

The author has made no attempt in this book to write what may be called a geography of commercial products; his aim has been to study "markets"; that is to say, certain privileged spots where raw materials are concentrated on their way from the places where they were produced to the places where they are to be worked up. The raw materials studied are coal, wheat, wool, cotton, silk, rubber, iron, and oil; they have been chosen in such a way as to provide an example of each of the characteristic types of market. A short bibliography is given at the end of each chapter for the raw material with which it deals. In addition a general bibliography indicates publications which cover the whole of the subjects treated.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD: Changes in the Cost of Living, July 1914-March 1922. Research Report No. 49, April 1922. New York, The Century Company.

This is the twelfth of the series of reports on changes in the cost of living prepared by this Board. The previous number was noted in the April issue of the International Labour Review. While in the eleventh report a comparison was made between the earlier figures and those of November 1921, the present volumes compare conditions in March 1922 with those in July 1914, July 1920, and November 1921. Detailed estimates of the change in cost of the separate items entering into the budgets have also been given. From the interesting figures supplied, as well as the usual cost-of-living curve given in the earlier pages of the book, it appears that the change in the total cost of living of average American wage-earning families between July 1914 and March 1922 was 54 per cent. From July 1920, when the rise in the cost of living since July 1914 reached its maximum, to March 1922 the average decrease was 24.4 per cent. In the four months between November 1921 and March 1922 the total cost of living decreased by 5.1 per cent.

— The Cost of Living among Wage Earners of the Anthracite Region of Pennsylvania. Special Report No. 21. vIII+41 pp. New York, The Century Company. April 1922.

This is the eighth of a series of studies made by the Board on the cost of living among wage earners in selected industrial centres in the United States, and deals with anthracite mine workers in Pennsylvania. A detailed investigation of the conditions under which these workers live has been made, as well as an attempt to arrive at their actual cost of living. The change in this cost since July 1920 has been estimated. For comparative purposes a family of five living on a fair American standard was taken as the basis for calculation. As regards food, a budget was drawn up with such items and quantities as will provide a diet which will furnish ample nourishment and variety. Under shelter both housing accommodation and water rate have been included, and the figures for the region as a whole have been arrived at by taking the simple average of figures for the three separate fields. Similar detailed investigation has been made under the heads of clothing, fuel and light, and sundries, in which have been included car fares, recreation, reading material, church, charity, insurance, medical care, etc. In addition to making an estimate of the cost of living for a family, an attempt has been made to arrive at the cost for a

A comparison of the cost of living figures for July 1920 with those of February 1922 shows that the average decrease for the whole region since July 1920 has been 20.7 per cent. in non-company-owned houses and 23.2 per cent. in company-owned houses. According to the figures collected monthly by the Board, the cost of living declined by 22.9 per cent. for the whole country.

PANNUNZIO, G.: La Russia dei Soviet. XII+178 pp. Maria Capua Vetere, Casa editrice La Fiaccola.

In the first part of his book, the author has brought together a series of articles which he contributed to two Italian papers when he was in Finland and Esthonia following the war between the White Army and the Bolshevists during the spring and summer of 1919. These articles were, on the whole, favourable to the Bolshevists, and for this reason they were not published in their entirety. It is on that account that they have now been republished.

In the second part, the author describes his impressions of Russia as it was in 1920, and gives details of the working of the Soviet administration, particularly as regards public education and relief.

PARKER, Cornelia Stratton: Working with the Working Woman. 246 pp. New York and London, Harper & Bros. 1922.

This book recounts the author's experience as an employee in a chocolate packing factory, a brass works, a laundry, a dress factory, a bleachery, and

an hotel. The conversation of the workers, their nature and outlook, and their physical and mental reactions to the various conditions of work are given in detail. The concluson reached is that "what industry needs more than anything else—more indeed than all the reformers—are translators—translators of human beings to one another".

PARTI OUVRIER BELGE. CONSEIL GÉNÉRAL: Compte rendu officiel du 35° Congrès annuel tenu les 15, 16 et 17 avril 1922, à la Maison du Peuple de Bruxelles. 90 pp. Brussels, Imprimerie coopérative bruxelloise « Lucifer ». 1922.

The official report of the last Congress of the Belgian Labour Party.

PLUMON: Guides techniques Plumon. Vol. XV: Les industries et connexes, by Alfred Renouard. Tome 1: Les industries du lin, du jute et de leurs succédanés. An illustrated systematic dictionary, classified by operations, in French, English, German, Italian. xxvi+565 pp. Paris and Liège, Librairie Polytechnique, Ch. Béranger. 1921.

The preface to this volume points out that the system of classification and enumeration adopted in the compilation of this series of technical guides makes it possible in every new edition to incorporate new words and omit or alter obsolete expressions. Thus these dictionaries can be constantly adapted to the continuous evolution of technical language.

Vol. XV, Section I, which deals with the flax industries, is divided into five-parts. Part I (Systematic dictionary, pp. 1-254) and Part V (Alphabetical index, pp. 413-528) form the dictionary itself, while the other parts provide useful information such as gauge and conversion tables, a bibliography, a list of technical schools, and index of tradesmen in the textile industry.

SAINT-PIERRE, Arthur: La question ouvrière au Canada. (Gosselin Prize). Preface by Edouard Monpetit. 63 pp. Montreal. 1920. 50 cents.

This is a reprint of a course of lectures given at the first Social Week of Canada and published in the *National Review* of Canada. Dealing first with working-class environment, the author gives figures on immigration and the rural exodus. In connection with the economic position of the workers he shows the fluctuations in wages and the cost of living since 1915 and gives useful information on unemployment, the employment of women and children, and hours of work. A special chapter is devoted to industrial unrest, strikes and industrial organisations, especially to the so-called International Unions (the name given in Canada to trade unions which are affiliated to the American Federation of Labour). The last few pages of the book deal with employers' associations and social legislation.

SAMAJA. Prof. Nino: Le malattie professionali dei ferrovieri. Communicazione al V congresso nazionale per le malattie del lavoro, 40 pp. Sindicato ferrovieri italiani. 1922.

This treatise on the occupational diseases of railwaymen is analysed in the account of the Fifth National Congress for Industrial Medecine in Italy which appears in this issue under the heading *Notes on Industrial Hygiene*.

SOCIETY OF INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERS: Industrial Stability: Complete Report of the Proceedings of the Seventh National Convention, October 1921; Publications, Vol. V, No. 5, 237 pp. Springfield. 1922.

The addresses and discussions at the Seventh National Convention of the Society of Industrial Engineers dealt chiefly with industrial stability. The questions of sales management and production management and the synchronisation

of sales and production were treated from various aspects in a number of important papers. Other subjects discussed were the elimination of unnecessary fatigue and the general question of standardisation in industry.

SREBRENO-DOLINSKI, Tchédomir: La réforme agraire en Yougoslavie. 283 pp. Paris, Ernest Sagot et Co. 1921.

This is a survey of the land question in the countries now known as Jugo-Slavia, their history being traced from the Middle Ages and some space devoted to conditions under the Turks. Agricultural problems are chiefly treated from a political point of view, but some interesting figures are given of the area of cultivated and uncultivated land, which seem to show that only in Old Serbia is there any considerable residue of land which cannot be brought under cultivation. It is stated that 85 per cent. of the population is engaged in agriculture and that in summer there is practically no limit to the hours of work, the working day being commonly of 16 to 19 hours. The regulations under which estates have been expropriated since the Armistice find a place in the book and are compared with land reform legislation in Roumania and Czechoslovakia.

STOYANOFF, Christo: Le travail obligatoire en Bulgarie. 97 pp. Sofia, Imprimerie de l'Etat. 1922.

The former Bulgarian Compulsory Labour Act, which was sanctioned by the ukase of 5 June 1920 and came into force on 14 June 1920, instituted compulsory labour in Bulgaria. Mr. Stoyanoff's little book describes the motives which dictated this measure, and maintains that the criticism that it aimed at a kind of secret military organisation was without foundation. Some idea is given of the working of the Act. The greater part of the book is occupied by a statistical enumeration of the various works which the application of the system made it possible to execute: excavation and levelling, highway construction, drainage, forest management, agricultural and constructional works, etc.

Union centrale des coopératives agricoles tchécoslovaques: Compte rendu pour l'année 1921. 79 pp. Prague, Ustredni Jednotij Hospodorskych, Druztev. 1922.

The Central Union of Agricultural Co-operative Societies in Czechoslovakia included on 31 December 1921 2,232 co-operative societies classified in seven

sections: credit and saving societies; those for storage and buying; for electrical and mechanical power; for the supply and sale of potatoes; artisans' cooperative societies; co-operative dairies; and flax growing co-operative societies.

The Central Union is the most important federation of agricultural cooperatives in Czechoslovakia. The balance sheet of 31 December 1921 shows an increase in its turnover of 60 per cent, as compared with the previous year. It succeeded in establishing at Prague in 1921 the Centrocoopérative, a federation of unions of agricultural co-operatives in Czechoslovakia.

The Central Union began also in 1921 to organise a Slav Chamber of Agricultural Co-operation. The latter at present includes 11 unions of agricultural co-operative societies in Russia, Ukraine, Jugo-Slavia and Czechoslovakia; and negotiations have been set on foot with the object of bringing in certain Bulgarian and Polish federations.

Union Suisse des Paysans: Vingt-quatrième rapport annuel. 104 pp. Brougg, Secrétariat des paysans suisse. 1922.

This report enumerates the federated societies which are grouped in the Union and notes that two were admitted in the year 1921, bringing their number to 49; the total membership of the associated societies is 364,428.

Sections of the report deal with the position taken up by the Union on various national questions, such as sickness and accident insurance, the customs

tariff and its application to agriculture, transport rates, unemployment, etc. The formation of a committee in the Grisons to combat the 8-hour day in general occupations is noted and approved, and in a section headed: "Regulation of the Hours of Work in Agriculture by the International Labour Office" the policy which the Union pursued with regard to the consideration of agricultural questions at the Third International Conference is briefly set out. It is suggested that the International Agricultural Organisation recently founded in Paris may with advantage assume the task of drawing the attention of governments and agricultural societies to the great dangers which the Union considers inseparable from the regulation of agricultural labour.

During 1921 the Union undertook an enquiry into the wages of agricultural workers; replies to the questionnaire have been received and the results of

the enquiry will be published in the current year.

VESTERINEN, Emil: Agricultural Conditions in Esthonia. 64 pp. Illust. Helsinki, Tietosanakirjei-Osakeyhtiö. 1922.

This booklet describes farming in Esthonia. A brief introduction, in two parts, outlines the position before the Republic was established, and also treats of geological, climatic, and geographical conditions. The chief industry of Esthonia is agriculture; it is stated that over two-thirds of the population are engaged in it. The pamphlet is mainly concerned with "land reform" and its results, and it is issued with the object of showing that farming in Esthonia has prospered under the new régime. Figures are given as to different classes of land with the proportion of arable to pasture, and stress is laid on the national desire for the spread of technical agricultural education.

WOLMAN, Leo: A Proposal for an Unemployment Fund in the Men's Clothing Industry. Amalgamated Education Pamphlets No. V. 24 pp. New York, Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. 1922.

Within the small compass of this booklet is contained an interesting contribution to the problem of unemployment insurance. It relates to the negotiations which took place between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and the employers in this industry, with a view to instituting by a collective agreement an unemployment fund supported by the employers. The author starts with the assumption that insurance may have a considerable preventive effect if its cost is defrayed by those who are in a position to reduce unemployment, that is to say the employers, and he therefore proposes that the insurance contributions should be fixed in such a manner as to favour those who succeed in reducing unemployment in their undertakings and to penalise those in whose undertakings it is excessive.

WRIGHT, J. C.: Vocational Education in the Pulp and Paper Industry. 71 pp. New York, Joint Executive Committee of the Vocational Education Committees of the Pulp and Paper Industry. 1921.

This pamphlet embodies the results of a survey of the pulp and paper industry made under the auspices of the vocational education committees of the Technical Association of the Pulp and Paper Industry in the United States and the Technical Section of the Canadian Pulp and Paper Association. After first outlining the arguments in favour of vocational education in general, the author points out the directions in which it may be applied to the particular industry under consideration, dealing especially with the occupations for which special training is required (comparatively few in the paper and pulp industry), types of schools and classes recommended, and qualifications and training of teachers. The second part of the pamphlet gives detailed job analyses compiled in typical factories, and a synopsis of the contents of previous volumes published on technical processes in the industry.

ZAGORSKY, M.: La nouvelle politique du Bolchevisme. 34 pp. Paris, Comité national d'Etudes sociales et politiques.

In order to follow the changes which are taking place in Russia some understanding of what the Soviets call the "New Economic Policy" is essential. The little pamphlet under review, which is a verbatim report of a lecture delivered by Mr. Zagorsky before the Comité national d'Etudes sociales et politiques, supplies the required information and will put the average enquirer in a position to follow further developments. In the discussion following the lecture the contention that Russia must always be an agricultural, not an industrial, country is considered and is shown to be a fallacy.

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