



INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

Trade Union Organisations

THE French Government has recently issued a Decree amending the conditions for operating the Act providing for an 8-hour day at sea. At the time when that Act was passed, it was fully expected that similar measures would be taken by other countries represented at the Washington Conference. Their failure to do so has, the shipowners state, placed the French mercantile marine in an unfavourable position from the point of view of international competition. The French seamen's organisation appealed to the International Seafarers' Federation to assist it to maintain the operation of the Act by agitating for the introduction of similar measures in the different countries and, if necessary, by striking. The International Seafarers' Federation rejected this appeal on the ground that present employment conditions made the successful issue of such a strike impossible. The French seamen then withdrew from the International Seafarers' Federation and now propose to organise an international conference to consider means of procuring the international adoption of the 8-hour day at sea.

While the tendency represented by the Berlin conference of revolutionary syndicalists is hardly important inasmuch as it has probably comparatively few supporters, it is nevertheless interesting as exemplifying the variety of currents which make up the international trade union movement. In effect, it is proposed to set up a third species of International, differing from that of Amsterdam in that it denies the possibility of progress by constitutional methods, including collaboration with governments and employers, and differing from that of Moscow in that it repudiates the centralisation and loss of trade union independence implied by the dictatorship of the proletariat. These revolutionary syndicalists insist on the adequacy of trade unions in a developed form to fulfil all the functions now exercised by governments and the present organs of the economic system. The same tendency manifested itself at the congress of the French General Confederation of United Labour, which showed a cleavage of opinion on the question whether trade unionism is to be absolutely independent or allied with some political revolutionary movement.

Attention may be directed to several other points of interest in this month's notes. The International Federation of Miners is to prepare a uniform programme of objects to be aimed at in each country represented in the Federation. In Australia a comprehensive scheme for the regulation of industrial relations was submitted to the Trades Union Congress. The first national conference of Chinese workers is a notable event. Chinese unions, which have existed for some years on the railways and in mining, must be distinguished from the ancient guilds of artisans which correspond precisely with those of mediæval Europe. The figures of the membership of trade unions in the United States which have been collected by Professor Barnett are especially valuable because no official statistics are published either for the separate States or for the Union.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

An international conference of revolutionary syndicalists met at Berlin from 16 to 19 June. The delegates mostly represented more or less anarchistic labour organisations or "minorities" of trade unions of various countries. The French General Confederation of United Labour had sent a delegation, but only in an advisory capacity. There were also present representatives of Russian trade unions not affiliated to the Moscow International, and a delegation of Spanish syndicalists. The conference was unanimously of the opinion that "the Red Trade Union International, both in principle and in virtue of its constitution, is not an international organisation capable of organising the revolutionary workers of the world in one compact fighting organisation".

It further declared that revolutionary syndicalism is a struggle not for political power but, on the contrary, for the abolition of the state, whether it takes the form of the dictatorship of the proletariat or any other. An executive committee was appointed to convene a world congress of revolutionary syndicalist federations, to be held from 12 to 19 November 1922.

The biennial congress of the *International Seafarers' Federation* was held at Paris on 2 August.

Two questions occupied the attention of the congress: first, the desirability of affiliation to the International Transport Workers' Federation, and, second, the internationalisation of the 8-hour day in the mercantile marine. Affiliation to the International Transport Workers' Federation was opposed, in particular, by the American and British organisations, on the ground that, when a ship comes into port, transport workers take over the work which should be done by seamen, obliging the latter to remain idle until the ship leaves for sea again. The question of the 8-hour day particularly interested the French organisation⁽¹⁾, which wished to know what support it might expect from the International Federation in its resistance to the Decree amending the operation of the Act establishing the 8-hour day on board ship.

Affiliation or co-operation with the International Transport Workers' Federation was made conditional upon acceptance of the condition that the work of seamen should not be interfered with in any ports, but should be left to seamen in ports where there are harbour workers just as in ports where there are none.

In the matter of the struggle to maintain the 8-hour day, the President (Mr. Havelock Wilson) stated that, although British seamen were anxious to help French seamen in every possible way, the latter must not expect that the British Federation could give them any but financial aid. He considered that to call an international conference of seafarers, as the French delegate proposed, could have no result, as in the present circumstances a strike on the question of hours of labour was bound to fail. The representatives of the United States (Mr. Furuseth), Denmark, and Sweden (Sailors' Union) all declared that it was impossible for the seamen in their countries to take part in a strike. The French representative (Mr. Rivelli) said that French seamen did not ask other seamen to strike. He reviewed the situation since the congress of the Federation in Brussels in August 1920

(1) See below, under *National Organisations: France*.

and recalled that, whilst Belgium had suggested a strike, the French seamen had proposed arbitration through the International Labour Office. This led to an international conference of shipowners and seamen. He was of opinion that the International Seafarers' Federation should agitate in all countries in order to assist French seamen if they came out on strike. The French seafarers fully understood the position in regard to the transport workers, and if they were obliged to leave the International Seafarers' Federation in order to join the International Transport Workers' Federation, they would first obtain a guarantee that transport workers should not do the work of seamen.

The sixteenth congress of the *International Federation of Miners* was opened at Frankfort on 7 August, under the chairmanship of Mr. Herbert Smith, President of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain. Eleven countries, with a total membership of 2,128,000, were represented: Australia, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and the United States.

The chief business of the congress was to determine a plan of campaign to be pursued by each national organisation. To this end it was decided to disseminate "the most detailed possible information to miners of all countries concerning working conditions in the mining industry throughout the world" by the publication of a monthly bulletin in German, French, and English. Further, the International Executive Committee was instructed "to prepare a uniform programme of the objects to be aimed at in the mining industry in all countries, based as far as possible on the decisions adopted by congresses of the International Federation of Miners. Each national or central organisation affiliated to the Miners' International shall be invited to strive for the attainment of these objects in its own country". The programme would include important reforms such as minimum wage rates, based on the cost of living; holidays with pay; social insurance; pensions; and workers' control.

A resolution was adopted in favour of fixing the hours of work in mines at 7 per day, including descent and ascent. They should be reduced to 6 and even 5 in the case of mines where work has to be carried on at a high temperature. A donation of £10,000 was voted to the American miners on strike. With regard to the nationalisation of mines the congress unanimously confirmed the resolution on this subject passed by the previous congress held at Geneva in 1920⁽²⁾. This resolution directed the International Executive Committee to do all in its power to introduce nationalisation in all countries, and engaged all the national organisations to carry out the instructions of the Committee.

It was decided that the international congresses should be held in future once in two years, except in case of serious emergency.

The first international congress of *Christian Postal Unions* was held at Salzburg on 15 and 16 July. Delegates were present from Austria, Germany, Italy, and the Netherlands; the Belgium and Hungarian organisations, though not represented, sent messages declaring their adherence.

It was unanimously decided to form an International Federation of Christian Postal Unions, and a committee was elected to draw up

(2) INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Studies and Reports*, Series A, No. 7.

the statutes. The congress passed a resolution protesting against the tendency in various countries to hand over public services to private enterprise.

NATIONAL ORGANISATIONS

British Empire: Great Britain

The annual meeting of the General Council of the *General Federation of Trade Unions* was held at Dumfries on 13 and 14 July. Over 70 delegates attended, representing 126 affiliated societies with a membership of 1,371,634.

The annual report showed a decrease of 211,424 members since 1921, but the figures are still higher by 156,527 than in 1919. The Secretary, Mr. Appleton, in his introduction to the report severely criticised those who are "always susceptible to the glamour of highly coloured promises". "It was pleasanter and easier to talk to them [the workers] about new heavens and new earths than it was to tell them that because of the circumstances that had arisen in 1914 and had developed continuously up to 1919, they had to work harder now than they worked before, and that they might have to work harder still. . . ."

The Council passed a resolution in favour of "approaching the Trades Union Congress General Council for the purpose of consultation upon the general position of the General Federation of Trade Unions and its association with the national trade union movement" with the object of attaining unity of policy in the movement. Resolutions were also passed regretting "the action of the Government in their refusal to confirm by legislation the agreement concluded at the Washington Conference for the reduction of working hours to not more than 48 per week", and condemning the Trade Union Act (1913) Amendment Bill⁽³⁾.

Australia

The *All-Australian Trades Union Congress*, meeting at Melbourne from 26 to 30 June, devoted itself principally to the subject of the socialisation of industry. The discussions resulted in a reaffirmation of the programme which was adopted by the congress of June 1921⁽⁴⁾, which advocated socialisation of the means of production, distribution, and exchange. The congress also called upon the State branches of the Australian Labour Party to present a uniform political policy throughout Australia.

A sub-committee which had been appointed to consider the questions of hours and wages submitted a draft scheme designed to deal with the present situation in regard to wages and hours. The scheme is proposed subject to the acceptance of certain basic claims of the workers, which include:

Repudiation of the principle in practice that any section of the workers is entitled to no more than a bare living wage;

Adequate provision for the unemployed as a legitimate charge upon industry;

Federal (as opposed to State) regulation of wage and hours;
Equal pay for the sexes.

⁽³⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 377.

⁽⁴⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 3, Sept. 1921, p. 281.

The draft scheme itself is as follows.

(a) A Commonwealth (Federal) Council of industrial representatives. Composition : equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives, with an impartial chairman nominated by common consent.

(b) Six State councils. Functions : conducting enquiries into State matters relative to wages, hours, disputes, industrial development.

(c) State industrial tribunals. Functions : dealing with, and determination of, restricted industrial matters concerning organisation, disputes, etc.; enquiries relative to wages, hours, costs, prices, etc.

(d) Local boards and works councils. Functions : dealing with, and determination of, shop organisation, factory management, legal disputes, industrial hygiene, and safety appliances.

(e) Appeal tribunal. Composition : three representatives each from employers and workers with impartial chairman elected by common assent. Function : to provide a final board of appeal in cases where the decisions of councils (a) and (d) above are not accepted.

India

The *Bengal Trade Union Federation*, in a letter to the Government of India dated 27 July 1922, has given its views on the subject of legislation for the registration and protection of trade unions. The attitude of the Government of India was stated in its Circular dated 13 September 1921⁽⁵⁾, and it is to this Circular that the letter refers. The Federation approves the Government's view that, for their own protection and guidance, trade unions should be registered and governed by definite rules. It does not, however, consider that trade unions need to be defined for the purpose of registration. They should be allowed to include in their constitution any lawful purpose they please; in particular, their political activities should in no way be hindered. Registration should be optional; nevertheless, it should confer privileges which would make it advantageous. A registered trade union should have "legal status like a statutory corporation or joint-stock company", but at the same time it should be allowed entire immunity from liability for wrongful acts committed by its servants (British Trade Disputes Act 1906). The legality of strikes and peaceful picketing should be recognised.

France

The first congress of the General Confederation of United Labour (*Confédération générale du Travail unitaire*) was held at Saint-Etienne from 26 to 28 June. The Confederation is stated to comprise 71 unions and 37 federations.

The most important question before the congress was that of trade union policy, national and international. Two very long resolutions on this subject were submitted to the congress, one by Mr. Monmousseau and the other by Mr. Besnard. They correspond in many respects. Recalling the terms of the Amiens Charter, they advocate class struggle, the general strike as a weapon, and a social order organised on the basis of trade unions undertaking themselves the business of production and distribution. They condemn any permanent collaboration between employers and workers, and reject the policy of making the general interest a foremost consideration. They invite, however, the co-operation of technical workers. Workers' control is to be developed in industry by means of factory committees in close relations with trade unions.

Both resolutions desire to preserve the autonomy of the French trade union movement, but whereas the Monmousseau resolution expresses

⁽⁵⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 71.

willingness to co-operate with political parties in order to bring about revolution, the Besnard resolution does not. The difference in the two points of view may be illustrated by extracts.

Monmousseau resolution

The revolution is not intended to serve the interests either of trade unionism or of political parties, but trade unionism and really revolutionary parties are intended to serve the interests of the revolution.

Besnard resolution

The revolution is a means, a fact, but not an idea ; it should be utilised by revolutionary forces for the liberation of the proletariat, in which trade unionism is at once the principal factor and the sole mode of realisation.

The Besnard resolution insists upon pure syndicalism ; production and distribution of goods, administration of public and social life—all these are to be the duties of a developed trade unionism. In so far as this policy involves abolition of the state, it may be called anarchist. Mr. Monmousseau's partisans, on the contrary, advocate the dictatorship of the proletariat as a means of establishing the revolution.

The Monmousseau resolution was carried by 741 votes to 406, the final paragraphs defining the attitude of the Confederation to the Moscow International being as follows :

The Congress declares that the General Confederation of United Labour adheres to the Moscow International Federation of Trade Unions on the express condition that its constitution shall respect the autonomy of the French trade union movement, and it asks the Moscow International Federation to modify its constitution with this object in order that the position of the French trade union movement may at last be regularised.

The Congress instructs its delegates at international congresses to support the principle of the Moscow International Federation in relation to the Third Communist International and to vote against the application of Article 11 of the constitution of the International Federation of Red Trade Unions.

Article 11 provides for organic connection between the trade union and political Internationals. In declaring its opposition to interference by the Third Communist International in trade union affairs, the French Confederation is re-affirming the attitude which it adopted at the first congress of the Moscow International Federation in July 1921 (*).

As was stated above, the French Government has recently issued a Decree amending the conditions for operating the Act providing for an 8-hour day at sea. The National Council of the Federation of Seamen's Unions (*Fédération des syndicats maritimes*) had previously issued a protest against this proposed action of the Under-Secretary for the Mercantile Marine. The protest argues that such suspension would not place French shipping in a position of equality as compared with its chief foreign competitors, since "the charges on shipping due to the application of the 8-hour day form only an insignificant proportion of the general expenses of the French mercantile marine", and "wage rates current in the French mercantile marine are so moderate, as compared with the rates paid by the most dangerous foreign competitors, as to compensate for the burden of which complaint is made". The National Council characterised the proposal as "veiled attack on a great principle of social improvement embodied in the Preamble of Part XIII of the Peace Treaty", and threatened a general strike if the Decree

(*) *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 1, Oct. 1921, pp. 48-49.

were issued. A 23 hours' strike was accordingly carried out on 16 September (?).

In view of the decisions of the congress of the International Seafarers' Federation ⁽⁸⁾ the National Council, meeting on 5 August, resolved to withdraw from that organisation, and to organise an international conference to consider means of bringing about the internationalisation of the 8-hour day on board ship.

The national councils of the unions belonging to the Postal Federation (*Fédération postale*) ⁽⁹⁾, which is affiliated to the General Confederation of Labour, met in Paris on 16 July. Protest was made against the proposal to transfer state monopolies, in particular the telephone system, to private industry, on the ground that "the unsatisfactory working of the postal, telegraph, and telephone services is due, not to the fact that they are run by the state, but largely to the fact that the credits necessary for the maintenance and extension of the monopoly have always been reduced or even refused".

The National Council of the Postal Federation, meeting on 17 July, passed a resolution to the effect that the Federation would at once begin a campaign against the Bill concerning conditions of service of civil servants and against the proposed restriction of their civic rights, and pledging the Federation to take advantage of the election campaign in 1924 in order to secure unrestricted trade union rights for all workers in the public services.

The first congress of the United Federation of State Workers (*Fédération unique des Travailleurs de l'Etat*) was held at Paris from 5 to 6 July. The Federation replaces the Federated Union of State Workers (*Union fédérative des travailleurs de l'Etat*) ⁽¹⁰⁾. It comprises 77 organisations representing the civilian workers in powder factories, War Office, and Admiralty, workers in the Mint, the Gobelins factory, etc. The congress adopted a lengthy resolution protesting against the Bills to be laid before Parliament having as their object the handing over of state productive undertakings to private enterprise. It recommended that these undertakings should be re-organised under the management of works councils on which workers would be represented, and should enjoy financial autonomy under the supervision of the state.

Germany

The congress of the Federation of Factory Workers (*Verband der Fabrikarbeiter und arbeiterinnen Deutschlands*) was held at Frankfurt from 9 to 14 July. The Federation has a membership of 681,971, of whom 188,732 are women.

The congress rejected a motion to cease co-operation in the joint industrial associations (*Arbeitsgemeinschaften*), but nevertheless decided not to co-operate with them in the conclusion of collective agreements.

(?) See also next article : *Employers' Organisations, France*, p. 570.

(8) See above under *International Organisations : International Seafarers' Federation*.

(9) *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 42. The Postal Federation consists of the National Union of Postal Officials (*Syndicat national des agents des P. T. T.*), the Postmen's Union (*Syndicat général des employés des P. T. T.*), and the General Union of Technical Workers in the Post Office (*Union générale des services techniques des P. T. T.*). The title of this last union was attributed in error to the re-constituted Postal Federation in the July issue.

(10) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 69.

The congress also rejected a resolution against working in conjunction with the Christian and Hirsch-Duncker trade unions.

On the question of organisation, the congress declared the decision of the Leipzig Trade Union Congress as to the formation of industrial federations⁽¹¹⁾ to be incompatible with the existence of the Federation of Factory Workers. The Federation includes 69 per cent. of the workers in the oil and fats industry, 76.5 of those in the earth and stone industry (production of building materials), and 81 per cent. of those in various branches of the food industry.

On 18 June a new organisation was formed at Leipzig under the title of General Federation of Civil Servants' Associations (*Allgemeiner Deutscher Beamtenbund*), which in general policy will fall into line with the General Federation of German Trade Unions (*Allgemeiner Deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund*) and the Federation of Non-Manual Workers' Unions (*Afa-bund*). Among the ten organisations affiliated the largest are the German Railwaymen's Union (*Deutscher Eisenbahnverband*), with 450,000 members; the National Union of German Railway Officials (*Reichsgewerkschaft deutscher Eisenbahnbeamter und -Anwärter*), with 220,000; the National Union of Foremen (*Deutscher Werkmeisterverband*), with 148,000; and the Federation of Technical Non-Manual Workers and Officials (*Bund der technischen Angestellten und Beamten*), with 94,000. The secession of the Railway Officials from the Federation of Associations of German Civil Servants (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*) was foreshadowed in April when a difference arose on the question of the right of civil servants to strike⁽¹²⁾. In the middle of June the Railway Officials actually withdrew and formed an alliance with the Railwaymen, which developed into the new organisation.

The Christian Metal Workers' Union (*Christlicher Metallarbeiterverband Deutschlands*), which began the year 1921 with a membership of 219,423, succeeded in increasing it by 15,029 in the course of the year. The Union defended the interests of its members in 2,531 wage and other disputes. At the end of 1921 there were 304 collective agreements in force in the conclusion of which the Union had participated.

Switzerland

Swiss railwaymen were organised in four separate unions until 1 January 1920, when they amalgamated as a result of experience gained during the war (wage movement campaign for the 8-hour day, general strike in 1918) and formed the Federation of Railwaymen (*Eisenbahnverband*). At the end of 1921 the Federation had a membership of 42,600, which included almost 98 per cent. of the workers on state railways and private railway, tramway and steamer companies. In 1921 the Federation was very active in all matters relating to labour conditions and labour legislation.

Belgium

The twenty-first Trade Union Congress was held at Brussels from 15 to 17 July⁽¹³⁾; 42 delegates represented 29 national organisations with 706,592 members. A resolution was carried unanimously assuring the German proletariat of the sympathy of Belgian workers and

⁽¹¹⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, pp. 376-377.

⁽¹²⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 42-43.

⁽¹³⁾ For the previous congress see *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, No. 3, Sept. 1921, pp. 45-46.

"their fervent desire to see it triumph in its struggle against reaction for the maintenance of a democratic Republic and the social liberties won". Another resolution was adopted in support of state employees in their struggle to maintain or win trade union and political rights, and more specially the right to strike. Reports were presented on workers' control and compulsory arbitration, but no decisions were reached, as the majority of delegates had already left when the debate ended; further discussion on these problems will therefore be deferred to the next congress.

A congress of the Christian Federation of Workers in Public Services (*Centrale chrétienne des services publics*) was held at Brussels on 16 July with a view to the formal organisation of a Christian federation of manual and non-manual workers employed in public utility services. The congress adopted a programme which corresponds generally with that adopted by the International Congress of Christian Trade Unions⁽¹⁴⁾. It was announced that the Belgian General Confederation of Christian Trade Unions will submit to the International Labour Office a proposal for the legal regulation of the conditions of service of manual and non-manual workers in public services.

Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden

The postal employees' organisations in the three Scandinavian countries constituted a Northern Postal Employees' Alliance (*Nordiska Postmannauunionen*) on 1 July 1922. Joint meetings have taken place since 1911, but the three national organisations have pronounced in favour of closer and more permanent co-operation. The unions comprised in the Alliance have a membership of 12,000. The Finnish union has been invited to join and is expected to do so as soon as the rate of exchange becomes more stable.

Austria

The General Federation of Trade Unions (*Gewerkschaftskommission Oesterreichs*) has recently published statistics of its membership and activities. Its membership has almost quadrupled since 1913, and was 1,079,777 at the end of 1921; during the same period the proportion of women members rose from 10.6 to 24.2 per cent. Of the total membership 760,581 or 70.4 per cent. were manual workers, and 319,196 or 29.6 per cent. were non-manual workers.

The unions with the largest membership in 1921 were the following:

Metal workers	170,609	Commercial and	58,254
Railwaymen	106,732	transport workers	
Agricultural workers	71,031	Mercantile employees	41,238
Building trade workers	88,453	Industrial employees	47,959

China

The first National Conference of Chinese Workers was held at Canton from 1 to 6 May. It was attended by 162 delegates from 12 cities, representing over 300,000 workers. The following resolutions were adopted:

- that principles for organising a National Federation of Labour should be formulated;
- that a national jinrickshaw coolies' union be formed;
- that for the time being the labour movement should be economic rather than political in character;

⁽¹⁴⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 207-208.

that the unions should stand for an 8-hour day ;
 that throughout the duration of a strike all unions should pledge financial support ;
 that plans should be made for a second National Labour Conference.

United States

Professor Barnett, of Johns Hopkins University, has recently worked out statistics on the growth of trade unionism in the United States from 1915 to 1920 ⁽¹⁵⁾. The membership of individual "international" unions in 1920 has been given in a previous issue of the *Review* ⁽¹⁶⁾. The following table, based on Professor Barnett's figures, shows the increase of trade union membership between 1915 and 1920.

Years	Number of unions	Number of members	Percentage increase from one year to the next
1915	134	2,567,700	—
1916	134	2,755,400	7.3
1917	132	3,041,500	10.4
1918	130	3,450,200	13.4
1919	129	4,095,800	18.7
1920	129	4,924,300	20.2

The number of unions in the United States has hardly altered between 1915 and 1920 ; the creation of several new unions has almost entirely replaced the loss occasioned by the disappearance of certain unions or by their amalgamation with others. On the other hand, the number of members continually increased until 1920. The approximate number of workers organised in the different groups of industries is shown in the following table.

Groups of industries	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Mining and quarrying	331,900	337,600	373,400	443,200	414,600	417,700
Building	532,700	552,900	606,500	700,600	801,800	887,900
Metal, machinery, and shipbuilding	220,400	263,100	305,500	396,200	615,900	836,500
Paper, printing, and bookbinding	115,200	125,700	136,800	144,000	147,600	163,600
Lumbering and wood working	21,100	18,000	18,300	14,300	15,700	24,400
Chemical, clay, glass, and stone	53,100	52,100	51,700	51,000	48,200	51,700
Food, liquor, and tobacco	111,100	108,200	108,700	108,200	101,500	115,600
Restaurant and trade	88,500	88,000	95,700	114,300	147,100	151,500
Textile	23,300	29,800	41,500	50,300	59,900	109,000
Clothing	170,000	203,900	214,300	247,600	312,700	362,400
Leather	50,300	56,800	62,800	82,900	83,500	91,400
Transport	576,000	623,300	695,400	777,300	958,800	1,216,700
Theatres and music	86,700	87,100	83,700	86,600	86,900	96,500
Public services	76,700	81,500	89,500	95,300	126,700	160,000
Miscellaneous	110,700	127,400	157,700	168,400	175,900	240,700
Total	2,567,700	2,755,400	3,041,500	3,450,200	4,095,800	4,924,300

⁽¹⁵⁾ *American Economic Review*, Vol. XII, No. 1, Mar. 1922, Supplement, pp. 44-45.

⁽¹⁶⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 883-886.

Among the groups with the largest membership the smallest increase has occurred in the mining and quarrying industry. It only amounts to 26 per cent. as compared with 67 per cent. in the building trades, 111 per cent. in the transport industry, and 280 per cent. in the metal, machinery, and shipbuilding industries.

Professor Barnett, whose studies of the development of trade unionism in the United States cover the period since 1897, distinguishes four periods in its history. Between 1897 and 1904 the number of trade unionists in America increased from half a million to more than two millions. The period from 1904 to 1910 is characterised by fluctuations, the total membership remaining about two millions. During the three following years, the figure reached nearly two and three-quarter millions. The progress of the movement was hindered by the industrial depression of 1914; in 1915 the number of members fell to about two and a half millions. In the period between 1916 and 1920 the upward movement was resumed, and the total membership increased by nearly 92 per cent.

In 1900 the total number of trade unionists only amounted to 3.5 per cent. of the gainfully occupied population of the United States; in 1910 the proportion was already 5.6 per cent. In 1920 the total trade union membership represented 12 per cent. of the gainfully occupied population. In spite of this considerable increase in the number of trade unionists in the United States during the last five years, the development of workers' organisations in that country is very slight compared with that of several European countries; in the United Kingdom, Germany, and Belgium the number of organised workers is at least 50 per cent. of the industrial population (¹⁷).

Employers' Organisations

OPPPOSITION to the rigid application of the 8-hour day continues to be one of the most prominent activities of employers' organisations. In the following notes the attitude assumed by the Swedish Employers' Federation is to be compared with the position taken up by the Central Committee of French Shipowners, who see a possible solution of the problem in the 'internationalisation' of the 8-hour day.

In the United States the need felt for the rapid training of skilled craftsmen is giving occasion to some interesting experiments in apprenticeship training in New York and San Francisco. The study of national trade associations prepared by the National Association of Manufacturers, summarised here, gives an interesting review of the work of employers' associations in the United States.

France

The Under-Secretary of State for the Mercantile Marine has recently issued a Decree amending the regulations applying the 8-hour day to the work of seamen. The National Council of the Federation of Seamen's Unions (*Fédération des syndicats maritimes*), at a meeting held on 31 July, adopted a resolution attacking the Decree and threatening a general strike if it were ratified (¹).

(¹⁷) *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, Nos. 1-2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 78-109.

(¹) See previous article, *Trade Union Organisations: France*.

The Central Committee of French Shipowners (*Comité central des Armateurs français*), in a statement issued on 2 August, regretted that the Seamen's Federation had chosen to consider the question of the 8-hour day, a purely economic matter, from a political standpoint. This was the more inexplicable since the shipowners have never opposed the principle of the 8-hour day, but simply demanded that the measures for carrying this principle into effect should be suspended, or, failing that, relaxed pending an international Convention for regulating the whole question. The statement continues :

Some months ago it seemed as if the leaders of the Federation had realised the extent of the burden inflicted on French shipping by the application of the 8-hour Act, no other mercantile marine being subject to such regulations. The persons in question seemed at that time to realise that, failing internationalisation of the 8-hour Act, it would have to be suspended in the French mercantile marine. The resolution voted by the National Council no longer makes any reference to internationalisation of the Act. It dogmatically defends the Act without seriously examining the problem. The threat of a general strike is evidently an eleventh hour bluff by no means corresponding to the wishes of the crews considered individually. There is very serious unemployment in the ports, and the seamen's leaders would render their own situation worse by going on strike. Moreover, they would break the tradition of loyal collaboration which has prevailed between seamen and shipowners since 1914.

It is to be hoped that the Government will not be influenced by this threat of a strike, considering the circumstances in which it has been made. The committee of shipowners made the greatest efforts in friendly conversations with the seamen during May to obtain agreement on a formula suppressing or revising the 8-hour Act. These negotiations, which were conducted with the greatest goodwill on the part of shipowners, failed owing to the complete intransigence of the seamen. It was then that the Under-Secretary of State of the Mercantile Marine prepared, as was his duty under the Act of 2 August 1919, an amending Bill, which was submitted both to the seamen's federations and to the Committee of Shipowners.

It should not be forgotten that the question of revising the 8-hour Act in the mercantile marine had been placed before the Senate last March, and that a resolution of this assembly invited the Government to proceed to amend the conditions of application of the Act. The President of the Republic recognised the need for such amendment. Reference may in particular be made to his speech before the Chamber of Commerce at La Rochelle. Nor should it be forgotten that such revision would be temporary, since the 8-hour regulation, relaxed by the Under-Secretary of State, would be strictly re-enforced on the day the 8-hour Act became internationalised.

The public authorities when examining the question will certainly realise the relative importance to be attached on the one hand to a trade union agitation, which is not unanimously supported by the seamen, and on the other to the interests of French shipping, which bears an annual burden of 150 million francs on account of the 8-hour Act, while one-third of its tonnage is at present lying idle in the ports.

At a meeting held on 5 July the Paris Chamber of Commerce, after considering the various proposals before Parliament relative to the application of the 8-hour day, passed the following resolution :

The Paris Chamber of Commerce demands that, if it is impossible to repeal the Act of 23 April 1919 altogether, its operation be suspended pending the adoption of more considered legislation or at least until the general economic situation permits of its enforcement ;

That if the operation of the Act is not suspended, the regulations applying the Act should be revised, and that in the new regulations account should be taken of all the facilities allowed by the Act for proceeding by stages according to the requirements of each occupation and the possibility of recruiting the necessary labour ;

That a distinction should be made between hours of actual work, which alone are limited by the Act, and hours of attendance, and that the principle of the employers' right to make up for all lost hours according to the needs of each industry should be observed ;

That the administrative regulations should not exceed the limits assigned to them under the Act, as, for instance, by fixing the rates at which overtime should be paid in certain cases ;

That the procedure for obtaining exemptions or putting them into operation should be simplified as far as possible ;

That direct agreements between employers and workers for modified hours of work should be legally recognised ;

And finally, that 300 hours a year additional overtime should be allowed for a period of 7 years.

Great Britain

Mr. W. Clare Lees, President of the *Manchester Chamber of Commerce*, speaking at the half-yearly meeting of the Chamber held on 3 July, referred to two suggestions made by members of the labour movement for the restoration of economic equilibrium—the capital levy and the industrial truce.

Mr. Lees explained in what way the effects of a capital levy differ from the effects of taxation. A reduction of the capital assets of a business, which is what a capital levy aims at bringing about, would mean that the merchant's credit with his banker would be impaired. This must inevitably result in a restriction of credit and a curtailment of business. Curtailment of business means not only loss of profit to the merchant, but loss of wages to the worker. The opposition of the Chamber to this proposal is based not on the selfish motive of wishing to avoid paying the levy, but upon the belief that the business of the nation is dependent on its credit, and that its credit is built upon the foundation rock of capital.

Turning to the proposed industrial truce by which no strikes or lock-outs would be permitted for ten years, Mr. Lees expressed his complete agreement with the suggestion. The proponents of the truce, however, had stipulated that a necessary condition of such an arrangement would be that a minimum wage should be paid to all for whom there was no work available. This, he considered, would find few critics if the economic world was run by the laws of the heart, and if it could be safely made a part of industrial law, even at considerable personal sacrifice to those in a more fortunate position. Undoubtedly it was a fact that the suggestion only involved making permanent what was at present the temporary method adopted to tide over an emergency period. The point was, however, that these emergency measures could not be made permanent without destroying the country's competitive power in the world, which power alone enabled it to maintain its population. The fundamental fact, nevertheless, remained that men could not be allowed to go hungry so long as the country was able to prevent it, and he considered that force of circumstances would compel the nation to face this question eventually, and it would have to be faced not in any party or class spirit, but with tolerance, sympathy and understanding.

Italy

At a meeting of manufacturers held at Turin on 12 June 1922, four commissions were set up to consider Bills brought before Parliament and such Legislative Decrees issued during the war as might couceiv-

ably be adopted as regular laws. These Commissions are composed of employers, representatives of employers' associations, and experts. They will deal respectively with the following subjects :

- (1) Questions relating to trade organisations, social insurance and public services ;
- (2) Economic questions ;
- (3) Financial questions (taxation, etc.) ;
- (4) Propaganda and press work.

It is intended that they shall furnish to deputies full information on the subjects affected by the proposed legislation.

Japan

During recent years frequent allegations have been made that certain trade associations of employers have been pursuing a policy of collective action with regard to employment of workers. Instances have occurred where workers discharged by a member of an association have been refused employment by other members ; workers have been refused employment because they belonged to a trade union ; and scales of wages, considered inadequate, have been fixed by the associations. The Department of Agriculture and Commerce, considering these activities to be inimical to the public interest, has issued an instruction to the prefectural governors to the effect that they should exercise strict supervision over trade associations. It is stated that there are many other employers' associations, not recognised in law, which are working along similar lines. The Department of Agriculture and Commerce is now studying measures for the supervision of these associations.

Sweden

The Hours of Work Act applying the 8-hour day to Swedish industry expires at the end of 1923. The Swedish Office of Social Affairs is at present conducting an enquiry into the social and economic effects of the Act preliminary to the framing of permanent legislation. On 15 July the Swedish Employers' Federation (*Svenska Arbetsgivarföreningen*) submitted a report on the question.

The Federation points out that the abnormal conditions of recent years make it difficult to judge of the effects of the 8-hour day, but that, in its opinion, "experience has already shown that the introduction of the 8-hour day in Sweden has been a great misfortune to the entire country. It has imposed heavy burdens on industry, beneath which it is now bending. It has put commerce and trade into a strait-jacket so that they are not able to develop in the way necessary for their prosperity. It has been one of the chief causes of the difficult, almost desperate, economic conditions now existing in Sweden. It has not been possible to distinguish the good social effects which were anticipated". Under these circumstances, the Federation expresses the hope that those who introduced this legislation in Sweden will see their mistake and refrain from prolonging it.

Entering into details, the Federation states that the exemptions permitted under the present Act only affect a small percentage of the workers, whereas in other countries where the 8-hour day has been introduced its effects have been counteracted, to a great extent, by comprehensive systems of exemption. The Federation goes on to discuss the effect of the Act on the number of hours worked and productivity. Previous to the introduction of the Act, the printing

industry was the only one working a 48-hour week. Other industries worked 60, 57, 56, 54 or 51 hours a week, so that, in some cases, the reduction in hours of work was as great as 20 per cent. and, in every case, considerable. According to the reports received by the Federation, it would not appear that the introduction of the 8-hour day has resulted either in improved organisation of work, along the lines of the Taylor system, for instance, or in the improvement of technical appliances. The promised increase in the efficiency of labour has also failed to materialise. In factories, where most of the work is done by automatic machinery, no such increase is possible. Where semi-automatic machinery is in use, and it might have been possible for such an increase to occur, it has not yet been noticed—at best, some increase was experienced for a time immediately after the change in the hours of work. In handicrafts, where foreign experience had led to the expectation of increased intensity of work, no improvement had been remarked by the handicraft employers belonging to the Employers' Federation.

As a consequence of reduced hours, without increased productivity, the cost of production has naturally risen. Thus, the Swedish Paper-Mill Association reports that in 1920 the increase in the total costs, per ton of news-paper, attributable to the introduction of the 8-hour day, amounted to 8.4 per cent. An investigation made by the Wood Pulp Association showed that for the entire industry the increase in the cost of production had risen 15 per cent. Representatives of other industries reported that, where the volume of production was approximately equal to that in the years previous to the introduction of the Act, the cost of production had increased 15 to 20 per cent., as a direct result of the introduction of the 8-hour day.

Turning to the social effects of the Act, the Federation expresses the opinion that practically no change in the social and moral standard of the working classes is perceptible.

According to a report submitted at a meeting held in May 1922, the membership of the Federation at the beginning of the present year numbered 3,306, as compared with 3,681 on 8 January 1921. It is stated that the decrease in membership is mainly due to the withdrawal of some of the smaller employers, who have not found themselves able to agree to the recent increase in the amount of the guarantees required by the Federation.

It is of interest to note that the Danish Employers' Federation (*Dansk Arbejdsgiverforening*) has to deal with a similar difficulty. The executive of the Federation is at present considering a scheme of re-organisation so as to avoid the threatened resignations of a number of the small employers in the handicraft trades. It is proposed to establish a special section in the Federation for these handicraft organisations so that they are not obliged to pay the large contributions to the strike insurance fund which have caused so much dissatisfaction.

United States

The *National Association of Manufacturers* has recently issued a study of national trade associations, compiled from 135 replies to a questionnaire issued by the Association⁽²⁾. This questionnaire

⁽²⁾ *National Trade Associations*, a study by the National Association of Manufacturers. W. F. Roberts Company, Washington, D. C., 1922.

followed three lines of enquiry : how the associations are organised, what they are organised to do, and how they go about it ; what the associations do to justify their cost, their field of activity, and the advantages they confer on their members ; and whether they are trying to influence legislation, are gathering information, or are otherwise active. The first hundred replies received were analysed and digested into an introductory summary to the report. These hundred associations represented an average of 64.9 per cent. of the business of the country in their respective industries. Ninety-two of them were associations with direct membership, and 11 were federations, the apparent discrepancy in the figures being accounted for by the fact that three associations had a dual form of organisation. Almost invariably, it is stated, the constitutions of the national industrial associations express the same aims as do the constitutions of the smaller and more local trade associations, most of them stating that their primary purpose is to improve and extend acquaintance among the men in a certain industry. A few associations, mostly of recent organisation, express what might be considered to be a more truly national purpose. Fifty-one per cent. of the associations have organised their activities into definite departments, with salaried officers ; the others retain the older method of working through committees of volunteers. Sixty out of the hundred associations studied were found to be giving attention in some way to the adoption of a uniform cost accounting system. The adoption of uniform trade terms and trade phrases, standardisation of grades, forms of contract, machinery and processes, and the collection of credit information were other matters to which attention was being given. Three associations operated mutual insurance companies, or otherwise arranged to insure their members, and two more were studying the question. Three associations administered their welfare work through their industrial association, and 13 others dealt concretely with labour problems. Thirty-one associations reported that they were co-operating with scientific bureaux of the Government, 4 were co-operating on matters of education, 8 making reports of the activities of their industry, and 10 working on the question of standards. In the gathering of industrial statistics, 18 reported that they were working with the Government, without specifying in what way ; 34 were engaged in gathering reports about production, 8 about costs, 7 about prices, and 4 about distribution. Of these various associations, 8 specified that such reports were given to the public, and 9 that the reports were for members only.

As indicated, the great majority of the associations reported no activity in the promotion of satisfactory industrial relations, workers' welfare, education and training. In a few cases it was stated that such work was left to local associations, or that only a spasmodic interest was taken in these questions. Some of the associations collected information on industrial relations and distributed information on this subject to their members. In one or two instances associations took part in safety and sanitation work, while several associations had appointed industrial relations or welfare committees.

Some four or five associations, however, reported active work in the field of industrial relations. Thus the *Association of Dress Manufacturers of New York City* stated that :

The question of industrial relations between all branches constituting our industry is gone into by us to a great extent. We are in almost continual session with committees representing various bodies composing our industry, such as our customers, employees, bankers, and piece-goods

people, with a view to improving conditions for the industry as a whole. Employees' welfare, education and training are taken care of by the Joint Board of Sanitary Control of the City of New York⁽³⁾, of which body we are a member and one of the largest contributors.

The *Associated General Contractors of America* reported that :

The association is active in developing sound industrial relations. It has recently made significant studies of trade union practice ; analysed Lockwood (New York) and Dailey (Chicago) investigations ; published comparative analysis of wage scales and conditions in principal cities ; published two plans of determining a fair wage ; carried on active work in safety, industrial courts, apprenticeship, jurisdictional awards ; and efforts in prevention of unemployment.

The *National Founders' Association* reported that it endeavours in every way to promote harmonious relations between employer and worker. Among other activities it publishes the *Open Shop Review* for workers and a weekly letter from the President for members and employers generally. In addition, by means of field representatives, it gives personal advice to members on labour problems.

The *National Association of Upholstered Furniture Manufacturers*, with headquarters in Chicago, states that :

The fundamental activity of this Association is industrial relations. A campaign of education is in process continuously. Within the past two years the training of apprentices has received marked stimulus and a production plan is in quite general use whereby we now use seven operations in the making of upholstered furniture where formerly one man did a complete job. This has cut down the time of making a piece forty per cent. and developed larger earning capacity for the workers.

The *New York City Section of the National Congress of the Building and Construction Industry* is promoting a comprehensive apprenticeship system designed to meet the increasing need for skilled workers in the building trades. The first step was taken at a meeting of the Executive Board of the *New York Building Congress*, held 10 January, when a general committee of apprenticeship was appointed, including representatives of investment, design, engineering, material supply, management, labour, and related interests. This general committee appointed an executive committee consisting of six members—employers' associations, labour unions and related interests being represented by two members each. The direct management and operation of the apprenticeship system is in the hands of a General Board made up of equal numbers of representatives from the building trades employers' associations and the building trades unions, and jointly financed by employers and workers. In addition to the General Board, joint trade boards, likewise composed of an equal number of representatives of employers and workers, have been set up in each trade.

The general policy of the apprenticeship plan being put into operation is to have the trade processes taught to the apprentice "on the job" instead of in a school. Part of his employment time or evenings is devoted to theoretical and technical instruction, but the most essential part of the apprenticeship instruction is given under actual trade conditions, with actual trade surroundings and associations. It is stated that one of the serious obstacles in the path of apprenticeship in the building trades in the past has been that of intermittent

(3) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, pp. 125-129.

employment. The present plan offers a definite assurance of continuous employment and places the responsibility with the joint trade board in each trade, instead of with the employer only. By distributing the burden over the entire trade instead of placing it on a single individual, far greater assurance of security is guaranteed to the apprentice. The New York Building Trades Employers' Association and the New York Building Trades Labour Council have officially approved the operation of this apprenticeship system in the Metropolitan District.

The *Industrial Association of San Francisco* has adopted a somewhat similar plan for the training of young men to relieve the acute shortage of certain skilled craftsmen in the building industry. Two schools, one for plasterers and the other for plumbers, have been opened. Applicants for admission to the school for plasterers, in addition to having to meet the usual physical qualifications, are required to take an intelligence test. The training is intensive: eight hours a day 5½ days a week, and continues for three months. Those who have taken the full course are put to work at once, and after a year's experience are considered as competent journeymen plasterers. Applicants for admission to the school for plumbers are likewise required to take an intelligence test, and according to their rating in this test are placed in one of three groups. The first group, composed of those obtaining the highest rating, are given two weeks of intensive instruction and training in the school under the direction of a skilled master plumber, and then go out on jobs, or in the shops of master plumbers, for four weeks. The second and third groups similarly have two weeks' instruction in the school and four weeks' in outside shops. When the third group leave the school, the first group return for another two weeks of intensive training. This process of two weeks in school and four weeks in outside shops is continued until each group has had a minimum of 8 weeks in the school. While the students are in the school they receive no pay, but while at work outside they receive the regular apprentice wage of \$2.50 per day. The Industrial Association believes that through such intensive training practical and competent journeymen plumbers can be trained in a year, or a year and a half, a saving of virtually three years over the old method. As soon as possible schools for bricklayers, tile setters, metal lathers, painters and other crafts will be set up, until the community's full needs for skilled trades craftsmen have been met.

PRODUCTION AND PRICES ⁽¹⁾

Cost of Living and Retail Prices

THE upward tendency in recent movements of price levels in several countries, which was referred to in the September number of the *Review*, appears to be only temporary. During the year 1921 there were some periods of more or less heavy fall in prices in all countries with the exception of Poland. The narrow range of the great majority of recent month-to-month fluctuations shows that a period of relative stability has been reached. With the exception of Germany, Austria, and Poland, where prices are continuously and rapidly on the increase under the influence of special causes, the latest figures for cost of living show a movement not exceeding about 5 per cent. in either direction when compared with the figures for the first quarter of this year. The country with the greatest absolute increase (25 points) is Finland, where the figure for cost of living has been influenced very largely by the considerable increase in house rents as a consequence of the removal of State control; while Italy (Milan) and Norway show the greatest declines.

This fall in price level, as compared with the first quarter of 1922, is even more marked in the case of retail food prices than in the general cost of living. In some countries the price level is still about the same as that of the first quarter of 1922 (e.g. the United States). In the majority of countries, however, the level is substantially lower (e.g. Switzerland, the Netherlands, and South Africa). The fall is most marked in Switzerland, the reduction being 10 per cent. of the average figure for the first quarter of the year. The only country, in addition to Germany, Austria, and Poland, where the level of prices has risen, is Australia, but this rise has been very small and is probably without special significance.

The usual tables corresponding to those in previous numbers of the *Review* are given below. A brief account of the different methods of compilation of index numbers employed by the different countries was given in the July number of the *Review* ⁽²⁾.

Apart from minor corrections, the only changes now made relate to the series published by the German Federal Statistical Office and the Municipal Statistical Bureau of Amsterdam; brief notes on these changes are appended.

⁽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.

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

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

TABLE I. COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 years)	Germany (11 years)	Australia (6 years)	Austria (Finns)	Belgium (59 years)	Canada (60 years)	Den- mark (100 years)	United States (33 L.)	Finland (34 years)		
	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
July 1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
Jan. 1915	403	•	408	•	•	•	404	416	•	•	•
Feb. 1915	406	•	416	•	•	•	404	436	448	408	•
Mar. 1915	414	•	418	•	•	•	413	455	469	437	•
Apr. 1915	418	•	418	•	•	•	413	474	474	452	•
May 1915	419	•	429	•	•	•	401	481	477	468	•
June 1915	426	•	435	•	•	•	402	262	247	198	•
July 1915	430	4124	4125	449	•	379	492	262	180	158	1214
1921											
Jan. 1921	447	4028	4035	458	•	444	477	•	•	163	4404
Feb. 1921	436	4048	4080	449	•	384	463	•	•	156	4488
Mar. 1921	430	4212	4212	443	•	386	465	477	437	157	4278
Apr. 1921	424	4746	4934	438	53300	393	461	474	156	156	4172
1922											
Jan. 1922	439(c)	4825	4903	•	65900	387	•	•	•	—	4124
Feb. 1922	438	9209	9177	435	77000	380	•	•	•	154	4120
Mar. 1922	436	8630	9740	•	77800	371	146	167	152	152	4407
Apr. 1922	437	3392(c)	3477	•	87900	367	•	•	•	152	4109
May 1922	437	3731	3455	•	409300	363	•	•	•	153	4441
June 1922	435	4749	3455	•	409300	366	•	167	452	452	4141
July 1922	•	5382	4149	•	187100	366	•	•	153	153	4142
Aug. 1922	—	—	40571	—	264300	366	•	•	•	•	—
					593500						

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 years)	Germany (11 years)	Aus- tralia (30 years)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (61 years)	Bulgaria (4 years)	Canada (60 years)	Den- mark (100 years)	Spain (Madrid)	United States (51 years)	Finland (21 years)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
July 1914	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400
Jan. 1915	407	•	431	•	•	•	405	428	108	98	•
Feb. 1915	416	•	430	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
Mar. 1915	416	•	430	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
Apr. 1915	428	•	430	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
May 1915	434	•	434	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
June 1915	434	•	434	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
July 1915	439	•	437	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
Aug. 1915	439	4391	4377	•	•	•	414	446	115	109	•
1921											
Jan. 1921	460	4352	4316	•	434	4506	472	•	•	•	4169
Feb. 1921	444	4370	4449	465	•	449	4666	448	179	141	4188
Mar. 1921	433	4644	4653	454	•	423	4896	435	•	•	4188
Apr. 1921	425	2857	2544	443	57900	438	2187	449	185	147	4230
1922											
Jan. 1922	431	2463	2622	442	74800	447	2259	443	•	•	4454
Feb. 1922	419	3020	3054	440	87100	399	2365	432	•	•	4415
Mar. 1922	419	3020	3054	440	87100	399	2365	432	•	•	4415
Apr. 1922	421	3456	4255	443	104300	382	2379	438	•	•	4415
May 1922	420	4680	4534	447	137400	379	2632	437	•	•	4415
June 1922	418	5419	4755	446	142100	384	2379	438	•	•	4415
July 1922	416	6836	7143	444	328200	384	2379	438	•	•	4415
Aug. 1922	—	9746	11132	—	722400	377	—	—	•	•	—

(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 "figures not published".
The sign — signifies "figures not available".

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

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

France (Paris) (a)	India (Bombay)	Italy (Rome) (Milan)		Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns) (a)	Nether- lands (Amsterdam) (a)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Date
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	99	*	117	107	*	*	125	*	1915
*	*	116	*	146	144	*	*	148	139	1916
*	*	146	*	190	149	142	*	180	166	1917
*	*	197	286	253	127	183	*	203	219	1918
238	*	205	280	275	132	195	*	208	257	1919
344	489	313	441	302	149	217	*	255	270	1920
307	177	387	494	302	157	208	25709	222	236	1921
338	460	384	568	304	460	210(c)	17974	233	249	1921 Mar.
307	173	390	506	302	157	208	20270	219	236	June
295	185	400	520	296	156	199	39817	210	231	Sept.
297	179	423	539	283	149	190	46740	192	216	Dec.
*	173	430	523	*	*	*	46883	188	*	1922 Jan.
*	165	426	522	*	*	*	48085	186	*	Feb.
291	165	415	503	266	145	192	52358	182	195	Mar.
*	162	420	490	*	*	*	58627	181	*	Apr.
*	163	—	492	*	*	*	63914	180	*	May
302	163	425	488	255	—	187	68407	184	190	June
*	165	—	488	—	—	*	78798	181	*	July
*	164	—	—	—	—	*	—	179	*	Aug.

TABLE II (cont.). FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

France (a)		India	Italy		Norway	New Zealand (25 towns) (a)	Nether- lands (Amsterdam) (a)	Poland	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Switzer- land (33 towns)	Czecho- slovakia (b)	Date
(Paris) (b)	(320 L) (b)	(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(31 towns)			(Warsaw)					
(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
120	123	*	95	*	123	112	114	*	132	124	119	*	1915
129	142	*	111	451	153	119	117	*	161	136	141	*	1916
183	184	*	137	210	203	127	146	*	204	171	179	*	1917
206	244	*	203	321	274	139	175	*	210	265	222	*	1918
261	289	*	206	304	290	144	196	*	209	312	250	*	1919
373	388	*	318	445	319	167	210	*	262	288	239	*	1920
306	363	174	402	506	295	164	180	45655	226	230	207	1351	1921
358	429	154	386	582	299	469	193	32883	238	247	218	1489	1921 Mar.
312	363	169	409	523	290	466	180	35393	220	231	213	1520	June
329	350	183	430	545	290	461	179	60728	210	228	195	1515	Sept.
323	349	176	458	567	268	450	150	74659	185	202	187	1556	Dec.
349	*	169	469	558	257	447	148	73598	179	189	176	1467	1922 Jan.
307	*	160	463	562	245	145	149	75157	177	188	173	1461	Feb.
294	323	161	446	525	238	141	143	81269	173	184	162	1414	Mar.
304	*	157	455	499	234	144	137	91865	172	181	153	1415	Apr.
317	*	158	—	503	230	145	136	101458	170	177	152	1444	May
307	315	158	454	494	227	143	131	—	180	178	153	1475	June
297	*	160	—	492	233	144	—	—	175	179	152	1430	July
289	*	159	—	—	232	141	—	—	172	180	—	—	Aug.

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

TABLE III. CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Austria (Vienna)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	United States	
		(71 towns)	(Berlin)				(32 towns)	(Mass.)
(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	133
» 1918	*	*	*	*	198	260	205	198
» 1919	*	*	*	*	234	310	215	242
» 1920	*	*	1316	*	260	355	288	276
» 1921	*	*	1077	*	173	248	223	189
Mar. 1921	*	*	1077	*	195	*	*	204
June »	*	*	1077	*	173	248	223	194
Sept. »	*	*	1197	*	173	*	192	184
Dec. »	172	*	2188	117400	173	225	184	183
Mar. 1922	167	*	3385	142800	—	*	176	174
June »	164	6605	5982	271200	—	217	172	174

TABLE IV. HEATING AND LIGHTING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Austria (Vienna)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	Spain (Madrid)	United States	
		(71 towns)	(Berlin)					(32 t.)	(Mass.)
(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
» 1921	*	*	1316	*	193	401	190	*	181
Mar. 1921	174	*	1211	*	208	*	193	*	193
June »	*	1279	1316	*	196	401	190	182	181
Sept. »	*	1410	1368	*	190	*	186	181	180
Dec. »	*	1999	2158	50800	186	333	184	181	186
Mar. 1922	*	2965	3263	86000	183	*	—	174	179
June »	*	4822	5053	167000	—	301	—	174	177

TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (6 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 t.)	United States	
		(71 towns)	(Berlin)					(32 towns)	(Mass.)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	97	*	*	94	*	85	100	102	101
» 1916	96	*	*	94	*	84	102	102	102
» 1917	97	*	*	95	*	90	105	100	100
» 1918	105	*	*	99	*	100	108	109	105
» 1919	110	*	*	105	*	109	113	114	112
» 1920	116	*	164	115	*	132	130	135	135
» 1921	*	*	182	121	*	142	141	159	154
Mar. 1921	116	*	164	120	*	138	*	*	148
June »	*	209	164	121	*	141	141	159	154
Sept. »	*	218	182	123	*	143	*	160	156
Dec. »	*	225	182	124	400	143	141	161	156
Mar. 1922	*	250	200	126	1400	145	*	160	157
June »	*	313	255	—	2100	—	155	161	157

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

Finland (31 towns)	France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 towns)	United Kingdom (97 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Date
			(Rome)	(Milan)				
(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	*	—	*	107	125	*	" 1915
*	*	*	—	*	157	1.5	160	" 1916
*	*	*	—	*	205	200	210	" 1917
*	*	*	261	284	304	310	285	" 1918
*	296	*	—	221	348	360	310	" 1919
1049	485	299	466	651	336	430	390	" 1920
1038	353	263	495	512	292	280	270	" 1921
1031	398	299	576	696	308	325	295	Mar. 1921
1032	353	263	445	532	242	290	270	June "
1090	318	268	444	534	280	265	250	Sept. "
1107	318	261	—	543	271	250	240	Dec. "
1098	312	253	—	596	260	240	225	Mar. 1922
1049	315	260	—	621	249	200	210	June "

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

Finland (31 t.)	France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (4 towns)	United Kingdom (30 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Switzerland (23 towns)	Date
			(Rome)	(Milan)						
(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	*	—	*	134	102	*	115	115	" 1915
*	*	*	—	*	204	108	*	157	129	" 1916
*	*	*	—	*	348	123	*	218	182	" 1917
*	*	*	160	220	476	136	*	293	302	" 1918
*	164	*	—	221	316	145	*	295	372	" 1919
1232	296	151	178	611	477	177	230	386	387	" 1920
1265	308	176	—	899	365	199	250	220	220	" 1921
1242	319	176	279	1054	388	194	240	316	357	Mar. 1921
1270	308	177	246	899	366	199	260	264	220	June "
1250	307	176	—	899	337	200	238	231	221	Sept. "
1249	306	174	—	828	311	195	225	207	218	Dec. "
1231	302	167	—	530	289	191	215	196	212	Mar. 1922
1261	247	167	—	515	263	—	190	188	203	June "

TABLE V (cont.). RENT INDEX NUMBERS

Finland (31 towns)	France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy		Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (25 towns)	United Kingdom (25 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Date
			(Rome)	(Milan)					
(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)
100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	*	—	*	103	101	*	*	" 1915
*	*	*	—	*	106	100	*	108	" 1916
*	*	*	—	*	109	102	*	112	" 1917
*	*	*	100	100	110	104	*	112	" 1918
*	100	*	100	100	123	107	*	120	" 1919
335	100	165	100	108	167	116	118	130	" 1920
553	110	165	157	139	161	121	152	155	" 1921
418	100	165	143	139	161	121	144	155	Mar. 1921
535	110	165	157	139	161	121	145	155	June "
596	101	165	157	139	166	129	152	163	Sept. "
603	103	165	—	184	166	129	155	163	Dec. "
603	140	165	—	184	168	132	155	163	Mar. 1922
754	100	165	—	208	168	—	153	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

Date	Austria	Italy		Netherlands		Poland	
	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Lodz	Posen
Dec. 1920	100(a)	100	100	100	100	100(a)	100
Mar. 1921	120	108	106	95	95	98	122
June »	146	100	100	95	94	96	185
Sept. »	*	101	99	94	90	216	645
Dec. »	881	103	107	92	86	227	908
Jan. 1922	*	99	105	*	*	233	886
Feb. »	*	99	104	*	*	257	951
Mar. »	*	96	103	93	87	277	1093
Apr. »	*	94	101	*	*	295	1200
May »	*	95	102	*	*	326	954
June »	*	95	101	88	84	—	—
July »	*	96	101	*	*	—	—
Aug. »	*	—	102	*	*	—	—

TABLE VII. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	Austria	Italy		Netherlands		Poland	Switzerland
	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	(35 towns)	(33 towns)
Dec. 1920	100(a)	100	100	100	100	100(a)	100(a)
Mar. 1921	123	112	110	98	95	126	97
June »	153	108	104	102	96	146	91
Sept. »	226	108	103	99	88	254	89
Dec. »	966	111	115	96	84	323	82
Jan. 1922	1142	109	111	*	*	318	81
Feb. »	1428	107	109	*	*	333	76
Mar. »	1457	102	108	99	85	309	74
Apr. »	1619	98	105	*	*	418	70
May »	2028	99	106	*	*	448	67
June »	3431	98	105	90	80	—	67
July »	4830	101	106	*	*	—	69
Aug. »	11000	—	106	*	*	—	—

TABLE VIII. INDEX NUMBERS FOR OTHER GROUPS

Date	Clothing					Heating and lighting					Rent				
	Austria		Italy		Netherlands	Austria		Italy		Netherlands	Austria		Italy		Netherlands
	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Vienna	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam
Dec. 1920	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100(a)	100	100	100	100
Mar. 1921	115	89	100	79	86	128	118	106	96	97	98	100	100	100	101
June »	138	68	79	73	79	136	104	88	83	87	84	100	100	100	101
Sept. »	287	68	79	74	77	273	104	88	88	86	80	100	100	100	101
Dec. »	833	73	78	72	74	266	93	91	84	75	75	100	100	100	101
Jan. 1922	*	76	79	69	70	*	58	93	82	75	73	100	100	100	101
June »	*	79	78	69	69	*	58	93	73	75	69	100	100	100	101

The sign * signifies « no figures published ».
The sign — signifies « figures not available ».
(a) Base : Beginning of 1921=100.

Germany: *Wirtschaft und Statistik; Statistisches Reichsamt.*

Index Numbers of Clothing, Heating and Lighting, and Rent. A clothing index number was added in April and May 1922 to the cost of living index number compiled by the German Federal Statistical Office. An attempt made in 1921 to secure reports of clothing prices from various associations of dealers in clothing and underclothing having failed, the Statistical Office itself prepared schedules which were sent, through the Statistical Offices of the different States, to the magistrates of 71 towns, to be forwarded to the clothing dealers for filling up.

The schedules included 15 typical items of clothing, and a pattern of each stuff was included in order to indicate the quality intended. The annual expenditure on clothing of a family of 5 persons was considered by the Statistical Central Office, the State Statistical Offices, and experts in the textile trade, and fixed as follows:

Clothing: A man's or boy's suit, a girl's frock, or two women's skirts and blouses each.

Underclothing: Six shirts or chemises, and six pairs socks or stockings each. Apparently no allowance is made for children's underclothing.

Footwear: A pair of men's or women's boots, or two pairs of children's boots each, and eight times repair of a pair of men's boots.

The computation of prices for clothing before the war is not yet finished. The figures presented, which must therefore be considered provisional, are given in table III.

The available figures for heating and lighting and rent are shown in tables IV and V respectively. The rent index number is based on the average monthly rent for 2 rooms and a kitchen, including charges for water, etc. The Federal Statistical Office has issued instructions for the adoption of a uniform method of collecting data and combines the figures reported from the 71 localities.

As regards the heating and lighting index, prices are obtained for the following commodities in the proportions indicated:

<i>Heating:</i>		<i>Lighting:</i>	
Coal	3 tons	Gas	15 cubic metres
or lignite	5 tons	Electricity	5 Kilowatts
or briquettes and lignite	4 tons		
or peat	6 tons		
or wood	5 tons		
and gas	15 cubic metres		

While formerly the cheapest fuel and light items were taken into account, prices are now obtained for the most commonly used articles, irrespective of price, and gas or electricity or both included where available.

The consolidated index number for cost of living as far as available is published in table I. It should be noted that in table I the figures before and after April 1922 are not comparable.

Netherlands: *Maandbericht van het Bureau van Statistiek der Gemeente Amsterdam.*

The former cost of living index number prepared by the Municipal Statistical Bureau of Amsterdam, was, as stated in the July number of the *Review*, discontinued in September 1920. It was based on the standard budget calculated by combining pre-war and post-war consumption. A new series in a simpler form, based on the coefficients of consumption resulting from an inquiry made in March 1922, was

then started, and this is given in table VI. The base for the first series is the period 1910-1911 (=100), while the base period for the second series is March 1920 (=100). For purposes of comparison, however, the figures in table VI have been recalculated, taking as base December 1920 (=100). In order to facilitate comparison of the price levels since September 1920 with those prevailing before the war, the Municipal Bureau has made the two series continuous. To do this, the index number in the new series for March has been put equal to 213.7 (the index number in the old series) instead of 100, and all subsequent figures have been increased in the same proportion. A continuous series based on the pre-war level is thus rendered available for Amsterdam. This method is not strictly accurate. The figures subsequent to March 1920 in the old series are not wholly comparable with those which precede them, as the method of compilation is different for the two periods, but the figures which are given in table I provide means for judging the general movement of price levels over a long period.

Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

THE upward trend of prices which was recently observed has continued, during the latest month for which figures are available, in most European countries, in Japan, in the United States, and in Australia, although in the Norway, Italy, Spain, and Australia the rise was very slight. In France and Denmark no general movement was recorded in July, while in China, Egypt, and New Zealand the latest figures indicate a continuation of the fall which had taken place in previous months.

The figures show that since the beginning of the year wholesale prices have remained relatively stable in the United Kingdom, Sweden, Canada, and India. There has been a rise during the last six months in France, the Netherlands, and the United States. The figures for the United States are specially interesting, because, although the general level of prices at the present time, as compared with that before the war, remains lower than in most other countries, they indicate a well defined upward movement. This is due largely to the rise in the prices of coal and coke, and of raw materials generally.

In Germany and Poland, conditions remain entirely abnormal, and, with minor exceptions in the case of Poland, each succeeding index number is a new maximum.

Comparing the latest prices with the annual average of last year, almost all countries show a considerable fall in the price level. With the exception of Germany and Poland, the only country where there is a small rise (5 per cent.) is the United States. The fall in the other countries averages about 11 per cent., the United Kingdom showing the greatest reduction (19 per cent.) since last year. If the average for 1921 is compared with the average for the six months ending June 1922, similar results are obtained—all countries, with the exception of Germany and Poland, show an appreciable fall in the price level.

In spite of the great frequency of small variations from month to month, and the rise or fall suggested by a study of individual monthly

figures in a narrow range, the recent index numbers, as a whole, point to a certain relative stability of prices in most countries. The following table shows the level of prices in January and June 1922 for the several countries for which complete figures are available, compared with the maximum attained. The countries are arranged in ascending order of magnitude of the index numbers in June 1922.

COMPARATIVE LEVELS OF WHOLESALE PRICES AT THEIR MAXIMUM
AND AS AT JANUARY AND JUNE 1922

Country	Maximum		Index number of	
	Date	Index number	Jan. 1922	June 1922
United States (official)	May 1920	272	138	150
United Kingdom (official)	May 1920	333	168	163
Australia	Aug. 1920	274	154	163
Sweden (G. H. T.)	June 1920	366	170	164
Canada	May 1920	263	168	165
Netherlands	July 1920	296 ⁽¹⁾	161	167
Denmark	Oct. 1920	403	177	180
India (Bombay)	Jan 1920	232	190	190
Japan	March 1920	322	206	194 ⁽²⁾
Norway	Sept. 1920	425	260	230
France	April 1920	588	314	326
Italy	Nov. 1920	670	577	537
Germany (official)	June 1922	7030	3665	7030

⁽¹⁾ The absolute maximum of 392 was reached in 1918.

⁽²⁾ May 1922.

The index numbers of the various countries are given in the following table, as far as possible, on a uniform base, the level of prices in 1913 being taken as 100. The only change in the series since the publication of the table last month relates to the index number calculated for Germany by the *Frankfurter Zeitung*. A note on the revision is given below. An account of the methods used in calculating the index numbers in different countries and of the sources used was given in the July number of the *Review* ⁽¹⁾.

Germany: *Frankfurter Zeitung*.

Important changes have been made in the method of compilation of the index number published by this journal. The group of "finished goods" for which a separate index had been calculated for some months is now definitely included in the general index, thus raising the total number of commodities covered from 77 to 98. The base period for the series hitherto published is the beginning of 1920, the object being a comparison of the price levels after the war. On account of the great interest that attaches to a comparison of present prices with pre-war prices, the price of each commodity in the middle of 1914 has been equated to 100 and the index number now calculated refers to this base. This new series, which is of great value for comparative purposes and is of far greater accuracy than the one hitherto published, is now incorporated in the table below.

⁽¹⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 67 to 75.

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

Date	South Africa	Germany		Australia (Melbourne)	Belgium	Canada	China (Shanghai)	Denmark	Egypt (Cairo)	Spain	United States	
		Official	Frankfurter Ztg.								B. of Lab. Stat.	Fed. Res. Bd.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
<i>Annual average</i>												
1913	400	400	*	400	*	400	400	400	*	400	100	100
1914	97	406	400	406	400	400	*	*	400	404	98	*
1915	107	442	*	447	*	409	*	438	402	449	404	*
1916	123	453	*	438	*	434	*	464	424	441	427	*
1917	144	479	*	453	*	475	*	228	469	466	177	*
1918	153	247	*	478	*	205	*	293	207	207	194	*
1919	165	445	*	489	*	216	433	294	226	204	206	214
1920	223	4486	1997(*)	228	*	246	440	382	299	221	226	239
1921	460	4944	2127(*)	475	*	482	445	236	480	490	147	448
1921												
Mar.	466	4338	2127(*)	490	*	494	443	270	482	493	455	452
June	450	4366	*	470	*	479	448	253	466	486	442	442
Sept.	438	2067	*	468	368	472	448	202	476	483	444	446
Dec.	431	3487	*	465	369	470	446	178	470	483	440	442
1922												
Jan.	*	3665	4238	454	366	468	449	177	469	479	438	442
Feb.	*	4403	4642	454	356	469	448	182	452	477	444	446
Mar.	128	5433	5427	453	350	467	452	478	453	476	442	447
Apr.	*	6355	6722	455	344	466	448	177	448	485	443	449
May	*	6458	7379	462	348	467	446	479	441	476	448	458
June	—	7030	7844	463	356	465	444	180	—	477	450	462
July	—	9957	9440	—	360	466	—	480	—	—	455	—
Aug.	—	17990	43935	—	—	464	—	178	—	—	—	—
Sept.	—	—	28919	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

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

Date	France	India (Bombay)	Italy	Japan	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom			Sweden		Switzerland
									Official	Economist	Statist	G.H.T.	Official	
(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
<i>Annual average</i>														
1913	400	*	400	400	400	400	400	*	400	400	400	400	100	*
1914	402	400	95	96	115	104	105	400	*	99	98	446	*	400
1915	440	*	433	97	159	123	145	*	*	423	427	445	*	*
1916	488	*	204	147	233	134	222	*	*	464	460	485	*	*
1917	262	*	290	149	344	151	286	*	*	204	206	244	*	*
1918	339	237	409	196	345	175	392	*	*	225	226	339	*	*
1919	356	222	366	240	322	178	297	*	*	235	242	330	*	*
1920	509	215	624	268	377	242	281	*	344	283	295	347	359	*
1921	345	496	578	201	269	201	181	*	201	184	188	244	222	490
1921														
Mar.	360	490	604	494	342	208	488	*	245	489	209	237	249	208
June	325	497	509	192	294	200	182	*	202	479	183	218	223	179
Sept.	344	207	580	207	287	197	180	60203	494	483	176	182	201	184
Dec.	326	490	595	240	269	189	465	57046	471	462	457	472	188	176
1922														
Jan.	344	490	577	206	260	186	464	59231	468	459	456	470	480	174
Feb.	307	486	563	204	253	181	462	63445	465	458	456	466	178	174
Mar.	308	492	533	201	240	180	461	73729	463	460	457	464	178	163
Apr.	314	488	527	198	236	180	461	75406	463	459	459	465	176	161
May	317	489	524	194	231	177	465	78634	464	462	459	464	176	160
June	326	490	537	197	230	175	467	87820	463	462	460	464	174	161
July	326	488	—	—	232	—	462	—	463	463	458	465	—	163
Aug.	331	188	—	—	—	—	—	—	459	458	—	163	—	—
Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(1) Figures supplied by the Economic Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations.
(2) Figures for January.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

Statistics of Unemployment

THE gradual decrease in unemployment recorded in the previous month for nearly every country is confirmed by the most recent statistics available. According to the figures for the end of July, the volume of unemployment in the United Kingdom, though still large, shows a slight diminution as compared with June. The textile industry and the tinplate and steel trades were important in maintaining the improvement previously noticed, and there was also increased activity in the coal-mining industry and in the engineering and shipbuilding trades. A more favourable position is indicated by a comparison with the corresponding unemployment percentages for July 1921, these being 16.7 per cent. for trade unions and 14.8 per cent. for compulsory insurance returns, while in July 1922 they were 14.6 per cent. and 12.3 per cent. respectively. The after-effects of the stoppage in the coal-mining industry were, however, partly responsible for the high figures of a year ago. Unemployment in the Netherlands as indicated by the provisional percentage on 31 July 1922 shows little change as compared with the previous month—the slight increase being largely due to some slackness in the leather, textile and building industries. The latest statistics available for Belgium emphasise the favourable position of the labour market in that country at the end of June. Continued expansion was reported in the volume of employment in nearly all industries and the small percentage of unemployed (2.6) is the lowest recorded since June 1920. Unemployment in Switzerland had also diminished at the end of July. The highest number recorded during the crisis was in February of this year, since when a steady reduction has been effected, and the number of workers unemployed is now little more than half that at the beginning of the year. In France a slight increase in the number of applicants for work and of persons in receipt of benefit is noticed at the end of July. Of the workers remaining on the register the greatest numbers were commercial clerks and metal workers. Local shortage of labour for agricultural work is still complained of in certain Departments.

The exceptional conditions existing in Austria are reflected in the number of unemployed in Vienna. The figure for July is somewhat higher than that in June, and during the last few months little improvement has taken place.

The latest figures of partial unemployment in the countries for which statistics are available indicate a continuation of the gradual decrease previously noted. The most important decline in short time is that recorded in the United Kingdom at the end of July.

In Poland, the approximate total number of applicants for work as reported by the Labour Exchanges for the year 1921 and the first five months of 1922 was highest in January and February of this year (about 180,000), after which the number fell rapidly, largely in consequence of the diminution of unemployment in the building and

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

End of month	Germany	Austria	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	Massachusetts	Norway	Netherlands	United Kingdom		Sweden
									Trade unions	Compulsary insurance	
A. Number of Workers Covered by the Returns (in Thousands)											
1913											
Mar.	2004	237	78	*	110	171	29	62	908	2071	50
June	2010	243	79	*	109	172	29	64	922	2043	53
Sept.	1994	252	76	*	115	177	29	68	943	2218	54
Dec.	1930	251	74	*	118	178	29	70	965	2286	60
11 9											
Mar.	2934	311	*	174	286	255	33	263	1243	3561	107
June	3711	303	*	151	293	250	36	304	1334	3561	119
Sept.	4316	308	*	192	310	257	38	314	1418	3721	118
Dec.	4497	317	*	174	311	274	38	394	1541	3721	119
1920											
Mar.	4933	329	*	171	295	281	46	404	1567	3827	126
June	5600	343	*	194	306	248	46	407	1603	4160	126
Sept.	5442	345	118	189	308	255	46	407	1636	4197	151
Dec.	5664	351	546	208	311	297	45	399	1535	11900	146
1921											
Mar.	5779	344	668	207	294	237	51	394	1528	12000	165
June	5841	364	669	182	299	243	89	396	1279	12200	145
Sept.	5965	368	746	183	287	237	74	393	1433	12200	154
Dec.	6103	370	757	161	282	209	39	395	1432	11902	144
1922											
Jan.	5798	*	763	159	280	*	38	372	1406	11902	141
Feb.	6159	*	740	163	278	*	38	375	1390	12120	137
Mar.	6284	—	730	158	278	217	38	368	1353	12120	150
Apr.	5992	*	720	142	278	—	38	—	1347	11881 ³	139
May	6124	*	701	151	278	—	—	—	1393	11841 ³	128
June	6239	—	711	152	269	—	—	—	1394	11881 ³	—
July	—	*	—	—	269	—	—	—	1334	11881 ³	—
B. Percentage of above Workers Unemployed											
1913											
Mar.	2.8	6.4	1.5	—	7.8	8.3	1.8	3.4	1.9	3.5	7.1
June	2.7	7.3	2.1	—	3.7	4.5	0.7	3.9	1.9	2.8	2.6
Sept.	2.7	7.0	3.2	—	3.8	5.0	1.2	4.9	2.3	3.7	2.3
Dec.	4.8	5.3	3.5	—	15.1	8.5	3.7	9.1	2.6	4.6	4.4
1919											
Mar.	3.9	6.5	*	5.6	20.5	11.4	2.2	14.2	2.8	*	7.6
June	2.5	8.5	*	2.6	3.6	2.8	1.1	8.7	1.7	*	6.1
Sept.	2.2	6.2	*	2.2	3.1	2.7	1.2	4.5	1.6	*	3.2
Dec.	2.9	5.2	*	3.5	16.5	4.1	2.6	9.0	3.2	6.5	3.8
1920											
Mar.	1.9	5.6	*	3.4	6.7	4.1	1.5	7.7	1.1	3.6	4.5
June	3.9	6.2	*	2.5	2.0	14.6	0.7	5.9	1.2	2.6	3.4
Sept.	4.5	6.2	5.8	3.3	2.7	16.4	1.8	4.1	2.2	3.8	2.9
Dec.	4.1	7.8	17.4	13.1	15.1	29.2	6.8	13.4	6.1	5.8	15.8
1921											
Mar.	3.7	11.4	10.4	16.5	23.6	22.1	16.1	13.9	10.0	11.3	24.5
June	3.0	12.5	9.9	13.2	16.8	20.1	20.9	8.1	23.1	17.8	27.7
Sept.	1.4	11.4	9.6	8.5	16.6	19.1	17.1	6.8	14.8	12.2	27.3
Dec.	1.6	9.5	6.6	15.1	25.2	24.2	22.9	16.6	16.5	16.2	33.2
1922											
Jan.	3.3	*	6.4	13.9	28.9	*	23.5	20.0	16.8	16.2	34.8
Feb.	2.7	*	5.8	10.6	33.1	*	25.1	21.9	16.3	15.2	32.1
Mar.	1.1	9.2	5.2	9.6	27.9	18.8	25.1	14.1	16.3	14.4 ³	30.6
Apr.	0.9	*	3.9	10.4	24.0	—	23.2	11.9 ²	17.0	14.4 ²	28.6
May	0.7	*	3.3 ⁽⁴⁾	7.4	16.1	—	—	10.0 ²	16.4	13.5 ³	23.3
June	0.6	9.6	2.6 ⁽⁴⁾	5.3	13.2	—	—	9.5 ²	15.7	12.7 ³	21.5
July	—	*	—	4.1	12.5	—	—	9.6 ²	14.6	12.3 ³	20.2

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

(*) Provisional figures. — (²) Excluding Irish Free State. — (⁴) Revised figures.

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

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF SHORT TIME

Date (End of month)	Belgium	Italy	United Kingdom		Switzerland
	Number	Number	Number	Percentage of insured workers	Number
<i>1921</i>					
April	118,041	69,270	1,077,317	9.0	95,374
June	86,823	238,940	832,340	6.8	76,116
September	60,958	154,350	322,315	2.6	69,421
December	36,232	178,662	315,760	2.7	53,970
<i>1922</i>					
January	36,062	150,231	287,499	2.4	49,181
February	32,100	149,711	266,162	2.2	46,761
March	28,912	153,542	222,693	1.8	40,315
April	35,308	135,964	188,639	1.6	39,249
May	26,155 (1)	113,782	133,590	1.1	34,292
June	23,817	95,334	116,448	1.0	30,629
July	—	—	82,999	0.7	28,279

(1) Revised figure.

TABLE III. OTHER STATISTICS RELATING TO UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (End of month)	Austria		France		Italy			Switzerland			Czechoslovakia	
	Vienna	Total	Number of applicants for work (1)	Number of persons in receipt of benefit	Number of wholly unemployed			Number of wholly unemployed			Number of persons unemployed	Number of persons in receipt of benefit
	Number of applicants for work	Number of applicants for work			Agriculture	Industries	Total (2)	Agriculture	Industries	Total (2)		
<i>1921</i>												
Mar.	24,344	32,052	44,061	91,225	43,559	187,345	250,143	982	37,962	47,577	102,180	53,086
June	24,802	32,403	21,316	47,331	43,584	306,338	388,744	708	44,097	54,039	103,170	46,128
Sept.	24,236	32,802	17,718	21,797	84,693	356,266	473,216	1,454	53,607	66,646	70,780	26,802
Dec.	19,618	32,884	17,373	10,032	142,107	372,334	541,755	4,117	67,748	88,967	78,312	32,802
<i>1922</i>												
Jan.	29,619	54,525	18,535	9,640	194,125	383,127	606,819	5,054	74,832	97,091	113,015	54,422
Feb.	33,783	64,717	18,807	9,224	171,957	372,882	576,284	5,239	75,124	99,541	142,454	78,526
Mar.	37,482	80,000	16,605	8,474	137,484	332,428	498,606	4,646	66,372	89,099	128,33	69,719
Apr.	39,472	—	14,094	7,861	112,899	292,505	432,372	3,691	59,177	80,799	—	—
May	38,221	—	8,456	7,149	95,532	290,274	410,127	2,609	54,446	71,100	—	—
June	36,789	—	9,896	4,488	65,012	280,963	372,001	1,362	45,469	59,456	—	—
July	38,483	—	11,348	6,027	—	—	—	1,251	39,315	52,180	—	—

(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 (End of month)	Numbers employed by 1,428 firms, to nearest thousand	Percent. increase (+) or decrease (—) on previous month	Index of employment (January 1921 = 100)
<i>1921</i>			
Mar.	1,588,000	— 1.50	97.5
June	1,527,000	— 2.90	93.4
Sept.	1,545,000	+ 1.20	94.9
Dec.	1,493,000	— 4.70	91.7
<i>1922</i>			
Jan.	1,557,000	+ 4.20	95.6
Feb.	1,565,000	+ 0.57	96.1
Mar.	1,604,000	+ 2.50	98.5
Apr.	1,617,000	+ 0.74	99.3
May	1,669,000	+ 3.20	102.5
June	1,676,000	+ 0.56	102.9
July	—	—	—

allied trades. At the beginning of July, the approximate number of unemployed as calculated by the Labour Exchanges was less than 100,000.

In the United States, the monthly survey of the volume of employment which had previously been compiled by the Employment Service has been taken over by the Bureau of Labour Statistics and combined with the survey of the same kind which the Bureau has been carrying on since 1916. The scope of the survey has therefore been extended, so that it now covers 43 industries with approximately 3,000 establishments. In the next issue of the *Review* the new series of figures will be published, and the necessary modifications made in table IV.

The publication of table V giving statistics of famine relief in India has been discontinued, as there is at present practically no famine scarcity in the technical sense. Their publication will, however, be resumed if the situation in India renders their importance greater.

NOTES TO TABLES

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, be followed 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

AMONG the most interesting events of the month has been the preliminary report, issued after a remarkably short interval, by the Commissioner-General of Immigration in the United States and giving a review of the first year's working of the Three per Cent. Immigration Act. The Act has apparently accomplished its intended purpose in the eyes of its promoters in a way which is considered to be satisfactory. The positive progress made in putting into practice the British Empire Settlement Act may also be noticed. Problems of Asiatic emigration are coming more and more to the fore, and have recently had their effect on the policy of more than one country. Finally, the progress made in land settlement and in movements for the welfare of emigrants is also noteworthy.

Taking the matter of these *Notes* in the order of presentation, under the heading of *International Action* attention may be drawn to the increasing number of international agreements. In addition to the action of the International Labour Office and of the High Commissariat of the League of Nations for Russian refugees, treaties or Conventions have been concluded between Great Britain and Brazil, France and Poland, and Spain and the Argentine Republic, alterations have been introduced into the methods of applying the Franco-Italian Labour Treaty, and negotiations set on foot for the relief of French unemployed persons residing in Switzerland.

In the section on *Migration Movements* information is given on the figures published by the Home Office of Great Britain, on French statistics as to the repatriation of foreign workers who had entered France during the war, and on those relating to the United States Three per Cent. Act, as mentioned above. More summary information is supplied as to the foreign-born population of New York, the number of Polish workers in France, Hungarian emigration for 1921, Japanese immigration into Brazil, the Mennonite movement in Canada, and Mexican emigration and immigration during 1920.

The section on *Government Policy and Legislation* includes a description of the present state of the application of the British Empire Settlement Act, and of problems arising in connection with Asiatic emigration, as mentioned above. A new Decree regulating the entry of foreign workers into France, regulations issued in the Belgian Congo and in Czechoslovakia, proposals for dealing with migration problems in Finland and Spain, and land settlement policy in the Argentine are also noticed.

Under the heading of *Welfare and Protection Work* attention may be drawn to the resolutions of the International Council of Women, to the work initiated for the encouragement of settlers in New Zealand and the Transvaal, to Roman Catholic welfare organisations for Belgian workers in France, the conference of the Italian Bonomelli society, the policy of the Italian co-operative societies, and to the Foreign

Language Information Service in the United States. The attitude of labour is noted in certain immigration countries, namely, Australia, Canada, South Africa, and the United States.

INTERNATIONAL ACTION

International Labour Office : Decisions of the Governing Body

The Governing Body of the International Labour Office, at its thirteenth session held at Interlaken in July 1922, discussed emigration questions and decided to select two points from among those dealt with in the report of the International Emigration Commission for immediate examination by the Office. Those two points are

- (1) equality of treatment of foreign and national workers ;
- (2) proportion of the cost of relief granted to immigrants by the country of immigration.

Moreover, the Governing Body considered that, before proceeding to an examination of the different questions raised by the International Emigration Commission, and with a view to determining the precise sphere of action of the International Labour Organisation, it was important to define precisely the word "emigrant", and to attempt to make clear the cases in which the protective legislation proposed by the International Labour Organisation may be extended to emigrants and to workers settled abroad.

Uniform Identity Papers for Russian Refugees

In view of the fact that the International Labour Conference is about to discuss the problem of the uniform presentation of emigration statistics and of other information on emigration, considerable interest attaches to the negotiations now pending or partly completed on the subject of issuing to Russian refugees in various countries personal papers of identical international form to enable them to proceed to other countries.

The Council of the League of Nations approached the governments with a view to the adoption of special identity certificates for Russian refugees which should serve in lieu of passports (¹) ; subsequently a conference of government delegates was called at Geneva to determine what common measures could be adopted by the governments in order to assist the movements of these refugees. This conference met on 3, 4 and 5 July 1922 and was attended by the representatives of fifteen countries : Austria, Bulgaria, Spain, Finland, France, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Japan, Poland, Roumania, Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, Sweden, Switzerland, and Czechoslovakia. It unanimously adopted a form of identity certificate which could be recognised as valid by the different countries, also special dispositions defining the conditions preliminary to the issue of such certificates. These conditions can be summed up as follows :

- (1) An identity certificate shall not invalidate the laws or regulations in force in any country on the subject of aliens, and, in particular, shall not invalidate any regulations laid down for persons of Russian nationality or origin.

(¹) *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 101.

(2) The issue of an identity certificate shall in no sense imply that the refugee is entitled to return to the country where it was issued except by special permission of such country.

(3) The country of destination shall be entitled either to stamp the actual identity certificate with its visa, or else to recognise it as a legitimisation paper and instruct its consular authorities to issue a separate entry permit authorising the holder to enter the country.

(4) On completion of the formalities prescribed, transit visas shall be granted by other countries on production of an identity certificate, provided that the holder shall have obtained the visa of the country of destination.

(5) No charge shall be made for the issue of an identity certificate to a necessitous person, unless otherwise laid down by law.

The Council of the League of Nations, in view of the results of the Conference, decided on 20 July last to invite all States Members of the League and all governments concerned to adopt the form of identity certificate and the conditions laid down by this conference, to recognise identity certificates issued by other governments, and to communicate their attitude on this point to the Secretary-General of the League at the earliest possible date ⁽²⁾.

Anglo-Brazilian Treaty

A treaty was concluded on 29 July by Great Britain and Brazil dealing with the question of dual nationality. The principle of option is formally recognised and persons of dual nationality who have served in the armed forces of either of the two states are exempt from military service by the other. This is stated to be the first treaty of this kind in the world and to enunciate a new formula of private international law ⁽³⁾.

Franco-Polish Convention on Social Welfare and Relief

The Franco-Polish Convention, signed at Warsaw on 14 October 1920 ⁽⁴⁾, and put into force in France by an Act of 16 May 1922, aims at completing the Convention on emigration and immigration signed between these two countries on 3 September 1919 by adding clauses dealing with social welfare, relief, and protection of workers.

"This treaty is a contribution to the legislative work which is to be started by the International Labour Conference authorised by Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles, work which can of necessity make but slow progress and only have effect at a distant date. Hence a series of separate agreements, of which this is one of the most important" ⁽⁵⁾.

The Convention of 14 October 1920 is throughout built up on the principle of equality of treatment of immigrant and national workers. It lays down, in various detailed clauses, that the workers of the one country resident in the other country shall be on an equality with the

⁽²⁾ LEAGUE OF NATIONS : Document C. L. 79 (a) and (b) 1922.

⁽³⁾ *The Times*, 31 July 1922. London.

⁽⁴⁾ FRANCE, MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL : *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail*, Apr., May, June 1922. Paris.

⁽⁵⁾ *Rapport fait au nom de la Commission des Affaires Etrangères et de la politique générale des colonies et protectorats, par M. François Albert, Sénateur, sur le projet de loi approuvant la convention précitée*. Journal Officiel (Senate), Appendix to the Minutes of the Session of 24 Mar. 1922.

nationals of that other country on all questions of workers' and peasants' old age pensions (including special miners' pensions), invalidity benefits, funeral benefits, accident compensation, unemployment allowances (until repatriation takes place), and, in general, on all questions regulated by legislation concerning social insurance, labour conditions, or workers' health and safety, whether already in force or hereafter to be enacted.

Polish workers and employers in France, and *vice versa* French workers and employers in Poland, are to be admitted to membership of the managing committees of mutual benefit societies, provided that the majority of the members are nationals of the country.

Immigrants coming from France or Poland, as the case may be, shall, if ill or in receipt of benefit of any kind, be at the charge of the country in which they are resident (on the same terms as the nationals of that country) for the first sixty days. After this period their home country shall repatriate them, if they can be moved, or otherwise shall make good to the country of their residence the costs of their treatment. But old persons, invalids, or incurable persons who have resided at least fifteen years in the other country, and sick persons, insane persons, or any other persons in receipt of any sort of relief who can be considered to have resided at least five years in the other country, shall be at the permanent charge of the country where they reside. It may be recalled that the Franco-Italian labour treaty of 1919 adopted a considerably shorter period (45 days instead of 60) during which the other country was to be responsible for the relief of the foreign workers residing in it. The extension of time is justified by the greater distance between France and Poland, and from the French point of view also by the fact that all Polish workers have to undergo a double medical examination, first before departure from Poland, and secondly on their arrival in France, so that the selection is more severe than in the case of Italian workers proceeding to France.

Article 11 stipulates that all mutual welfare, benefit, relief, or intellectual associations, as well as all consumers' co-operative societies, formed by Polish workers in France or by French workers in Poland, also all associations formed jointly of the two nationalities in either country, shall, if constituted and working in accordance with the laws of the country, enjoy the same rights and privileges as are granted to similar associations, French or Polish, as the case may be.

Finally, the nationals of either country shall enjoy within the frontiers of the other country freedom to belong, or to refuse to belong, to trade unions or trade or corporate associations on the same terms as is accorded to the nationals of that country, without prejudice, however, to any legal enactments regulating the management of such trade unions or associations.

Workers and employers in either country are entitled to sit on conciliation and arbitration committees to settle disputes between employers and workers in matters in which they are interested parties.

The Convention is concluded for the period of one year, but is tacitly renewable without further formality.

Italian Emigration in France

The Franco-Italian Commission set up in virtue of the Franco-Italian Labour Treaty has introduced an important alteration in

the system of recruiting labour in use between the two countries. Its purpose is to make closer the bonds between the immigrant worker and his employer and to ensure the renewal of employment contracts between the same parties. The Commission has, therefore, authorised the granting of special holiday leave, not to exceed five months in duration, which will entitle workers for whose return a request is put in by their employer to come back to their employment at the end of their leave without having to re-register or sign a fresh employment contract. For purposes of crossing the frontier in coming and going, workers will merely have to show their leave-permits as stamped with the visa of the Italian and the French authorities, application to whom must be made. The conditions of re-employment are to be regulated according to the conditions enjoyed in the same locality by workers of the same grade⁽⁶⁾.

Relief of Unemployed French Persons in Switzerland

A Resolution was laid before the French Chamber on 26 June last⁽⁷⁾ inviting the Government both to take steps to send immediate relief to unemployed French persons living in Switzerland and to negotiate a Convention with that country to obtain reciprocity of treatment of nationals.

Information communicated by the French Embassy at Berne and incorporated in the terms of the Resolution states that the number of unemployed French persons in Switzerland and their dependants had fallen from over 1,800 in December 1921 to 1,045 in May 1922, in consequence of voluntary departures, of repatriations and of resumption of work in certain industries. A large number of these unemployed persons are living in French Switzerland, the seat of the watch trade, which has been specially hit by the economic crisis.

A letter from the French-Swiss Secretary of the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions is also quoted in the text of the Resolution, and calls attention to the fact that previous *pourparlers* between the French and Federal Governments came to no result because Switzerland does not grant unemployment benefit to foreign workers unless their country of origin is prepared to guarantee to Swiss workers resident in that country privileges equal to those defined in the Decree of the Federal Council of 29 October 1919, and, further, because the French Government was unable to contemplate the adoption of methods of unemployment relief consonant with the principles laid down by Swiss legislation. Nevertheless, in the view of the writer quoted, the problem of the relief of French persons unemployed in Switzerland could be solved by the conclusion of a special Convention determining the conditions on which unemployment relief should be granted to such persons and binding France to re-imburse the costs of such relief to the Swiss Government; the Swiss Federal Government, it is stated, would then probably be persuaded to pay a supplementary allowance over and above the maximum allocated by France and to arrange that payments should be made through the medium of the Swiss government unemployment relief offices.

The Resolution has been sent to the Finance Commission of the Chamber of Deputies.

⁽⁶⁾ SOCIETÀ UMANITARIA : *Correspondenza settimanale*, 15 Aug. 1922. Rome.

⁽⁷⁾ *Journal Officiel*. 13 Aug. 1922, Appendix No. 4558, p. 1138. Paris.

Hispano-Argentine Convention on Industrial Accident Compensation

On 13 July the Spanish Government obtained the Royal sanction to ratify the Convention of 27 November 1919 between Spain and the Argentine Republic concerning the position of Spanish and Argentine workers who have been the victims of industrial accidents in the Argentine and Spain respectively. The Argentine Government incorporated the Convention in a Bill constituting the Argentine Labour Code, which was introduced into the Chamber of Deputies in a Message of 6 June 1921; it is embodied in the text of Articles 512-519. A similar Convention with Italy is embodied in Articles 520-527.

By the terms of the Hispano-Argentine Convention the nationals of the two contracting parties who are the victims of industrial accidents in the territory of the other party, and their heirs, are entitled to the compensation and privileges granted by local law to nationals. Notwithstanding any contrary provision in the respective national laws the right to compensation shall not be lost by migration of the injured worker or his heirs from the territory of the state where the accident took place to another country.

If a Spanish worker dies in the Argentine Republic as the result of an industrial accident, or an Argentine worker dies in Spain, his heirs are entitled to compensation, in whichever of the two contracting countries they are living. The National Pensions Fund, or other office for the payment of accident compensation, must in either case advise the consular representative of the state of which the deceased was a national with a view to communication with his heirs.

When in one of the contracting countries a worker dies as a result of an industrial accident, whatever may be his nationality, his heirs are entitled to receive the corresponding legal compensation provided they are living in the other contracting country.

The Convention is concluded for a period of five years, and will be considered prolonged from year to year until one year's notice of its expiry has been given (*).

MIGRATION MOVEMENTS

Great Britain and Ireland

Statistics relating to alien passengers who entered and left the United Kingdom in 1921 have been issued by the Home Office (*). They are drawn up in virtue of the Aliens Restriction Acts of 1914 and 1919 and the Aliens Order of 1920.

The following table shows the total number of alien passengers, excluding transmigrants (⁽¹⁾), landed and embarked in the United Kingdom during 1921. These figures include both emigrants and non-emigrants, such as business visitors, etc.

It will be seen that the number of alien passengers who left the United Kingdom exceeded the number who entered by 11,297.

(*) *Boletín del Departamento nacional del Trabajo*, Nov. 1921. Buenos Ayres.

(*) *Statistics in regard to Alien Passengers who entered and left the United Kingdom in 1921* (Cmd. 1670). London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1922.

(⁽¹⁾) See Note to the table on p. 598.

ALIEN PASSENGERS LANDED AND EMBARKED IN THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1921

Traffic inward			Traffic outward		
From ports in Europe and the Mediterranean Sea	From ports outside Europe and the Mediterranean Sea	Total	To ports in Europe and the Mediterranean Sea	To ports outside Europe and the Mediterranean Sea	Total
245,945	48,624	294,569	251,010	54,856	305,866

The second table gives, under a number of different categories, the nationalities of the alien passengers who were given leave to land during the year and who may be considered as immigrants.

ALIEN IMMIGRANTS PERMITTED TO LAND IN THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1921

Nationality	Aliens holding Ministry of Labour permits			Other aliens			Total
	Men	Women	Children under 16	Men	Women	Children under 16	
Belgian	74	91	5	62	169	37	438
Bulgarian	—	1	—	1	1	—	3
Chinese	11	2	2	62	21	10	108
Czechoslovak	14	32	—	27	54	6	133
Dutch	71	69	9	44	90	26	309
Finnish	3	7	—	3	10	6	29
French	177	338	13	666	1,200	189	2,583
Greek	5	—	—	58	36	11	110
Italian	388	168	21	451	502	260	1,790
Jugo-Slav	2	1	—	5	7	3	18
Polish	25	17	6	109	246	161	584
Russian	24	23	1	129	121	63	361
Scandinavian (including Danish)	179	309	1	92	153	32	766
Spanish and Portuguese	26	40	3	99	104	30	302
Swiss	108	520	3	219	357	27	1,234
United States	80	44	4	510	396	164	1,198
German	—	—	—	46	80	17	143
Austrian	—	—	—	5	11	4	20
Hungarian	—	—	—	1	4	3	8
Ottoman	3	2	—	14	13	2	34
Other nationalities	48	21	16	384	214	101	784
Total	1,238	1,685	84	2,987	3,789	1,152	10,935

The Ministry of Labour permit referred to is a necessary condition of admission for any alien who desires to enter the service of an employer in the United Kingdom. The "Other aliens" comprised in the last three columns may be regarded as having gone to the United Kingdom either for permanent residence or to stay for some little time. No corresponding details for the aliens who embarked are given.

The following table shows the number of transmigrants as defined by Article IV (1) of the Aliens Order who entered and left the United Kingdom during the year 1921.

TRANSMIGRANTS ENTERING OR LEAVING THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1921

Whence arrived or destination	Number landed ⁽¹⁾	Number embarked ⁽¹⁾
Europe and Mediterranean Sea	52,853	31,822
British North America	12,726	11,989
United States of America	18,218	41,514
South America	349	693
Other places	—	42
Total	84,146	86,060

⁽¹⁾ Under Article IV (4) of the Aliens Order the shipping companies are responsible for seeing that all such transmigrants will be properly maintained and controlled during transit. The small excess of departures over arrivals consists of persons who entered the country in 1920 and did not leave until 1921. During 1921 327 transmigrants were rejected in the United Kingdom and 512 were rejected in the country of destination. Out of this total of 839 transmigrants all except six are known to have been disposed of by the shipping companies under the terms of their contracts.

In answer to a question in the British House of Commons on 22 June 1922 the President of the Board of Trade gave the following figures relating to migration between Great Britain and the Dominions.

BRITISH EMIGRANTS AND IMMIGRANTS BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN
AND THE DOMINIONS IN 1921

To or from	British emigrants from the United Kingdom	British immigrants into the United Kingdom	Net emigration from the United Kingdom
Canada	67,937	21,047	46,860
Australia	27,751	8,859	18,892
New Zealand	11,513	1,568	9,945
Union of South Africa	12,903	5,894	7,109

These figures refer to emigrants leaving permanent residence in the United Kingdom to take up permanent residence in the Dominion concerned, and, in the second column, British immigrants who arrived to take up permanent residence in the United Kingdom. The figures show that there is a considerable return movement of British emigrants from the Dominions to the United Kingdom, and the net immigration in the former is much less than would appear from a study of the figures concerned exclusively with the number of immigrants.

There is no information, it is stated, regarding the number of British emigrants who left Canada, Australia ⁽¹¹⁾, and New Zealand to establish themselves elsewhere ⁽¹²⁾. The figures for South Africa were given in the *Notes* for September 1922.

Repatriation of Native Workers entering France during the War

The following figures ⁽¹³⁾ show to some extent the numbers of native workers recruited for employment in France during the war and the proportion who have been repatriated.

⁽¹¹⁾ Australian statistics for the year 1921 were published in the *Notes on Migration* in the September issue, but they do not distinguish the permanent departures from temporary departures, or persons who leave permanent residence from those who are merely on a visit.

⁽¹²⁾ *Parliamentary Debates, House of Commons, 22 June 1922*; Volume 155, No. 82, Official Report. London.

⁽¹³⁾ Cf. *Revue politique et parlementaire*, 10 July 1922. Paris.

The number of Indo-Chinese workers introduced into France during the war is estimated at 48,955. By 1 October 1921 the number of those who had been repatriated was 44,142; 2,345 had died, 720 had disappeared, 1,573 had entered military formations, and 175 had been freed to reside in France.

The Government Mission sent to China during the war to engage Chinese labourers on contract had recruited 36,748 labourers. It is estimated that by 1 October 1921 the number of those who had been repatriated was 29,260, 216 were residing in France after having been freed of their contract, 1,081 had died, leaving 6,191 to be repatriated, (including 966 reckoned as deserters).

The following table, which was drawn up to apply to 1 October 1921, summarises the numbers of workers recruited from North Africa during the war.

Nationality	Landing	Repatriated	Disappeared	Liberated in France	Entered the army	Died
Algerians	78,566	68,447	5,923	599	599	2,904
Tunisians	18,249	15,631	1,428	181	244	765
Moroccans	35,506	30,614	2,838	1,055	10	989

Polish Immigration into France

According to figures published by the Central Emigration Office of Posen, 3,000 miners and over 5,000 agricultural workers left Poland for France between 1 October 1921 and 1 May 1922⁽¹⁴⁾. The number of Poles working in French mines is estimated by another source at 24,000. The largest groups are found in the Departments of the Nord and the Pas de Calais, e.g. 1,200 at Anzin, 1,600 at Nœux, 1,500 at Ostricourt, 2,400 at Marles, 3,700 at Bruy; in Lorraine, e.g. 4,000 at Hagondange; or in the centre of France, e.g. 400 in the St. Etienne district, and 1,900 at Monceau-les-Mines. Smaller groups are scattered through the Departments of the Tarn, Gard, l'Aveyron, the Haute Saône, and the Nièvre⁽¹⁵⁾. Finally, the Report presented to the French Senate on the Bill to ratify the Franco-Polish Convention on Social Welfare and Relief, dated 14 October 1920⁽¹⁶⁾, states that the number of persons entering France from Poland was 14,651 in 1920, sank to only 9,345 in 1921 in consequence of the economic crisis, but is estimated to rise again to between 15,000 and 18,000 in 1922.

The total number of Polish nationals resident on French territory on 1 July 1921 was, according to the special census of aliens undertaken by direction of the Ministry of the Interior, 44,141 persons, of whom 25,993 were men, 8,745 were women, and 9,403 were children.

Hungary : Statistics for 1921⁽¹⁷⁾

The Central Statistical Office has published emigration statistics referring to 1921, on practically the same basis as adopted for pre-

⁽¹⁴⁾ Cf. *Le Démocrate*, 1 June 1922. Brussels.

⁽¹⁵⁾ Cf. *La Flandre libérale*, 19 Aug. 1922. Ghent.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Cf. above, under *International Action : Franco-Polish Convention on Social Welfare and Relief*.

⁽¹⁷⁾ *Statisztikai Havi Közlemények*, Jan.-Mar. 1922.

vious years. The figures refer to actual cases of emigration, as registered by the authorities of the emigrant's last place of residence, of persons to whom passports were issued for the purpose. The general situation shows that the figures are extremely incomplete. The number of persons quoted as leaving the country during the year is only 1,457 (503 men and 763 women, together with 191 children under 12 years of age); of these 1,218 went to America and 239 to other countries. The Central Office further states that 1,731 persons returned to Hungary in the course of 1921 (940 men and 390 women, together with 401 children under 12); of these again the large majority, namely 1,719, came from America.

The Minister of the Interior has forbidden local authorities to issue any more passports to Hungarian nationals for emigration purposes until further instructions. He has also directed representatives of shipping companies to send all intending emigrants with their personal papers to the Government Emigration Protection Office before finally concluding the transport contract or registering them as passengers. The object of this regulation is to provide emigrants with better advice, better protection, and better care. The Statistical Office itself proposes to make an early appointment on the staff of the Emigration Protection Office with a view to greater accuracy in the collection of statistics ⁽¹⁸⁾.

Italian Survey of World Labour Situation

The Italian General Emigration Office has published a special supplement to its *Bulletin*, analysing the conditions of the labour market in all the countries of the world on 1 May 1922. The object of the volume is to guide prospective emigrants from Italy in choosing a country of destination in which the prospects from the point of view of employment are favourable ⁽¹⁹⁾.

Japanese Immigration into Brazil

The current of Japanese immigration which is establishing itself in the State of São Paulo is being directed toward the State of Minas-Geraes, where the Government has signed a contract with a Japanese syndicate, granting special privileges in regard to the introduction of emigrant labour and the rearing of silk-worms ⁽²⁰⁾.

Information is also to hand on the activities of the Kaigai Kogyo Kabushiji Kaisha ⁽²¹⁾, a Japanese company which has obtained a contract for the Japanese colonisation of the district of the Ribeira de Iguape in the State of São Paulo. It is stated that the total amount of land acquired by the company is 181,294 hectares, and that in December 1921 there was a population of 2,592 persons in the colony, of whom 2,263 were Japanese. There were two schools in the centre of the colony and several industrial establishments ⁽²²⁾.

⁽¹⁸⁾ *Küföldi Magyarág*, 15 July 1922.

⁽¹⁹⁾ COMMISSARIATO GENERALE DELL' EMIGRAZIONE: *Le Condizioni mondiali del mercato di lavoro al 1 maggio*, 1922. Rome.

⁽²⁰⁾ *Le Brésil*, 2 July 1922. Paris.

⁽²¹⁾ Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, p. 122.

⁽²²⁾ *O Paiz*, 20 July 1922. Rio de Janeiro.

The United States

In the *Monthly Labour Review* ⁽²³⁾ the Commissioner-General of Immigration has published an article on the operation of the Three per Cent. Immigration Act of 19 May 1921 during the year 1921-1922. After giving a short historical survey of immigration legislation in the United States, he points out that the new law has necessitated the introduction of a new series of statistics which are not comparable with existing statistics. This is due to two main causes :

(1) Under the Quota Law immigrants are classified by country of birth instead of by country of last permanent residence.

(2) Both immigrant and non-immigrant aliens may appear in the new statistics, or, by reason of exemptions, arriving aliens of both classes may not be considered in such statistics at all.

The admissions in excess of quotas during the year 1921-1922, amounting to a total of 2,508, represented cases in which absolute and immediate rejection would have inflicted great hardship on innocent immigrants. Nearly all the excess admissions occurred during the first six months of the fiscal year.

The Commissioner-General considers that the Immigration Act has accomplished the purpose for which it was enacted with a degree of success which few anticipated. The table given below shows that the countries of northern and western Europe exhausted less than half their quotas, while those of southern and eastern Europe and Asiatic Turkish territory exhausted almost their entire quota. The "other sources", which show 184.7 per cent. of immigrants admitted, include the so-called Assyrian refugees who took refuge in Mesopotamia after fleeing from their homes in Persia during the war and who later applied for admission to the United States.

IMMIGRATION OF ALIENS

INTO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE THREE PER CENT. IMMIGRATION ACT OF 19 MAY 1921, DURING THE FISCAL YEAR 1921-1922, BY SPECIFIED AREAS

Area	Total number admissible during fiscal year 1921-1922 ⁽¹⁾	Number admitted and charged to quota during the fiscal year 1921- 1922 ⁽²⁾	Percent. of quota admitted
Northern and western Europe	198,082	91,862	46.4
Southern and eastern Europe and Asiatic Turkish territory	158,200	150,774	95.3
Other sources	713	1,317	184.7

⁽¹⁾ The quotas here given differ in some instances from the figures as originally published, the differences being due to the inclusion of the foreign-born population of Alaska, Hawaii, and Porto Rico in a revision of the basic population.

⁽²⁾ Subject to possible slight revision due to pending cases in which admissions chargeable to the quotas of the fiscal year 1921-1922 may occur.

Taking the more important countries separately and comparing actual numbers admitted with numbers admissible according to quota, we find the proportions as follows : Austria, 4,797 persons admitted out of a possible entry of 7,451 (64.4 per cent.) ; Czechoslovakia, 14,248 out of a possible 14,282 (99.8 per cent.) ; Denmark, 3,284 out of 5,694

⁽²³⁾ *Monthly Labour Review*, Aug. 1922. Washington, Government Printing Office.

(56.7 per cent.); Finland, 3,038 out of 3,921 (77.5 per cent.); France, 4,343 out of 5,729 (75.9 per cent.); Germany, 19,053 out of 68,059 (28.0 per cent.); Greece, 3,447, exceeding by 153 an admissible quota of 3,294 (104.7 per cent.); Hungary, 6,035, exceeding by 379 an admissible quota of 5,638 (107.2 per cent.); Italy, 42,149, exceeding by 92 an admissible quota of 42,057 (100.2 per cent.); Norway, 5,941 out of a possible 12,202 (48.7 per cent.); Poland, 26,129, exceeding by 302 an admissible quota of 25,827 (101.1 per cent.); Roumania, 7,429, exceeding by ten persons an admissible quota of 7,419 (100.1 per cent.); Russia (including Siberia), 28,908, out of a possible quota of 34,284 (84.4 per cent.); Sweden, 8,766 out of 20,042 (43.8 per cent.); Switzerland, 3,723 out of 3,752 (99.2 per cent.); the United Kingdom, 42,670 out of 77,342 (55.2 per cent.); and the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, 6,644, exceeding by 18 an admissible quota of 6,426 (103.5 per cent.).

As a result of the new quotas under the Immigration Act laid down for the fiscal year 1922-1923 large numbers of immigrants arrived at New York in the early days of July. By 7 July the quotas for the month for Armenia, Palestine, other Asia, Albania, and Africa had already been exhausted. It is stated on the authority of Ellis Island officials that in the present year no exception to the law will be made. Every immigrant brought to the United States in excess of the month's quota, i.e. 20 per cent. of the total quota of the year, will be sent back immediately at the steamship company's expense.

Interesting statistics⁽²⁴⁾ are given to show the effectiveness of the Chinese Exclusion Law during the last thirty years. The following figures represent the number of natives of China in the population of the United States at various census periods.

1890	106,701	1910	56,756
1900	81,534	1920	43,560

The Foreign Population in New York City

The Department of Commerce has just announced that according to the census of 1920 the foreign white stock in the population of New York City on 1 January 1920 numbered 4,294,629. Foreign white stock includes the total foreign-born white population plus the native white population having one or both parents foreign-born. The following comparative figures are given.

Year	Total population	Foreign white stock	
		Number	Percent. of the population
1910	4,766,883	3,747,844	78.6
1920	5,620,048	4,294,629	76.4

The foreign white stock, which, it will be seen, increased between 1910 and 1920 by 546,785 or 14.6 per cent., in 1920 comprised 1,991,547 foreign-born persons and 2,303,082 persons born in the United States and having one or both parents foreign-born⁽²⁵⁾.

⁽²⁴⁾ *Monthly Labour Review*, Aug. 1922. Washington.

⁽²⁵⁾ *Federal Trade Information Service and Bankers' Information Service*, 3 Aug. 1922. Washington.

Migration of Mennonites ⁽²⁶⁾

Further information is now available regarding the condition of the Mennonites in Canada. It is reported by *Vorwärts*, the Mennonite journal in Hillsboro (Canada), that the Canadian Government has declared its readiness to abolish the restriction on the immigration of Mennonites. At the same time, the Ukrainian Government is said to have stated that the Mennonites living in the Ukraine will be allowed to depart as soon as any country is found willing to accept them. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company has undertaken to send ships to Russia in order to bring the Mennonites to Canada. The Company is willing to wait for the payment of the fare, which will amount to approximately \$100 per person, until the emigrants are able to pay, provided that the Mennonites already in Canada are willing to give a guarantee. The Canadian Pacific Railway Company has also offered land for settlement purposes which is to cost \$15 per acre; for the first five years, however, only taxes need to be paid and thereafter the payment for the land will be made in instalments spread over twenty years.

The Mennonites at present in Canada, who held a conference in Altona, Manitoba, recently decided to create an Immigration Committee in co-operation with the Mennonites of the United States to deal with the immigration of other members of the sect. They are also considering the purchase of the land, consisting of about 1,000 farms, which was formerly the property of those Mennonites who migrated to Mexico ⁽²⁷⁾.

Mexico : Emigration and Immigration in 1920

The Official Gazette (*Diario oficial*) of Mexico publishes statistics of emigration and immigration for the year 1920 as an appendix to the issue of 10 June 1922. Figures are given both for the whole year and for the separate months. They are summarised below.

	1920	
Sex	Immigration	Emigration
Men	74,386	48,348
Women	16,735	19,810
Total	91,121	68,158

Mexico was therefore in 1920 a country of immigration, both for all races and more especially for persons of mixed white and native origin.

	1920		
Race	Immigration	Emigration	Excess of immigration over emigration
White	50,957	50,042	915
Pure native	586	220	366
Half-caste (white and native)	36,498	16,558	19,940
Yellow	2,732	1,195	1,537
Negro	345	140	205
Other races	3	3	—

⁽²⁶⁾ *Der Auslandsdeutsche*, 2 Aug. 1922. Stuttgart.

⁽²⁷⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 248-249.

By far the larger number both of emigrants and of immigrants were between the ages either of 20 and 40, or of 40 and 60, namely, 60,202 immigrants and 40,270 emigrants between 20 and 40, and 15,506 immigrants and 10,967 emigrants between 40 and 60; the proportion of men to women is not given.

As to race, the larger number were Mexicans, namely, 69,721 immigrants and 54,908 emigrants. Other large groups were 7,817 immigrants coming from, and 4,716 emigrants proceeding to, North America; 4,184 immigrants, and 2,925 emigrants, of Spanish nationality; and 2,142 immigrants, and 707 emigrants, of British nationality. Persons of Chinese nationality also arrived and left in considerable numbers, namely, 2,669 arriving, and 1,066 leaving.

The occupation by far the most largely represented was agriculture. The number of immigrants practising that occupation who arrived in the course of the year was 50,733 (all other occupations together 40,388), and the number of emigrants leaving, 26,333 (all other occupations together, 41,825).

Finally, it may be noted that there were important monthly fluctuations in the currents both of immigration and of emigration; the excess of immigration over emigration occurred exclusively during the last three months of the year.

GOVERNMENT POLICY AND LEGISLATION

British Empire

Australia

A step forward has been taken in developing the Empire Settlement Scheme under the Act passed by the British Parliament in June last⁽²⁸⁾ by the conclusion of an Agreement between representatives of the British and Australian Governments on 19 July. This Agreement provides that the two Governments shall each be committed to an expenditure of not more than £200,000 up to 31 March 1923. Migrants will receive an advance of two-thirds of the sum required for passage-money, half of which will be regarded as a loan; in necessitous cases the whole amount may be advanced with the condition that two-thirds shall be treated as loan. The passage-money will be advanced free of interest and will be repayable by the applicant after arrival in Australia in monthly instalments. The Agreement applies to both men and women; there is no age limit, and the settlement of families is encouraged. The assistance referred to will be given to applicants selected under an approved land settlement or development scheme, and to applicants who have been nominated by friends or relatives in Australia or have satisfied the Director of Migration and Settlement that they have definite employment or a reasonable assurance of employment awaiting them on arrival and are in other respects acceptable to the Australian Government. It is anticipated that the Agreement will cover the passages of about 16,000 settlers⁽²⁹⁾.

With regard to the Western Australian scheme, to which reference

⁽²⁸⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 88 et seq.

⁽²⁹⁾ *The Times and Daily Telegraph*, 22 July 1922; *The Coloniser*, Aug. 1922, London.

has already been made in these *Notes* ⁽³⁰⁾, the Governor of that State in his speech at the opening of Parliament on 27 July said that the Prime Minister, Sir James Mitchell, had succeeded in obtaining the co-operation of the British Government in an emigration scheme under which the State would receive 75,000 men, women, and children from the United Kingdom in the course of from three to five years.

The cost of the propaganda work, examination, and passages will be borne by the Commonwealth Government, while the State will maintain control of the selection of immigrants. The Commonwealth Government undertakes to return to Britain, at its own cost, immigrants who are found to be unfit to take their place in the industrial life of the community. The State will receive £2,000,000 on loan for each twenty-five thousand immigrants, the interest on the money for the first five years to be borne by the Imperial, Commonwealth, and State Governments in equal parts. The *per capita* payment of 25s. annually by the Commonwealth ⁽³¹⁾ will be augmented on account of new arrivals by a sum almost sufficient to pay the State's third of the bill. Loan money will be used to strengthen the funds of the Agricultural Bank in order to help existing landowners to double their present production of wheat by clearing additional land and largely increase their stock-carrying capacity, as well as to provide for the housing of people in country towns and districts and to settle six thousand additional people on the land with holdings brought to the productive stage, and ample provision for railways, roads, and marketing facilities.

The Victorian Government has also outlined a plan for bringing in immigrants. The Premier, Mr. Lawson, stated in the Assembly on 26 July that the Government intended to bring 10,000 immigrants into the State at the rate of 2,000 a year. The first 2,000 would arrive this year, 1,000 being settled in the dry areas and 1,000 in irrigation country. The financial basis proposed is the same as that of the Western Australian scheme ⁽³²⁾.

In a statement issued with regard to the principles of Australia's migration and settlement scheme under the Empire Settlement Act, the High Commissioner for Australia in London states that successful applicants must be pronounced medically fit. Adult men must furnish satisfactory evidence of their desire and capacity to engage in agricultural occupation. There are also openings for large numbers of boy migrants suitable for training in land avocations. This training is carried out in Australia, either on training farms or with accredited farmers. Thirdly, there are unlimited openings for women who desire work as household helpers, and it is anticipated that a system of training for such women, who have had no previous experience of the kind, will be inaugurated in Great Britain. Finally, Australia offers to approved settlers with a capital of £500 and upwards facilities for their preliminary training and their acquirement of agricultural and pastoral lands.

At the date of the statement (August 1922) the Government of Australia was offering to assist the following classes of British migrants

⁽³⁰⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, pp. 809-811, and Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, p. 253.

⁽³¹⁾ Under the Surplus Revenue Act 1910, the Commonwealth pays annually to each State a sum equivalent to 25s. per head of the population; this sum represents the balance of revenue collected in the State after the necessary expenditure on Commonwealth services.

⁽³²⁾ *The Times*, 27 and 28 July 1922. London.

to settle in Australia : farm workers for Victoria, single men (farm workers) for Western and Southern Australia, lads for Southern Australia and Queensland, and women and domestic workers for all States. Each migrant of these classes is expected to pay £24 towards the cost of his or her passage, while in the case of male migrants the sum of £3 for landing money is also required ⁽³³⁾.

New Zealand

The New Zealand Premier and the Minister of Immigration both informed Parliament in July that the Government intended to take advantage of the State Aided Empire Settlement Scheme. In answer to criticisms the latter stated that New Zealand had received 19,615 immigrants since April 1920, less than 1 per cent. of whom had returned to Great Britain. Most of these immigrants had settled in the country districts ⁽³⁴⁾.

It may be recalled that the policy at present in force in New Zealand is to restrict immigration to "open nominations" and "applied passages". Under the former any resident in New Zealand can nominate a person living in the United Kingdom for an assisted passage, provided that he signs an undertaking to provide employment and make provision for the maintenance of the person nominated. The Minister of Immigration stated in May last that in 99 per cent. of the cases of this class the undertaking had been carried out to the satisfaction of the Department. "Applied passages" are passages authorised in the case of artisans, bricklayers, carpenters, fitters, farm labourers, and domestics, who are approved after application to the High Commissioner in London; during the present year, however, such passages have been restricted to domestic servants, owing to existing commercial, financial, and industrial conditions ⁽³⁵⁾. The Premier recently announced in Parliament that proposals had been made which might possibly replace the nomination system ⁽³⁶⁾.

Canada

In Canada no definite proposals have yet been made by the Federal Government under the Empire Settlement Act. The Dominion Minister of Immigration and Colonisation has, however, recently paid a visit to various Provinces, during which he stated that the Government intended to inaugurate a very active immigration policy. In the meantime he announced that a new Immigration Board was to be formed comprising one man and one woman from each Province. This Board is to act as an Advisory Committee to the Government. In future the function of the Federal authorities is to be limited almost solely to the securing of the immigrant and to arranging for his safe arrival at his chosen destination. As soon as the immigrant arrives there he will become the charge of the Province ⁽³⁷⁾.

⁽³³⁾ *Manchester Guardian*, 16 Aug. 1922. Manchester.

⁽³⁴⁾ *The Times*, 26 and 28 July 1922. London.

⁽³⁵⁾ *New Zealand Herald*, 27 May 1922. Auckland.

⁽³⁶⁾ *The Coloniser*, Aug. 1922. London.

⁽³⁷⁾ *Montreal Gazette*, 18 July 1922, Montreal; and *Canada*, 22 July 1922. London.

Medical Examination before Departure

In answer to a question in the House of Commons Mr. Amery said that a certain number of emigrants from the United Kingdom had been rejected at the port of arrival in Canada or subsequently deported. Improvements were, however, being effected in the arrangements for the selection of settlers and for their medical examination prior to departure; he added that all the Dominions had adopted the improved methods of medical examination referred to in the last Report of the Oversea Settlement Committee. These methods consist in the appointment of medical referees throughout the United Kingdom, who receive full instructions as to the nature of the information they are required to furnish, and are authorised to charge special fees varying from 10s. a head to £1 1s. 0d. for a family⁽³⁸⁾.

Measures regulating Immigration in France

A new French Decree regulates the conditions on which entry and travelling permits will be issued to foreign workers coming into France⁽³⁹⁾, cancelling a previous Decree of 19 November 1920. By the terms of this new Decree every foreign worker holding a proper employment contract will receive, when presenting himself either at an immigration office or a French frontier station, a safe-conduct allowing him to proceed to the place where his employment lies. He must notify his arrival to the local authorities within a week, and will receive from them the special identity card instituted by the Decree of 2 April 1917. Should a foreign worker have omitted to present himself at the emigration office or at the frontier station on his entry into France, he must, nevertheless, make application for a card from the local authorities. A preliminary enquiry will then be held in order to make sure that such worker holds a recognised employment contract according to the conditions laid down by order of the Ministries of Labour and of Agriculture. An identity card will be issued when the results of the enquiry are favourable. Such card may not be refused on account of the situation in the labour market except after examination into each individual case conducted by the competent authorities of the Ministry of the Interior in agreement with those of the Ministries of Labour or of Agriculture.

Any change of address entails the obligation of submitting the identity card to the local authorities of the worker's new residential district for a fresh visa. Finally, the Decree obliges every employer engaging a foreign worker to assure himself previously that such worker has not contravened the regulations of the Decree.

On demand of the Minister of Agriculture, the Minister of the Interior has issued a Circular, dated 23 June 1922, to all Prefects warning them that a large number of foreign agricultural labourers entering France with a regular employment contract are breaking their contracts with a view to seeking more advantageous conditions elsewhere. The Minister recommends that Prefects should invite any foreign agricultural worker found to have broken his employment contract to

⁽³⁸⁾ *Parliamentary Debates, House of Commons*, 22 June 1922; Vol. 155, No. 82, Official Reports. London. Also *Report of the Oversea Settlement Committee for the Year ended 31 December 1921*. London.

⁽³⁹⁾ Decree of 6 June 1922. Cf. *Journal officiel*, 19 July 1922. Paris.

supply an immediate explanation. They should further take all measures which may appear useful in compelling such worker—unless ill or prevented by *force majeure*—either to resume his original employment or to quit the country ⁽⁴⁰⁾.

The Belgian Congo

The Belgian Decree issued on 16 March 1922 ⁽⁴¹⁾ is interesting in its application to emigration inasmuch as its terms apply not only to contracts which natives of the Congo, but also to those which natives of neighbouring colonies, may conclude with any employer in the Congo, whether native or not, who pays personal taxes other than the native tax ("civilised" employers).

The general terms of the Decree prohibit natives who are under the guardianship of official or private organisations, also married native women, from hiring out their services except with the authorisation of their guardianship authority or husband, as the case may be. No employment contract may be for more than three years, and all contracts lasting longer than six months must be submitted to the authorities for a visa. Wages must be stated in money having legal currency and can only in part be subject to seizure or forfeit. The employer must bind himself to see that the work to be done is performed under proper conditions from the point of view of safety and health, must promise the necessary medical care in the event of sickness or accident, and must undertake to repatriate the worker to the district where the employment contract was signed; more especially is an employer who engages a worker through the instrumentality of an employment recruiting agent bound to repatriate the worker to the district whence he was recruited. Workers must demand to be repatriated in the course of the month following the expiry of the employment contract; an employer is held to have fulfilled this condition by payment or remittance to the worker of the cost of repatriation.

The Decree lays down that any person recruiting, or attempting to recruit, any native for employment purposes shall obtain a special personal permit; in issuing permits the deposit of a security may be demanded. Recruitment for employment purposes is interpreted to include the act of persuading or of attempting to persuade natives not yet holding an employment contract to leave their homes with a view to obtaining an employment at a distance greater than 25 kilometres.

The Vice-Governor-General of the province or his delegate may lay down conditions as to housing, sleeping accommodation, and food varying with the district or with the original home from which the worker has come. Finally, the Governor-General and all other persons charged with authority in the country are called upon to afford special protection to indigenous or immigrant natives in matters touching their employment contract.

A Decree of 8 August 1922 states that the following classes of persons will be regarded as undesirable immigrants:—

(1) Those who are regarded by the Governor-General as undesirable for economic reasons or because of their habits and ways of living.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ *La Main d'œuvre agricole*, July 1922, Paris. Also *Notizie sull' Emigrazione*, 4 Aug. 1922. Rome.

⁽⁴¹⁾ Cf. *Moniteur belge*, 27 Apr. 1922. Brussels.

(2) Those who cannot read or write a European language satisfactorily.

(3) Those who are likely to become a public charge, together with their dependants.

(4) Those who are regarded by the Vice-Governor-General as undesirable travellers or residents as a result of information received from the Belgian or any other Government.

(5) Those who make a living by prostitution or who encourage prostitution by allowing the use of rooms, etc. for that purpose.

(6) Those who have been condemned either in the colony or abroad for any extraditable crime, and those who are regarded as undesirable as a result of circumstances accompanying the crime.

(7) Those who are feeble-minded.

(8) Those who are suffering from epilepsy or any loathsome or contagious disease, without prejudice to the special provisions in force regarding certain illnesses such as tuberculosis ⁽⁴²⁾.

Insurance of Emigrants in Spain

The Superior Council of Emigration in Spain, at its sitting of 11 July 1922, accepted a resolution of its Finance Section proposing to terminate the system of insured relief to emigrants in transit at present in force in Spain in view of its non-success, and to constitute a special fund, to be guaranteed by the Council itself out of the insurance fee of three *pesetas* payable on behalf of each emigrant. This fund would enable the Council to make direct remittance to the family of any emigrant lost by shipwreck of a compensation payment not to exceed 3,000 *pesetas*. The plenary meeting of the Council instructed the Finance Section to draw up a scheme as a basis of discussion ⁽⁴³⁾.

Emigration Bill of the Finnish Government

In Finland two Commissions have been set up to examine emigration problems. The first deals with the legal position of emigrants, and is at the moment drawing up instructions for the use of Finnish consular authorities abroad dealing more particularly with inheritance rights of Finnish emigrants and the protection of their interests within their own country. The other Commission is dealing with an Emigration Bill, the discussion on which has just been completed. One of the objects of this Bill is to prevent illegal recruitment for employment purposes of emigrants, and to protect their interests during the voyage out. In view of the ground covered by the problem, it is unlikely that the Commission will have concluded its work before the end of the year, and the text of the Bill will hardly be ready before the opening of 1923 ⁽⁴⁴⁾.

Czechoslovak Regulations

The Czechoslovak Emigration Act of 15 February 1922 has previously been analysed in the *Review* ⁽⁴⁵⁾. Regulations based on this Act were promulgated on 8 June 1922. They prescribe that all transportation undertakings must send to the Government Statistical Office extracts

⁽⁴²⁾ *Moniteur belge*, 28 and 29 Aug. 1922. Brussels.

⁽⁴³⁾ *El Emigrante español*, 20 July 1922. Madrid.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ *Hufvudstadsbladet*, 9 Aug. 1922. Helsingfors.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 977-978.

from their books, publications, and lists. They must also send to the Ministry for Social Welfare, once a month :

- (1) a statement of the number of emigrants actually transported ;
- (2) a list of emigrants who have been rejected by the country of immigration, together with the reason for their rejection ;
- (3) lists of addresses of their representatives in the ports of embarkation and disembarkation ;
- (4) a statement of the money paid to the undertaking by each emigrant ;
- (5) two copies of all pamphlets, etc., issued by the undertaking.

A Permanent Emigration Council is to be appointed at the Ministry of Social Welfare. The functions of this Council are to give the Ministry advice in questions concerning emigration, immigration, and re-emigration. It consists of representatives of employers, workers, migration experts, transportation undertakings, humanitarian organisations, the State Land Office, Statistical Office, and Shipping Office and of all Government Departments. The Council will be nominated for a period of three years, the first period commencing 1 September 1922. The Ministry is responsible for giving correct information to all intending emigrants free of charge, and for seeing that no propaganda in favour of emigration is carried on.

If a transportation undertaking desires to engage in subsidised emigration a special licence must be obtained from the Ministry ; the application for this licence must state who is to pay the cost of the transportation and the name of the undertaking for which the emigrants are going to work. The transportation undertaking must conclude a contract with the migrant in accordance with a form issued by the Ministry. This contract must contain precise particulars as to the undertaking itself, the emigrant, the time and place of departure, the destination, information as to the ship or ships on which the journey will be made, fare, the amount of luggage which is allowed, the responsibility of the undertaking to provide sufficient food and lodging for the emigrant and to provide medical assistance if necessary, to insure the emigrant at the latter's expense, to make provision for the food and lodging of the emigrant for three days before embarkation, to pay back to the emigrant or his representatives the money for any part of the journey which is not undertaken for unavoidable reasons such as illness, accidents, etc., to bring the emigrant back to Czechoslovakia if he should be rejected in the country of immigration, and to submit all disputes to the arbitration of the local Czechoslovak consul.

Emigrant ships must comply with regulations concerning safety apparatus and sanitary conditions. If the regulations of the country to which the emigrant ship belongs do not comply with these conditions, the Czechoslovak Ministry can lay down special regulations. Before an emigrant is allowed to depart he is examined by an official doctor and he must also undergo an examination to insure as far as possible that he will be admitted in the country to which he intends to go. Special restrictions may be imposed on the transit of emigrants if it is liable to lead to some among them becoming a public charge or if for some other reason special regulations are considered to be necessary ⁽⁴⁶⁾.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ *Sammlung der Gesetze und Verordnungen des Tschechoslowakischen Staates*, No. 170 ; issued 13 June 1922.

*United States**Ship Subsidy Bill*

The provision in the United States Ship Subsidy Bill requiring 50 per cent. of the immigrants to the United States to take their passage on American ships⁽⁴⁷⁾ has been eliminated by the Merchant Marine Committee of the House of Representatives. It is, however, anticipated by shipping men that this provision will be made law in some other form. It is stated that the action of Italy in restricting emigration from that country to vessels flying the Italian flag and in concluding an agreement for the carrying of Polish emigrants exclusively in Italian ships has strengthened opinion in favour of the Bill⁽⁴⁸⁾.

Naturalisation of Women

On 24 May 1922 Mr. Cable introduced a Bill (H. R. 11773) concerning the naturalisation and citizenship of married women. This Bill provides that the right of any woman to become a naturalised citizen of the United States shall not be denied or abridged because of her sex or because she is a married woman. Briefly, it states that a woman shall not lose United States citizenship by marrying an alien resident in the United States, while a woman alien shall not be automatically naturalised by marrying a citizen of the United States. She can, however, be naturalised in exactly the same way as other aliens⁽⁴⁹⁾.

Land Settlement in the Argentine

The Department of Lands in the Ministry of Agriculture in the Argentine Republic has recently published a pamphlet which reprints the text of the Decree of 11 July 1921 establishing new land settlement colonies in the Northern and Southern State territories, also that of the Act of 8 January 1903 regulating the general administration of land settlements⁽⁵⁰⁾.

Information as to the lands to be developed, crops, natural and economic resources, means of communication, as well as detailed plans of the settlements, is included. A total of 7,467,057 hectares has been surveyed and is at the disposal of the Government for the purpose of founding settlements for crop cultivation or pastoral pursuits and villages. Every sort of crop and stock is to be raised, and population is to be drawn from different climates; land put on sale is priced at 10 pesos of national currency per hectare, but land for pastoral purposes—each settlement comprising at least one square *lega*—is not to be sold outright, but leased on terms varying according to its fertility and location on fixed leases of five years which shall be renewable.

The Decree of 11 July 1921 was issued with the purpose of putting into execution the scheme for land reorganisation as laid down in the previous Decree of 28 March 1917. That Decree had reformed the

⁽⁴⁷⁾ See *Internationall Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, p. 263.

⁽⁴⁸⁾ *New York Herald*, 22 June 1922, and *New York Times*, 27 June 1922. New York.

⁽⁴⁹⁾ *Foreign-Born*, Aug.-Sept. 1922. New York.

⁽⁵⁰⁾ REPUBLICA ARGENTINA, DIRECCION GENERAL DE TIERRAS : *Creacion de colonias y pueblos en los territorios nacionales de Chaco, Formosa, Misiones, Chubut, Santa Cruz y Tierra del Fuego*. Buenos Ayres, 1922.

administration of the state properties. The 1921 Decree also aimed at making effective the Homestead Act, which grants parcels of land to families fulfilling certain conditions. These aims cannot, in the view of the Government, be carried out merely by a survey and distribution of lands or by putting the new settlers into possession; permanent supervision is required equally in the interests of the state and of the settlers themselves, first, in order that the Government's generosity may not be abused by means of fraud, and secondly, because the settlers themselves are entitled to protection in their new homes and may claim to have secured to them the full results of their labour. With this end in view the necessary protective measures have been formulated.

Asiatic Immigration

Conditions of Indian Emigrants

In articles by Mr. C. F. Andrews and Mr. H. S. L. Polak in the *Indian Review* the grievances of Indians overseas and on being repatriated to India are stated and explained. In Natal⁽⁵¹⁾ the Provincial Council had proposed to enact anti-Indian legislation consisting of the following :—

(1) an Ordinance setting up a licensing board in rural areas, whose membership will be confined to Europeans, and depriving Indian traders, it is said, of their former right of appeal on questions of law ;

(2) an Ordinance which would prevent Indians in future from acquiring the municipal or urban franchise ;

(3) an Ordinance which would make it legally impossible for Indians to buy or occupy municipal land on areas ear-marked for Europeans or to sell such land to Europeans in an area ear-marked for Indians⁽⁵²⁾.

In Kenya Colony⁽⁵³⁾ it is stated that there are four primary disabilities under which Indians labour :

(1) they may not acquire transfer of agricultural land in the high-lands ;

(2) it is the declared policy of the European settlers to enforce strict segregation, both residential and commercial ;

(3) an attempt has been made to deny Indians equal franchise on a common electoral roll ;

(4) the Colonial Secretary proposes to regulate strictly Indian immigration.

In Fiji⁽⁵⁴⁾ it is alleged that the European residents have declared their unwillingness to accept the local application of the Imperial Conference Resolution regarding equal Indian status.

Mr. Andrews also states that very great difficulties have been encountered in the reabsorption of emigrants who have returned from countries where they were dissatisfied with their position ; they are now clamouring again to be taken back to the colonies from which they have come. The great problem is to get them received back

(51) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 497.

(52) The Union Government has vetoed two of these Ordinances and demanded the modification of the third.

(53) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 4, Apr. 1922, p. 640.

(54) Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 430.

into their villages or admitted to caste. The Immigrants Friendly Society has done a great deal to assist these re-emigrants on landing (those from Fiji generally at Calcutta, those from Natal at Madras); each steamer is now met by voluntary workers, as well as by the Government Protector of Emigrants and a government doctor. Mr. Andrews' conclusion is that India is suffering from the evils of the indentured system and that the remedy will be painfully slow⁽⁵⁵⁾.

Australia

The advocacy by Sir Henry Barwell, Premier of South Australia, of the development of the Northern Territory of Australia by coloured labour has been severely criticised in various quarters⁽⁵⁶⁾. The leader of the Labour Party in the South Australian Legislature moved an amendment to the address given in reply to the Speech from the Throne on 2 August, to the effect that by advocating in Australia and abroad the development of Australia by coloured labour the Premier had lost the confidence of the people, such advocacy being a violation of the White Australia policy. A few days previously the Commonwealth Prime Minister made a defence of the White Australia policy at Bendigo, and put forward statistics to show the greater proportion of settlement in the tropical areas in the last ten years compared with other parts of the country and the higher birth and lower death rate in Queensland, which is to a considerable extent a tropical State⁽⁵⁷⁾.

United States

A new regulation has been made public by the Commissioner of Immigration at Ellis Island to prevent the smuggling of Chinese into the United States as members of the ship's crew. Under this regulation no alien who is inadmissible under the Chinese Exclusion Laws will be allowed to land in the United States ports unless the master of the ship files with the immigration officer in charge a bond of \$500 to guarantee that the alien so landed will leave within sixty days. No distinction is made between American and foreign ships, but Chinese seamen shipped at United States ports for round voyages may be permitted to land without the placing of a bond, provided they can prove their previous lawful residence⁽⁵⁸⁾.

Hawaii

Mr. Harry Baldwin, the new Hawaiian delegate to the United States Congress, stated recently before the Senate Committee on Labour that American control of the Hawaiian Islands was menaced as a result of the increasing Japanese population. He urged the passage of a resolution giving the President power to suspend for five years the Chinese Immigration Restriction Law in order to permit the admission of Chinese labourers into the Hawaiian Islands, with a view to securing a balance⁽⁵⁹⁾.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ *Indian Review*, July 1922. Madras.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 503 and Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 431.

⁽⁵⁷⁾ *The Times*, 3 and 24 July 1922. London.

⁽⁵⁸⁾ *The Nautical Gazette*, 3 June 1922. New York.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ *New York Times*, 8 June 1922. New York.

WELFARE AND PROTECTION WORK

*Societies and Organisations**The International Council of Women*

At the Conference of the International Council of Women, which was held at the Hague in May last, a number of resolutions of interest to emigrants were discussed and passed. One of them concerned supervision by women on board ship in order to protect girls travelling alone. For this purpose a proposal had been made to the National Councils and approved by them, to organise a female control organisation which would be independent of the shipping companies as well as of the police authorities. It was decided to carry on the campaign already initiated by the Council for the introduction of a more satisfactory and independent supervision of this kind. The Council has since 1904 had a Committee, known as the Permanent Committee to Combat the Traffic in Women and for the Unity of Morals, dealing with this question.

The Standing Committee of the Council on Emigration and Immigration passed resolutions in favour of a uniform medical standard for all emigrants, the appointment of expert women on the International Emigration Commission, the establishment of hostels at the frontiers for emigrants detained on their journey, the granting of travelling facilities for women engaged in station work at home and abroad, and the appointment of women to serve on consulates at places through which emigrants pass and are likely to be compelled to halt ⁽⁶⁰⁾.

Land Settlement League in New Zealand

On 2 June 1922 an organisation known as the New Zealand Immigration and Land Settlement League was founded at a meeting held at the Auckland Chamber of Commerce. The object of the League is to advocate a policy of land settlement and immigration, and among the first pamphlets issued by it was one which explains the Empire Settlement Scheme. Among other things this pamphlet states that in the Auckland province 9,000,000 acres await development. The League is of the opinion that New Zealand should take advantage of Great Britain's offer to shoulder a portion of the cost of settling the empty spaces in the Dominions with British immigrants, and maintains that up to the present there have been no signs of New Zealand's appreciation of this opportunity ⁽⁶¹⁾.

Land Settlement in the Transvaal

The report of the Transvaal Land Owners' Association for the year ended 28 February last states that the Committee have had under consideration a co-operative scheme for the preparation and development of members' land for settlement by colonisers from overseas. It

⁽⁶⁰⁾ LEAGUE OF NATIONS, ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON THE TRAFFIC IN WOMEN AND CHILDREN: *Minutes of the First Session held at Geneva, 28 to 1 July 1922*; and communication from the NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

⁽⁶¹⁾ *New Zealand Herald*, 3-20 July, 1922. Auckland.

is an essential condition of the scheme that land to be offered to such settlers from overseas must be occupied and developed by them. A scheme has been proposed by which improvements will be carried out on the land, the cost of which the settler will pay to the Association as trustee. He will come into occupation as soon as the improvements are effected and for the first three years pay interest only on the purchase price of the land. He will execute a bond in favour of the landowner, which at the expiration of three years will be redeemed by him at the rate of one-tenth of the purchase price per annum plus interest at 5 per cent. There will also be a nominal charge to the member of 5 per cent. on the purchase price to cover administrative charges. The improvements which it is proposed should be carried out consist of the erection of farm cottages, outbuildings, fencing and so on.

The report also refers to the movement inaugurated by the 1820 Memorial Settlers' Association, under whose auspices 25 settlers with an aggregate capital of about £75,000 have been placed with Transvaal farmers as pupils or have already been settled. The recruiting activity of this Association has been extended to India, from which country it is stated that four hundred white settlers are expected to arrive in South Africa during the current year. Two hundred are also expected from the United Kingdom ⁽⁶²⁾.

Roman Catholic Welfare Organisations for Belgian Workers in France

In a speech in the Belgian Chamber of Deputies during the discussion of the appropriations to the Ministry of Industry and Labour, Deputy Huyshauwer included the following information about work done by Roman Catholic organisations formed on behalf of Belgian workers working in France ⁽⁶³⁾. Some of the principal examples of such work are the following: (1) the Flemish work at Paris, carried on under the Bishopric of Ghent, chiefly in the Department of the Seine; (2) the work among Belgian emigrants, chiefly in the devastated area; (3) the work among Belgian refugees, which extends throughout France and is carried on by about twenty chaplains; (4) the work of Abbé Van Eecke on behalf of the Flemish peasants in Normandy.

The general union of the "Franschmans" at Ghent aims at protecting the material and spiritual interests of seasonal labourers. It settles problems arising out of industrial accidents and intervenes in disputes; it runs a savings and loan bank, of which the deposit funds in 1920 amounted to over a million francs and which this year has financed contracts to a total of eight millions of francs. Seasonal Belgian workers have a weekly journal under the title *Ons Vlaanderen*, printed in an issue of 12,000 copies. Similar organisations will be established in the near future for the benefit of Belgian agriculturalists, especially at Arras.

Policy of Italian Co-operative Societies

At a congress of Italian co-operative societies of production, labour, and agriculture which met at Rome on 18-20 June 1922, a report was

⁽⁶²⁾ *The Coloniser*, Aug. 1922, London.

⁽⁶³⁾ Cf. *Revue du Travail*, June 1922. Brussels.

submitted on the question of migration. A resolution was adopted which declared it to be essential that emigration should be subject to supervision exercised by the trade unions and the authorities, who should collaborate, particularly in organising collective engagement of workers. The resolution attached particular importance, in the economic interests both of the nation and of the workers, to the execution of work by co-operative societies attached to the great national organisations and working on the basis of definite legal agreements concluded with workers' organisations in the districts and countries of immigration. In affirming that local labour should always have precedence, either at home or abroad, the congress urged national organisations to secure the inclusion in international Agreements and Conventions, concluded either between trade union organisations or between governments, of the principle of equality of treatment for foreign and national co-operative societies ⁽⁶⁴⁾.

General Meeting of the Bonomelli Organisation in Italy ⁽⁶⁵⁾

The important Roman Catholic welfare organisation known as the Bonomelli hostels ⁽⁶⁶⁾ held its general meeting at Verona on 19 June 1922 and discussed present problems in emigration, also methods of extending the work of the organisation and of its bureaux, whether at home or abroad.

The General Secretary, Mr. Jacini, gave a detailed account of the social work undertaken and expressed regret that the membership was still under 4,000; he proposed various means of making the association known. He laid special stress on problems which are occupying the attention of Italian emigrants, such as organisation of recruiting for employment purposes and of placing in employment, a field in which regulation might develop into an excessive and illegitimate restraint on the free expansion of emigrant labour. He proposed that the foreign secretary of the organisation should be instructed to study more closely this problem of placing in employment, a question which might soon come to form the principal work to be done by the society.

The report gave rise to a great deal of discussion, and two resolutions were placed before the meeting. The first expressed the view that the public authorities who were charged with supervising emigration should direct a closer attention to this problem and should attempt to find less bureaucratic and centralised measures, better adapted to reconcile the liberty of the individual emigrant as well as national requirements at home with the need for giving due national and social value to the current of emigration. The second demanded that the Bonomelli organisation should expand its work to dealing with the question of placing Italian labour abroad.

The question of emigration to Brazil was discussed at length and the meeting expressed the desire to see the organisation, which until now has limited its work to continental emigration, consider problems of transoceanic emigration, more especially of emigration to America. A resolution was also passed demanding the intervention of the Italian General Emigration Office in view of the unfairness of including

⁽⁶⁴⁾ *La Cooperazione italiana*, 23 June 1922.

⁽⁶⁵⁾ *Opera Bonomelli* (monthly organ), 15 July 1922. Milan.

⁽⁶⁶⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, p. 268.

in the three per cent. quota of immigrants to be admitted into the United States wives, relations, and children when sent for by emigrants already settled, and requesting that in the issue of embarkation permits regard should always be had to the need for making up the families of emigrants.

The President of the congress announced that arrangements had been made to satisfy the demand for the holding of a big general conference on emigration which should principally discuss the definite drawing up of an emigration law, and that such a conference would probably be held in the course of the autumn.

The Foreign Language Information Service in the United States

Since January last the Foreign Language Information Service in the United States has published a *Bulletin*, intended to keep the public in touch with the work of the Service, and to explain the problems and perplexities of the foreign-born. The objects of the Service are two-fold : to inform the foreign-speaking people of America about the government, laws, and institutions of the United States (this is done mainly by means of articles in different languages, translated from government documents, which are circulated to the press) ; and to give the native-born information on the foreign-born (through the *Bulletin*). Arrangements have been made for a representative of the Service to be at Ellis Island on the arrival of immigrant ships. Moreover, the articles it sends to the foreign-language press on immigration procedure are prepared by a special committee and are read and approved by the Commissioner-General of Immigration⁽⁶⁷⁾.

The Attitude of Labour

Australia

The annual conference of the Western Australian branch of the Australian Labour Party took place in the last week of June and considered at length the question of immigration. A resolution was passed in favour of total cessation of immigration until Parliament has passed legislation limiting it in proportion to the preparation and settlement of Crown lands and to the extension and establishment of defined secondary industries⁽⁶⁸⁾.

Mr. H. Millington, General Secretary of the Western Australian Section of the Australian Labour Party, has written to Mr. George Lansbury asking him to warn intending emigrants to Australia of the conditions on the sub-continent.

We are not opposed [Mr. Millington writes] to a policy which, in addition to encouraging people to come here, makes provision for them on arrival, but they must be given to understand that there is no work available except for those who are prepared to take on work in country districts. Also, many immigrants who are sent to jobs on farms become dissatisfied, drift back to the city, and then displace workers in many avocations, hence our unemployed. The first duty of this State is to provide work for residents, and when the local problem has been solved our objection to immigration will be withdrawn⁽⁶⁹⁾.

⁽⁶⁷⁾ FOREIGN LANGUAGE INFORMATION SERVICE : *The Bulletin*, Jan.-Feb. and June 1922. New York.

⁽⁶⁸⁾ *New Zealand Herald*, 3 July 1922. Auckland.

⁽⁶⁹⁾ *Labour News Service*, 27 July 1922. London.

Canada

In the organ of the Canadian Trades and Labour Congress is an article by the President of the Congress on the recent immigration regulations issued in the Dominion ⁽⁷⁰⁾. Those regulations relaxed the previous restrictions, particularly for agricultural workers and domestic servants, and for British workers of any kind. The article states that employment conditions in Canada are not favourable. Most farm work is only for a short season, and often great expense has to be incurred going to and from the place of occupation, while frequently no accommodation is provided for wives and families, who have to remain behind in the cities. There is, moreover, it is stated, a danger of exploitation on the part of those employers who "demand cheap, subservient labour". Workers should not be hired outside Canada except through the official employment exchanges. The organised workers of Canada are said to have no objection to immigration, provided it is a spontaneous movement. Certain nationalities and classes of people should be excluded, however, on the ground that by temperament, non-assimilative qualifications, habits or customs, they are not a desirable acquisition. This is held to include all Asiatic peoples, "as their presence must necessarily tend to lower the standard of living among the working men and women of Canada" ⁽⁷¹⁾.

South Africa

The question of the "colour bars" created by the Immigrants' Regulation Act, the Native Labour Regulation Act, and the Mining Regulations, was dealt with in a *Report* presented to the Mining Industry Board in May last by the Engineers', Boilermakers', Ironworkers' and Shipbuilders' Unions, the Ironmoulders' Society, the Reduction and Surface Workers' Association, the Building Workers' Union, and the Amalgamated Wood Workers.

The *Report* states that although the object of the Immigrants' Regulation Act is to prevent the immigration of persons who will not be likely to be absorbed with advantage into South African civilisation, there is a clause permitting natives from Portuguese Africa to enter the Union. "In this way some 90,000 uncivilised natives are brought in under contract to work in the mines at about 2s. 3d. a shift plus food and quarters valued at 1s. 1d. But for this, employers would find it difficult to keep the level of native wages down to its present figure, and the better class of native South African and, consequently, also many poor white workers would get a higher wage" ⁽⁷²⁾.

United States

Immigration problems were also discussed at the forty-second convention of the American Federation of Labour, which was held at Cincinnati from 12 to 24 June 1922. A resolution was passed asking Congress "to hereafter deny admission as immigrants and permanent residence to all aliens who are ineligible to citizenship under the laws of the United States", and to continue its effort to check the influx of Chinese coolie labour into Hawaii. The resolution expressed disapproval of the present Three per Cent. Immigration Act on the ground that it "perpetuates in kind, though not in degree, our mistakes of the past" ⁽⁷³⁾.

⁽⁷⁰⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 92.

⁽⁷¹⁾ *Canadian Congress Journal*, June 1922. Ottawa.

⁽⁷²⁾ South African press, 15 May 1922.

⁽⁷³⁾ *Report of Proceedings of the Forty-second Convention of the American Federation of Labour*.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

Physique of Children and Fitness for Work ⁽¹⁾

ONE of the gravest problems of the post-war period is that of production and the output of the individual worker, which in turn raises the question of the worker's abilities and his fitness for work. For this reason much greater attention than formerly has been paid to vocational guidance and to physical and mental examination of children, regarded as potential workers. At the same time the protection of the young worker in industry, which was the subject of study and legislation long before the war, is being more extensively and scientifically studied.

ADMISSION OF CHILDREN TO INDUSTRY

The report on Physical Standards for Working Children issued in the United States points out that in theory young persons in industry may be protected either by prohibiting the employment of children in certain unhealthy occupations, or by raising the general minimum age of entrance to industry, or by establishing standards of physical fitness which all children entering employment must meet. The latter is regarded as an effective measure. The practical application of this principle may take various forms. The law may require medical

(1) SOURCES :

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, CHILDREN'S BUREAU : *Physical Standards for Working Children ; Preliminary Report of the Committee appointed by the Children's Bureau of the U. S. Department of Labour to formulate standards of normal development and sound health for the use of physicians examining children entering employment and children at work.* Conference Series No. 4 ; Bureau publication No. 79. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921. The following members of the medical profession served on the committee : Dr. George P. Barth, Chairman (City Health Department, Milwaukee) ; Dr. Emma M. Appel (Chicago Board of Education) ; Dr. S. Josephine Baker (Department of Health, New York City) ; Dr. Taliaferro Clark (United States Public Health Service) ; Dr. C. Ward Crampton (Normal School of Physical Education, Battle Creek) ; Dr. D. L. Edsall (Harvard Medical School) ; Dr. George W. Goler (Health Officer, Rochester) ; Dr. Harry Linenthal (Massachusetts General Hospital) ; Dr. H. H. Mitchell (National Child Labour Committee) ; Dr. Anna E. Rude (United States Children's Bureau) ; Dr. Thomas B. Wood (Columbia University). Miss E. N. Matthews (Industrial Division of the Children's Bureau) acted as secretary.

NEW SOUTH WALES DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, MEDICAL BRANCH : *Annual Reports of the Principal Medical Officer for the Years 1918-1919 ; Part II, School Anthropometry* ; pp. 56-93. Sidney, Government Printer. 1921.

UNITED STATES TREASURY DEPARTMENT, PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE : *Public Health Reports*, Vol. 37, No. 2, 19 May 1922, pp. 1185-1207 ; *Heights and Weights of School Children*, by Taliaferro CLARK, Edgar SYDENSTRICKER, and Selwyn D. COLLINS. Washington, Government Printing Office, 1922.

Dr. M. HOUDRÉ : *La Valeur physique de l'enfant ; son contrôle* ; in the *Revue de l'Enfance*, Vol. I, No. 7, March 1922. Paris.

examination of children who appear to be physically unfit for work or, on the other hand, of every child entering or employed in industry, whether apparently healthy or not. A further possibility is the examination of working children at regular intervals in order to determine whether their work is in any way injurious to their health or growth. The most comprehensive type of child labour law in the United States at present requires that every child entering industry shall be of normal development, in good health, and physically fitted for the occupation in which he is to engage, and stipulates that the examination shall be made by an official doctor ⁽²⁾.

It is pointed out, however, that it is not enough merely to issue regulations for the protection of the health of children in industry. To make these regulations effective, well defined physical standards are needed, in order that the type of examination and the determination of the fitness of the child for a specific occupation may not be left to the discretion of individual doctors. The difficulty in the way of enforcement of measures for the protection of the health of child workers is largely due to the lack of such definite physical standards and of uniformity in procedure. In the United States the laws do not define 'good health' or 'normal development', and the determination of physical fitness for a given occupation requires precise knowledge of occupations and their effect on health.

In May and June 1919 the United States Children's Bureau convened a conference on standards of child welfare, at which much attention was devoted to the question of physical standards for working children. The committee appointed to consider this question recommended that the minimum age for the entrance of children into industry should be 16 years, a minimum fixed in view both of social and economic factors and of physiological factors connected with the period of pubescence. It was also recommended that no young person between the ages of 16 and 18 should be permitted to go to work unless of normal development, good health, and physically fit for work in his particular occupation, his fitness to be determined by a thorough physical examination conducted by a public medical officer. Provision should also be made for co-operation between the medical officer and the prospective employer in respect of medical and employment certificates. It was proposed that all young persons in industry should undergo physical examinations at least once a year up to the age of 18 years, and that in order to ensure uniformity in methods of examination the State Department administering child labour legislation should make regulations concerning methods of examination, qualifications of examining doctors, record forms, and reports on examinations.

The committee further stated that :

Many of the physical defects found in children applying for work permits could easily have been discovered and cured or prevented altogether by proper examination and treatment during the child's school life or even earlier. The committee therefore urges the necessity for the provision of adequate facilities for medical examination and treatment of all children of school and pre-school age.

The committee recognised the need for further scientific research, but was of opinion that the results already available and the experience

⁽²⁾ These requirements are at present fulfilled in the following States : Alabama, Arizona, California, Florida, Iowa, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, West Virginia.

acquired in the administration of child labour laws made it possible to recommend certain minimum standards of physical fitness. The minimum standard of normal development suggested for children applying for work permits was as follows :

Age	Weight (in clothing) lb. (¹)	Height (ins.)
14	80	58
15	85	58
16	90	59

(¹) When children are weighed without clothing not more than 5 lb. should be allowed for clothing.

Exceptions may be made in cases where a child's failure to conform with the prescribed minimum is regarded as due to family or racial characteristics and he is free from other defects. It is stated that certificates of physical fitness should be refused to children who do not show unmistakable signs of puberty.

The committee also laid down standards of sound health and physical fitness for employment, under which certificates should be refused to all children suffering from cardiac disease, pulmonary, glandular, or surgical tuberculosis, chorea, syphilids, hyperthyroidism, acute or sub-acute nephritis, or hookworm. It also laid down a list of diseases and defects pending correction or cure of which certificates should be refused. Any child temporarily or permanently refused employment on account of physical defects should be referred to the care of a doctor for treatment.

Provisional certificates for not more than three months might be issued on the recommendation of the medical examiner where treatment of certain defects has been begun, but not completed.

All children who, because of their physical condition or because of their family or previous history, show a tendency to weakness or disease of any organ should be excluded from occupations which would tend to aggravate that tendency.

The committee also recommended the use of a standard record card and standard instructions to examining doctors for the purpose of securing uniformity in administration and statistical analysis (³).

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION OF CHILDREN

It will be noted that the United States committee on standards of physical fitness lays stress on the need for physical examination of the child during and before school age. The interest at present taken in anthropometric studies of school children is due not so much to a desire to trace the influences of school life as to the accessibility and extent of the field of investigation offered by the school and to the facts that to a large extent the school is the mould forming the adult, and that, on leaving school, the child will enter industry. The chief interest of these studies for the purposes of this article is that they help to determine physical standards for the admission of children into industry.

(³) The Massachusetts Department of Labour and Industry has recently issued a similar record card for use in the examination of children applying for employment certificates. See *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, Vol. 186, No. 22, 14 June 1922.

The report of the New South Wales Chief Medical Officer points out that the data obtained from the physical examination of over 200,000 children of school age provide a sufficiently reliable foundation for the adoption of standards of weight and height and for a more general study of the phenomena of growth. The report states that the investigations, to be of most value, should cover the largest possible number of persons of all ages and both sexes, if possible from different districts; typical average figures can thus be calculated and reliable standards of the average type (child or adolescent) may be obtained. The object should be not merely to classify children into specific types corresponding to special requirements or theories, but to group them into all classes, not merely of the abnormal, but of deviation from the average within normal limits. This is the only way to establish the limits of the normal, which is the guide and justification for suggestion, advice, and treatment.

Stress is laid in the New South Wales report on the importance of the period of adolescence both in the physiological development of the individual and in social life, since at this period those qualities are acquired that in part determine the economic and social functions of the individual as a producer. During this period estimates of physical growth form the best test of the effects of the general body of influences operating on the child. Growth indicates the influence of environment and the force of the fundamental factors of heredity, while eventually it leads to the acquisition of physical qualities which are specially important to those who must carry on a trade or profession. School anthropometry, while indicating what the child now is, should also suggest what the future citizen and worker will be. Thus it is most desirable to take physical measurements of children of all ages, and especially when they are reaching the limits of school age.

One of the most important and delicate of the problems of growth is that of malnutrition, which takes many forms often classed as types of constitution rather than types of disease. On the basis of the examination of school children in New South Wales an index of the state of nutrition has been established as the ratio of weight in pounds to height in inches. Deficiency should be recorded in percentages, not in absolute figures, and a 10 per cent. deficiency should be roughly taken as the limit of normal deviation. The connection between reduction in weight and anaemia or nervous disorders is of great importance. Careful medical investigation of cases of malnutrition would show that it is frequently due, not to great deviation from physiological standards, but to definite pathological factors; dental caries, pyorrhoea, adenoids, intestinal parasites, infectious diseases of childhood, and even congenital syphilis may all contribute to malnutrition.

The growth force of a school population is best estimated, not by the actual height and weight at a given age or by yearly annual increments of height and weight, but by the rate of growth, i.e. the percentage obtained by dividing the increment of growth over a defined period (a year or half year) by the height or weight at the beginning of the period. The usual figures of height or weight show a superiority in boys up to $11\frac{1}{2}$ years of age, then for girls until $15\frac{1}{2}$, after which boys again lead. The girl's growth practically ceases at 18, while the boy's continues for a few years more. While this is quite correct, it gives no idea of the rate of growth. The graph of percentage growth, obtained as described above, shows that the growth of girls

is as rapid, if not more rapid, than that of boys at 9 years of age, and continues to increase in rate until the age of 13, when there is a distinct drop in the rate of growth. Boys, on the other hand, increase rapidly in rate of growth from the age of 13 to 15½, when the rate suddenly falls. The sudden change in the rate of growth and its total reversal in the two sexes is closely related to the onset of puberty. It is surprising that in previous work in this connection no statement has been made regarding this; nor has the exact period of maximum growth for either sex been fixed. Little stress has yet been laid on the value of the rate of growth in anthropometry and on the use of percentage increments to represent this.

The points to be covered in physical examinations are variously estimated. The recommendations of the United States committee already mentioned included special points to be covered and methods to be employed in physical examination. They require full information on age, sex, family, school and industrial antecedents, and more especially on the medical history of the family and previous illnesses of the child. The physical examination should cover first of all general physical conditions (i.e. height, weight, normal evidences of puberty, menses, and special abnormalities), and then detailed examination of the eyes, ears, mouth, nasopharynx, glands, chest, lungs, heart, abdomen, nervous system, kidneys, and any defects or diseases of these. It is also stated that "records of examinations made by school medical officers during the child's school period should be made available".

The New South Wales report states that there are two types of measurement of the human body, those of structure (e.g. height) and those of capacity (e.g. lung capacity). For correct physical estimates information is needed regarding stature, sitting height, weight, area of cross section of chest, vital capacity, skull capacity, and dynamometer grip. Certain investigators also use diastolic and systolic blood pressure as tests of fatigue. Haemoglobin percentage might also be examined, and in certain cases the Wassermann test (for feeble-minded children) and cuti-reaction test (for doubtful tubercular cases) should be made. Sitting height is an interesting factor frequently neglected; it has recently been shown to be closely related to bowel length and area.

The Australian and American studies adopt only static physical measurements, but interesting experiments in measurements of movement as an index of physique have been made by Dr. Houdré of the University of Paris. Dr. Houdré recommends first a physiological examination of the general working of the respiratory organs and the heart; minute laboratory investigation of the working of the heart is difficult in practice, and clinical examination by auscultation and percussion must be used, supplemented by measurement of the pulse and arterial pressure. Dr. Houdré measures cardio-vascular action both in repose and under exertion, the latter during moderate exertion, violent exercise involving breathlessness, and after a five minutes' rest period after the violent exercise. She states that children in good health (age not indicated) have a normal maximum pressure of 14 to 15 centimetres and a minimum of 9 to 10 centimetres. Under moderate exertion, in a state of good health, the pressure falls by one to three centimetres, and with violent exercise rises by several

centimetres. In the period of rest the pressure falls very rapidly, generally to below normal, which may persist for more than half an hour. A rise of pressure during very moderate exertion is a sign of inadequate physical development.

Dr. Houdré has also tried to measure muscular force directly rather than by morphological measurement. She rejects the ordinary dynamometric apparatus and has devised two sets of movement tests, assuming that the child is able to move all parts of his body easily. The first series of tests, to measure muscular strength, includes four movements effected by the four chief groups of muscles. In the first, which tests the shoulder and arm muscles, the child hangs from a horizontal bar and draws himself up four times until his chin reaches the level of the bar, without touching the ground or taking a spring. In the second test, while hanging from the bar he raises each leg in turn horizontally, maintaining the position for two seconds in each case, subsequently doing so with both legs together. This measures the strength of the anterior muscles of the lower limbs. The third exercise measures the strength of the abdominal muscles; the child lies on the ground on his back, without support for his hands or elbows, his feet free, his head bent forward with his chin on the breastbone. No push off with the arms is allowed. He then bends the trunk forward, with the hands first on the shoulders, then on the hips, then extended vertically, and finally behind the neck.

The fourth test consists in bending the lower limbs backward and measures the strength of the dorso-lumbar and posterior pelvic muscles. The child lies on the ground face downward, arms beside the body, the back of the hands on the ground, and executes four consecutive movements without pushing off or bending the knees. The pelvis and lower limbs form an angle of about 135 degrees with the upper part of the body and about 45 degrees with the ground. The position is maintained for two seconds. A simple system of marking makes it possible to give definite values to the various movements.

In order to measure nervous force Dr. Houdré suggests three tests: running 40, 60, or 80 metres; standing or running long jump; and throwing a weight of 1 to 3 kilogrammes according to age, without a start.

Dr. Houdré has also worked out a method of representing graphically the physical measurements and growth of children. The child's height is measured, as well as the width of its body at the following points: (1) the shoulders (acromial angle); (2) the waist-line; (3) the hips (antero-superior spine of ilium). These measurements are then plotted on squared paper marked in millimetres, the points joined by straight lines, and a kind of silhouette of the child's body thus obtained.

STUDIES OF THE PHYSIQUE OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

Two independent and widely separated studies of the physique of school children have been made, one in New South Wales, covering 216,470 children (112,259 boys and 104,211 girls), the other in the United States, by the Public Health Service, covering 14,335 white school children in the States of Maryland, Virginia, and North and South Carolina. Examination was made of the weight and height of both boys and girls between the ages of 12 and 16. The results of the surveys can readily be summarised in the following table, in which

is incorporated also the standard height and weight recommended by the United States Children's Bureau for the admission of children into industry.

AVERAGE WEIGHT OF BOYS AND GIRLS FROM 12 TO 16 YEARS OF AGE
AS ASCERTAINED BY ANTHROPOMETRIC STUDIES IN NEW SOUTH WALES
AND IN THE UNITED STATES

Age	Boys						Girls					
	Number examined		Average weight lb. (1)				Number examined		Average weight lb. (1)			
	N. S. W.	U. S.	N. S. W.	U. S.	U. S. propos'd stand'rd		N. S. W.	U. S.	N. S. W.	U. S.	U. S. propos'd stand'rd	
12	5,286	781	72.22	78.0	—		4,556	805	74.84	79.7	—	
13	5,059	679	78.59	85.1	—		4,356	695	84.59	89.7	—	
14	2,926	471	88.20	95.4	80		2,958	528	94.07	99.4	80	
15	1,011	278	99.79	108.4	85		1,158	331	102.97	107.6	85	
16	331	161	111.17	116.7	90		384	219	109.13	113.6	90	

(1) In order to make these data more nearly comparable, 5 lb. should be added to the New South Wales figures to allow for clothing, which was removed before weighing the children; 5 lb. is the allowance recommended by the United States Children's Bureau committee on physical standards.

AVERAGE HEIGHT OF BOYS AND GIRLS FROM 12 TO 16 YEARS OF AGE
AS ASCERTAINED BY ANTHROPOMETRIC STUDIES IN NEW SOUTH WALES
AND IN THE UNITED STATES

Age	Boys						Girls					
	Number examined		Average height ins.				Number examined		Average height ins.			
	N. S. W.	U. S.	N. S. W.	U. S.	U. S. propos'd stand'rd		N. S. W.	U. S.	N. S. W.	U. S.	U. S. propos'd stand'rd	
12	5,286	781	55.19	56.2	—		4,556	805	55.79	57.0	—	
13	5,059	679	57.19	58.0	—		4,356	695	58.15	59.3	—	
14	2,926	471	59.38	60.3	58		2,958	528	60.05	61.1	58	
15	1,011	278	61.79	62.9	58		1,158	331	61.57	62.5	58	
16	331	161	64.24	64.6	59		384	219	62.27	63.3	59	

The figures for weight agree with the general statement made earlier that boys are heavier than girls until about 12 years of age; from then until 15 girls are heavier than boys, after which boys again have the advantage. The position with regard to height is similar. From 5 to about 11 years girls are shorter than boys, but then have the advantage up to the age of 15. At 16 boys are taller than girls.

A comparison of the New South Wales data in respect of districts show conclusively that country children have a better physique than any others both in height and weight. The average figures at the age of 14 are as follows:

District	Weight lb.		Height ins.	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Metropolitan area	86.70	93.74	59.01	59.73
Large country towns	89.96	92.60	59.30	59.81
Rural districts	89.72	95.38	60.30	60.53

It appears that children of two Australian parents have the best physique as regards both height and weight, especially in comparison with those whose parents are both foreign. The number in each group of the children examined in state schools was as follows :

Parentage	Boys	Girls
Parents both foreign	13,036	11,000 ⁽¹⁾
One parent foreign	17,162	15,000 ⁽¹⁾
Parents both Australian	63,568	57,207
Not classified	5,000 ⁽¹⁾	—

⁽¹⁾ Approximate figures only.

The examination of the 28,913 children (13,697 boys and 15,216 girls) attending non-state schools gave similar results to those already quoted.

The investigations into the physique of school children hitherto carried out are not scientifically comparable owing both to differences in climate, race, and environment, and to differences in technical methods of investigation and utilisation of data. The report of the New South Wales Medical Officer recalls that statistics similar to those given by him for New South Wales were issued in Great Britain and the United States in 1913 and 1914 respectively. The English tables were drawn up by the Anthropometric Committee of the British Association and give the average height and weight of both sexes in the British Isles. The American tables were compiled by Dr. Franz Boas from the examination of 45,151 boys and 43,298 girls in the cities of Boston, St. Louis, Milwaukee, Worcester, Toronto, and Oakland. It is pointed out, however, in comparing these figures, that in England children were weighed in their ordinary clothes, while in New South Wales "all possible clothing" was removed. English children appear to be heavier than Australian children, but not so tall; the average weight of American boys is greater than that of Australian boys, but the reverse is the case with regard to girls. Owing to the methods of compiling statistics it is impossible to compare the English and American figures. It is clear, therefore, that much remains to be done in elaborating and standardising examination and statistics of the physique of children.

In conclusion, attention may be called to the recommendations of the United States committee on physical standards for working children for further research and study in this connection. The committee suggested that occupations in which children were likely to be employed should be specially studied in order to ascertain their physical requirements, their effect on the health and growth of the child, and any special hazards involved. The committee also recognised that it was impossible to formulate complete and definite physical

standards before further research had been carried out, dealing in particular with the following points : the rate of growth and development of children employed in different occupations and industries as compared with children not in industry ; morbidity and mortality among children employed in industry as compared with children not in industry ; the effect of employment in specific occupations at different stages of physiological development upon the growth and health of normal children and of children with certain physical defects ; the effect of employment in specific occupations upon the menstrual function and pelvic action of adolescent girls and young women ; and types of work desirable for children with some mental or physical defect who are nevertheless eligible for an employment certificate.

The development of research and investigations in the physique of children both at school and in industry is clearly, therefore, a necessary preliminary for the establishment of effective measures for the protection of young workers and for any sound system of vocational guidance for children about to enter industry.

EDUCATION

Vocational Guidance and Education

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ⁽¹⁾

Third International Conference on Psychology as applied to Vocational Guidance

THE Third International Conference on Psychology as applied to Vocational Guidance will be held at Milan from 2 to 4 October 1922 ⁽²⁾. The organising committee includes Professor Antonini, Director of the Milan Asylum for the Insane, Professor Devoto, Director of the Labour Clinic in the Training Institutes, and Professor Osimo, Director of the Umanitaria Society. The programme of the Conference includes general meetings for the discussion of the subjects enumerated below, introduced by specialists from different countries: (1) What is meant by Vocational Abilities? (Lahy); (2) Natural and Acquired Abilities (Decroly, Petrezi); (3) Psychological Analysis of Work (Gemelli, Lipmann); (4) Vocational Guidance and Scientific Management (Bauer); (5) International Co-ordination of Tests and Individual Record Cards (Claparède, Mira, Myers). More detailed addresses may be given at special meetings.

The United States National Junior Occupational Service

In March 1919 a Junior Department of the United States Employment Service was instituted in order to supervise the release of young wage earners from war industries and their absorption into other trades. This Department was abolished in June 1921. The Department was engaged to a limited extent on experimental work in vocational guidance of the same type as had been proposed by private agencies in 1916 at the time of the publication of the results of an experiment in guidance and placement made in Seattle. It was at that time proposed that this experiment should be continued on a national basis, but for the time being the project was dropped. It has now been revived in the form of a National Junior Occupational Service, a private body incorporated under the laws of the State of Delaware. The purposes of the Service, as expressed in its charter, are as follows:

To conduct or to aid in conducting occupational researches and service of any type whatsoever. The Service will be concerned largely with current problems which at the present time centre round training programmes and systems of vocational guidance, experimental systems of selection, transfer, and promotion; the causes, effects, and cure of unnecessary labour

⁽¹⁾ The greater part of the *Notes* under this heading have been prepared by the Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute at Geneva.

⁽²⁾ Those wishing to attend the conference are requested to send their names to the Umanitaria Society, Via San Barnaba 38, Milan XIV.

turnover, especially among young workers ; the influence of proposed legislation on the solution of occupational problems, the possibility of the permanent prevention of unemployment, and many other questions connected with the main problem of employment.

To maintain a national scientific information service which shall collect, compile, and disseminate information on occupational subjects, and register employment and educational experiments in such a way that their results may be available for individuals or organisations.

To promote the training of leaders in educational institutions who shall be able to introduce into the curricula for the education of teachers practical knowledge of business conditions and problems, and to co-operate in industrial researches with institutions which indicate research abilities.

The plans of the organisation include three types of co-operation with educational institutions : (a) general information courses for administrative officers and teachers ; (b) advanced training courses of graduate standing for vocational counsellors, employment supervisors, etc. ; (c) occupational research in certain university centres suitably qualified to undertake it.

To offer organisation leadership and financial assistance in established local guidance and placement departments ; to act as the unifying agency for such departments and to assist in standardising employment practice in all its varied and allied branches.

The Service is willing to co-operate with local bodies "only after satisfying itself that the community is vitally and intelligently interested in installing a public, scientific, non-partisan, non-political occupational service".

The organisation of the headquarters service is now in progress ; it was hoped to complete it by the beginning of September. A large sum of money was available on 1 July for research, which it was proposed to initiate immediately. The establishment of such a service in the United States should by scientific research and co-ordination do much to

lessen the number of unemployables and drifters, reduce social unrest, labour turnover, unemployment, and under-employment, and instil in boys and girls habits of thought regarding their individual responsibility for the industrial welfare of their country.

Introduction of Vocational Guidance in Poland (2)

As soon as Poland was reconstituted as an independent state, considerable attention was given to vocational guidance, the importance of which was recognised. It was seen to be the most effective means of improving labour conditions, not only from the industrial, but also from the social and international points of view. In view of the experience of other countries, the close connection of this problem with the problems of labour supply and demand was recognised at an early date, and for this reason the Polish Government, which took the first steps towards practical action, included vocational guidance in the functions of the Labour Offices. The Order of 27 January 1919 concerning the State Labour Offices empowered them to give advice to persons choosing or desiring to change their occupation. The first vocational guidance department was created at the Warsaw Labour Office. Educational, medical, and psychological experts were to be called in as assistant advisers to hold consultations.

(2) Unpublished information supplied by Dr. Marie Balsiger, Warsaw.

Although this Order marked an important advance, it could not produce the results for which some hoped. It was first necessary to conduct a campaign among the general body of workers in order to explain to them the need for efficiency, which had decreased considerably owing to the war, and was essential for economic reconstruction. The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare therefore instituted an investigation into skilled labour. It sent a Circular to all the important industrial associations in Warsaw, asking for information on conditions of apprenticeship in their occupations or industries. The replies showed that the number of apprentices had fallen steadily from 1913 to 1918. The statistics of the Labour Offices for 1919 and 1920 confirm this, and show that the majority of young people, about 83.4 per cent., always tried to obtain work which requires no preliminary training.

In order to increase the supply of skilled workers to its normal volume, a variety of measures were taken in the spheres of commerce, industry, and education. The Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare turned its attention to another aspect of the question, and endeavoured first and foremost to achieve such a distribution of young workers, on the basis of their individual qualities and capacities, as would be economically most advantageous to the country. This object is the standard to which the Labour Offices refer. In endeavouring to find employment for young workers, attention is given less to the wage immediately possible than to the future occupation which the youth or girl should choose. Great difficulties are involved, however, as few candidates understand the importance of serious training and vocational guidance. The vocational guidance department attached to the Warsaw Labour Office devotes itself entirely to guidance in the choice of a trade. For the present it has had to ignore guidance in the choice of liberal professions for pupils of secondary schools. The boy or girl visits the office, accompanied by his or her parents, who are questioned as to the inclinations, habits, etc. of their child. These questions, supplemented by repeated interviews with the candidate, provide a basis for vocational guidance. The candidate's name, with all remarks concerning him, are entered in a register, while the candidate is allowed to consult a register of vacancies for apprentices. The candidates are young workers between 13 and 17 years of age, of whom 90 per cent. are boys and 10 per cent. girls. Among the most popular occupations may be mentioned those of locksmith, electrician, engineer, fitter, and chauffeur, and for girls those of dressmaker and saleswoman. The occupations of baker, blacksmith, and domestic servant are less popular. The fact that the building trade attracts few is due to the fact that building has been much reduced owing to the war. The provincial Labour Offices work on the same lines as that of Warsaw.

It has already been pointed out that this first initiative has produced very mediocre results owing to the lack of preparation of the working classes, who need to be familiarised with such ideas by effective propaganda. The competent department of the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare has drafted an Order setting up special committees in the Labour Offices to draw up definite schemes for co-ordinating the different factors in vocational guidance. The most important thing is to secure the co-operation of teachers, young people's philanthropic societies, doctors, psychologists, representatives of trade unions, and representatives of the Ministries. A further function of these committees will be to collect information and other material which can be handed on to the general public by means of lectures, pamphlets, etc. These committees are not to limit themselves merely

to assisting the Labour Offices ; they should also endeavour to develop and improve continuation education of young workers. These committees, attached to the Labour Offices, and well acquainted with conditions of labour in the district, will be able to select the best means of establishing technical, vocational, or similar schools for the purpose of facilitating vocational guidance. Later it may be possible to unite all these committees in a Central Vocational Guidance Committee, which will certainly be of great value.

In conclusion, attention may be called to the beginnings of scientific research in applied psychology. In the main, it is true, its objects are educational, but it may also be of value in vocational guidance. An institute has been established by the municipality of Lodz, where an experienced psychologist is in charge of research into the psychological capacities of young people on the basis of data provided by school children. The results of this research and the conclusions arrived at will no doubt provide valuable suggestions and information for purposes of vocational guidance.

Training of Vocational Counsellors in Berlin

The journal of the Brandenburg Labour Office (*), *Arbeit und Beruf*, in its issue of 25 August 1922, reprints the principles for the training of vocational counsellors (*Berufsberater*) drawn up by the city of Berlin. The Prussian Decree of 18 March 1919, which established vocational guidance bureaux, gives only the following indications in paragraph 5 :

Directors of the bureaux will be selected from men and women accustomed to handling young people, and specially qualified for the work of vocational guidance (economists, representatives of arts and crafts, headmasters in elementary, secondary, or special schools, teachers, higher school instructors, ministers of religion, or officials of child protection agencies or employment exchanges).

In view of the growing importance of these vocational guidance bureaux it has been found necessary to supplement these instructions. The text of the municipal Order is as follows.

Principles for the Preparation and Training of Vocational Counsellors within the Municipal Area of Berlin

Preliminary Remarks

The functions of a vocational counsellor consist in advising young people or adults on the choice or change of an occupation. The advice given is based on individual examination of the candidate's physical, psychological, and moral qualifications for a given occupation, taking into account as far as possible all the requirements of the occupation as stated by the employment exchanges. The following are also included in the functions of the counsellor : explanatory addresses to meetings of parents and headmasters, of organisations of employers or workers, and talks of an educational nature with young people leaving school. Counsellors are also expected to collect information on occupations, and to classify these documents in such a way as to facilitate reference when their advice is sought, and to increase their efficiency continually by reading publications, studying information given by the labour exchanges and journals of trade associations, by attending meetings and congresses, and by visiting factories and workshops.

(*) Berlin S. W., Königgrätzerstrasse 28.

Preparation

(1) *Scholastic.* A complete elementary education is essential. Higher education ending with a certificate is desirable, and is essential for offices dealing with professional and university careers.

(2) *Vocational.* Complete vocational training in some trade, and several years of vocational activity, as varied as possible, is essential. It is desirable that the counsellor should have some knowledge of vocational training, conditions of labour and wages in the trades most frequently chosen, and the physical and psychological requirements of the chief trades. If possible he should also have some knowledge of industrial hygiene. Vocational counsellors will be selected for preference from among employment exchange officials.

(3) *Social.* Experience in handling young people is essential. Some experience in child protection work with official or private organisations and a knowledge of child psychology are desirable.

(4) *General.* A certain amount of experience of life (minimum age 30) is essential, as well as facility in public speaking and ability to write fluently and correctly. It is desirable to have some fundamental ideas of social economics and to know the provisions of ordinary legislation (regulations of industrial associations, law of contract, child and labour law).

Training

(1) Under the regulations generally in force candidates are first appointed on probation (*Diätär*) and placed with a vocational counsellor, who initiates them in the work. They attend the weekly conferences of vocational counsellors.

(2) Definite appointment is made according to the number of vacancies.

Apprenticeship Councils in Switzerland

The Swiss Association of Councils for Apprenticeship and the Protection of Apprentices has recently issued its annual report for 1921 in French and German ⁽⁵⁾. The report includes the summary of a lecture by Mr. Paul Jaccard on what industrial associations expect from vocational guidance offices, as well as a complete list of vocational guidance offices (apprenticeship councils), employment exchanges, and official or public organisations for the protection of young workers at present in existence in Switzerland. The Association organised a district course of instruction for vocational counsellors, held at Soleure on 14 and 15 September. In addition to general subjects, the building trades and occupations for women in domestic economy and the hotel industry were particularly studied.

Establishment of a Psycho-Technics Section at the Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute

The Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute at Geneva, which since 1918 has devoted special attention to questions of the psychology of work and vocational guidance, has decided to extend its work in this direction by creating, from October 1922 onward, a section of psycho-technics (i.e. psychology as applied to industrial and economic questions), under the direction of one of its former pupils, Mr. Léon Walther. The Institute has secured the assistance of several specialists, university professors, doctors, etc.

The syllabus of instruction in this section, which is intended to

⁽⁵⁾ ASSOCIATION SUISSE DE CONSEILS D'APPRENTISSAGE ET DE PROTECTION DES APPRENTIS : *Rapport annuel, 1921*. Berne, Hallwag, 1922.

train consulting psychologists, is in two parts. The first deals with vocational guidance—the person to be advised, the occupations towards which he should be guided and the methods of doing so—the second with the organisation of work, including anthropometry, physiology and psychology of work, and industrial hygiene. The syllabus also includes practical work in the laboratory of experimental psychology and in factories, attendance and assistance at vocational guidance consultations, co-operation with an employment exchange, and attendance at medical and educational consultations.

Literature

A recent publication of the Bureau of Personnel Research^(*) outlines the field for research which has still to be covered before a sound system of vocational guidance or selection on scientific lines can be established. Vocational guidance requires (1) knowledge of the qualities required for success in a given occupation, and (2) the power to detect the presence of these qualities in a given individual. To satisfy these requirements three lines of investigation are suggested, into the nature and content of "the job" in whatever occupation, into the qualities and abilities of satisfactory and satisfied workers "on the job", and into the capacities of young persons which will develop into these same qualities.

Dealing first with the job itself, the author shows that the now familiar "job analysis", though valuable, does not go far enough or give precise enough information. He calls for more exact definition of the degrees of responsibility involved in work of different kinds, as well as of lines of possible promotion and of alternative opportunities. He also points out the need for more precise statement of the degree of knowledge and training required before entering a trade, and—what is only too often forgotten in scientific works on vocational guidance—how it is to be obtained.

The question of the abilities found in workers in any given occupation raises the problem of human differences, a sphere in which, in spite of the investigation of psychologists, much remains to be done. The author draws certain wide generalisations on the subject of variations between human beings, but indicates that a great deal of research is needed to verify these and other assumptions. He states that on the whole variations are greater in acquired than in original traits, and in distinctively human traits than in those common to all mammals. Further, variations are usually more or less continuous and are grouped round one central tendency.

The relation between general intelligence and fitness for occupations is a question which has attracted much attention in the United States, and the author here issues a serious warning. He states that general intelligence or mental alertness tests only test one ability, and "until we can do this on many other traits, we will be working largely in the dark on our vocational guidance programme". Interesting examples of correlation of general intelligence (as distinct from special abilities) with occupation are given from the United States army tests. It is

(*) C. S. YOAKUM : *Basic Experiments for Scientific Selection*, in the *Service Bulletin* of the Bureau of Personnel Research, Vol. IV, No. 3, Jan. 1922. Pittsburgh, Pa.

pointed out, moreover, that too often general intelligence tests are largely irrelevant in selecting candidates for an occupation, and that research into other abilities is required. Comparison of groups training for, or employed in, an occupation in respect of such abilities as manipulative ability, interest, ability to handle persons, etc. may slowly accumulate data on which conclusions can be founded. This will inevitably be a long process, and, pending the collection of scientific information regarding other abilities than intelligence, hasty generalisations and reliance on general intelligence alone should be avoided.

Investigation into the continuity of abilities, which is implied in the study of the capacities in children which will develop into the qualities required by an adult worker in a given occupation, is much needed, though difficult. A certain amount has already been done along this line, and it has been established with some certainty, by means of repeated experiment, that intelligence is continuous, and also musical ability. The author's object is not to solve questions, but to suggest lines of future progress on the basis of the achievements of previous investigators. He is careful to point out that vocational guidance is as yet in its infancy, and that its value in the future depends entirely on the soundness and caution of scientific experiment in its present initial stages. He states that "the measure by which to gauge the success of vocational guidance and placement is the measure of the satisfied and satisfactory worker in his job".

A recent pamphlet on vocational guidance by Mr. G. Papy (?) deals in the first two chapters with the factors to be taken into consideration in vocational guidance, namely, the child (his economic environment, occupations, and selection of an occupation), and the means of investigation to be employed (concerning the child, his environment, and the economic conditions of his environment and occupations). In his last two chapters the author describes the "synthetic test" which he has constructed for the purposes of vocational guidance. This test, which is already fairly well known, is one of dexterity, and consists in passing steel balls as rapidly as possible from one receptacle to another. The author has complicated the test by calling into play "as many senses as possible and various distributions of attention" by the use of balls of different material, and by making the candidate sort these balls, which he receives in no order, according to their nature, first with model instructions before him, then from memory, and then again from memory but with an inverse order suggested. An inclined groove is used containing balls of 15 millimetres diameter. These are stopped by a check which makes it possible to pick them up one at a time. The balls are of three kinds: steel, wood, and glass. A box divided into three compartments is provided to receive the balls, which, after they fall, are concealed under an inclined board. The child is given a small number of balls, and in Mr. Papy's opinion, his achievement should reveal his psychological abilities as follows: (1) rapidity: the child has to drop the 24 balls one at a time into each of the three compartments in turn; (2) discrimination: the child must sort the balls into the three compartments according to the material of which they are made; (3) memory: the child sorts the balls in the

(?) Gaston PAPPY: *Une méthode d'orientation professionnelle*, 55 pp., Brussels, Vanderlinden. 1922.

same way as in the preceding cases, but from memory ; (4) suggestion : this time the same sorting is carried out, but with simultaneous visual and verbal-auditory suggestions of error ; (5) combination : the child has to sort from memory every other ball, throwing the others into some receptacle regardless of the material of which they are made.

On the basis of this test Mr. Papy has drawn up a system of vocational guidance which he describes in the last chapter of his pamphlet. The first step in this system is to establish the necessary basis for selecting an occupation by applying the author's "synthetic test". The vocational counsellor draws up a list of occupations to be considered, and adds the percentage of persons employed in the different occupations. He then classifies these occupations on the basis of his "synthetic test", which is used as a general standard. In order to effect this classification the author lays great stress on "selecting those employed in occupations". From a given number of workers he selects one who is efficient in his work and eliminates all those inferior or superior to him. The workers so selected are tested by the "synthetic test". At least ten persons should be chosen for each occupation. Results thus obtained make it possible to draw up a table for each occupation showing the minimum and maximum time, the average time, and the errors made in each test. Mr. Papy states that "it would certainly take a long time to establish such tables, but there seems no way of avoiding this. To begin with, it might perhaps be permissible to work by analogy, and to group round one occupation which had been experimentally studied those which resemble it". After thus describing in outline groups of occupations, the author intends to distinguish them in detail by the special abilities which they require. This would involve a study of each trade, and the author recommends the construction of forms to give (1) general information about the occupation (e.g. wages, apprenticeship, unemployment, etc.) ; (2) indications of special anatomical, physiological, and psychological qualities required.

In addition to his attempt at theoretical classification, Mr. Papy has also a practical object in view, namely, to guide the child into an occupation suited to his abilities. "The first part of the task of the vocational counsellor is not to apply strict scientific procedure, but to obtain information about the candidate which will enable him to interpret correctly the results of later experiments". This information is provided by the school, by the candidate, and by his parents, and experimental examination is the next step. In order to limit the investigation to a group of occupations, it should first be discovered for which trades the candidate is suited. For this the author uses his "synthetic test", supplemented by the Binet tests and Dr. Decroly's picture test and practical intelligence test. Having thus arrived at a group of trades, the counsellor must endeavour to find the occupation or occupations best suited to the child's abilities and the condition of the labour market. The doctor then intervenes and eliminates any occupations which might injure the health of the candidate. The author adds "a questionnaire of emotions", which provides information on "the instincts, inclinations, and feelings of the candidate". After these two forms of selection the author suggests that only a limited number of trades will remain. The counsellor will then instruct the child to go and watch these trades on the spot, form his own opinion, and come to a decision. The pamphlet concludes by saying that "the method just described may be briefly characterised as (1) a process of

selection progressively limiting the number of occupations open to the child as information, observation, and experiment give the counsellor a fuller knowledge of the child, and (2) as the use of synthetic processes in the beginning of the psychological investigation, processes which supply general data more easily used in practice than the results of experiments on the ordinary analytic lines of the laboratory, which prolong and complicate the work so much as to make it impossible".

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

British Employers and Education

The Association for the Advancement of Education in Industry and Commerce was founded in May 1919^(*), for the encouragement of definite educational work in industrial and commercial undertakings, and general encouragement of education through publications, research, conferences, and co-operation with other educational bodies. The membership consists almost entirely of employers and employment managers. The *Proceedings* of the Association embody reports of the conferences which have been held at intervals. Among the subjects there discussed have been: works schools, education for commerce, engineering training, adult education, psychological tests, the educational value of a business to its staff and to the community, the Education Act of 1918, and industrial education in the United States.

The conference reported in Volume V of the *Proceedings* was held at Nottingham from 8 to 10 June 1921. The question of university training for industry and commerce was first discussed and the demand put forward that this type of training should be recognised as qualifying for a university degree. The conference also discussed at some length the question of education for foremanship and executive positions in industry. Many different points of view were brought forward, and experiments already made in this direction reported. It was generally agreed that training for foremanship should be kept distinct from the training of foremen already appointed. The representative of a Scottish firm stated that for some time a system of training of senior apprentices, with a view to making them foremen, had been in force. This included two years' workshop practice in practically every department of the works, supplemented by a course of weekly lectures on the principles of industrial organisation.

The syllabus of this course is of sufficient interest to be given in some detail.

- (1) Outline of economic principles and of industrial history.
- (2) Effects of the Industrial Revolution and corrective influences.
- (3) Modern industrial tendencies.
- (4) Forms of industrial ownership (including Socialism and Communism).
- (5) The outstanding need of today: industrial efficiency.
- (6) Old or empirical methods of management compared with modern methods.
- (7) and (8) Scientific management and relations between employer and employed under this system.
- (9) Description of the planning department.
- (10) Time-setting by investigation, motion study, and fatigue study.

(*) *Proceedings of the Association for the Advancement of Education in Industry and Commerce*, Vol. V; 100 pp. 1921.

- (11) Description of the production department.
- (12) Modern shop executives and their functions.
- (13) Methods of charting different types of organisation.
- (14) Methods of selecting employees, including psychological tests.
- (15) Training of (a) apprentices, (b) workers, (c) executives.
- (16) Welfare work.
- (17) Methods of remuneration.
- (18) Materials from specification, purchase, and inspecting.
- (19) Store systems : (a) material, (b) tools.
- (20) Time-keeping and costing methods.

One speaker during the discussion pointed out the two phases of foremanship training, one a specific training in executive functions and industrial organisation, the other the supplementing of general education. American experience in training foremen was extensively quoted, and it was pointed out that in this respect the United States were far ahead of British industry.

After hearing papers on the saving to the child and the community in general which might be effected by the introduction of simplified spelling, the decimal system, and script writing, the conference passed to the discussion of the present position in regard to the provision of day continuation schools. The suspension of the Education Act of 1918 was generally deplored, though certain local education authorities and a few private firms had instituted or extended continuation classes in several districts.

At the close of the discussion a resolution was adopted :

This Association, being representative of the pioneer day continuation school work initiated by employers in industry and commerce, and fully convinced by experience of the value of continued education, while appreciating the urgent need for national economy, profoundly regrets that conditions of financial stringency should have delayed the full operation of Sections 10 to 12 of the Education (1918) Act (and of the corresponding provisions for Scotland), and urges His Majesty's Government to put into operation now the facilities for part-time education.

This resolution was to be circulated to the members of the Association, with the proposal that it be submitted to the Government.

A very vigorous protest against the proposed policy of restriction of day continuation schools under the 1918 Education Act, signed by seven large employers of labour, was published in the British press on 31 May 1922.

Development of Vocational Education in Canada

According to the Canadian Department of Labour (*), during the year ending 31 March 1922 the Dominion Government spent \$710,276 in assisting the various Provinces to carry out their programmes of vocational education. This represents an increase of 22.5 per cent. on the previous year. Under the Technical Education Act the Dominion Government bears one-half of expenditures incurred by the Provincial governments on vocational education of secondary grade under annual agreements between the Federal Minister of Labour and the Premier or Minister of Education of each Province. None of these grants are made for agricultural education, which is provided for under a different Act. In the year under consideration the Federal grants were approximately trebled in Prince Edward Island and Saskatchewan and

(*) *Labour Gazette* of Canada, May 1922. Ottawa.

more than doubled in New Brunswick. The increase was 35 per cent. in Nova Scotia, 27 per cent. in Ontario, 180 per cent. in Manitoba, and 27 per cent. in British Columbia.

A feature specially noted is the development of correspondence courses and short-term intensive courses in various vocational subjects. The supply of trained teachers is still most inadequate, and efforts to establish a central training institution have as yet had no result, although summer schools for vocational teachers are being held in several of the Provinces. Demand for vocational education far exceeds the present supply, and much remains to be done in improving both the quantity and quality of this type of education before the demand can be satisfied.

Organisation of Vocational Education by Industry

A systematic attempt to organise vocational education in the paper and pulp industry of the United States is being made by the employers' associations⁽¹⁰⁾. A large fund has been raised among paper manufacturers in the United States and Canada for the preparation of text books to be used in educational work, and classes are already being organised in a number of mills. The organisation of the work is in the hands of a joint educational committee 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. A survey of the industry was made by a representative of the Federal Board for Vocational Education in preparation for the compilation of text books⁽¹¹⁾. This survey outlines suggested courses for employees in the pulp and paper industry, and is also used as a kind of preliminary text book.

Foremen's training conferences have been held in a number of mills in co-operation with the State and Federal supervisors of vocational education. An example of educational work is taken from a plant in Massachusetts, where arrangements were made to have class work given by the Massachusetts Department of University Education. The company sold text books to the employees at cost price, deducting this from their wages in instalments. It was provided, however, that every worker successfully completing the course would have the cost of text books refunded to him and be allowed to retain them.

In other districts arrangements have been made for joint classes for the employees of various firms not large enough to organise separate courses. A difficulty arose in the case of isolated workers who wish to take courses, but live in a district where numbers do not warrant the formation of classes. To meet their needs correspondence courses have been established by the Canadian Correspondence College of Gardenvale, Quebec, and the University of Wisconsin, with the approval of the technical associations.

The ultimate aim of this campaign for education is stated to be the training of every one of the 150,000 wage earners in the industry. Preparation and organisation of the work have been in progress for three years, though results are only now beginning to appear. Five text books have been issued, and future developments of the work will be watched with interest.

⁽¹⁰⁾ *The Human Side*, Aug. 1922, pp. 5-8. Philadelphia, Collins Manufacturing Co.

⁽¹¹⁾ J. C. WRIGHT: *Vocational Education in the Pulp and Paper Industry*. New York. 1921.

Notes on Workers' Education

UNDER this heading it is hoped to publish in the *Review* each month notes on current events and publications of interest in the sphere of workers' education, i.e. the education and training—largely non-vocational—of adult workers, whether this is organised by trade unions or independent bodies. Thus this month a summary of the third annual report of the World Association for Adult Education is given, followed by sketches of workers' education in Germany and Soviet Russia. A proposal for a "workers' university" in France is noted, as well as the formation and progress of the Workers' Education Bureau of America, and a summer school for women workers at Bryn Mawr College, Philadelphia.

The movement for workers' education, though of long standing in some countries, is of comparatively recent growth in others, while in almost all it has undergone a great revival since the war. These *Notes* will attempt to include information on workers' education in all countries and on experiments or advances in education among adult workers.

THE WORLD ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION

The third annual report of the World Association for Adult Education, recently published, shows that the Association has continued to progress in spite of great difficulties⁽¹⁾. The purpose of the Association, which was founded in 1919, is to co-ordinate and encourage adult education in all countries. Its headquarters are in London, but it is in touch with organisations or individuals interested in adult education in many countries. National Councils under the Association have been established in the Netherlands and Czechoslovakia, and during the past year have been making a survey of local conditions and assisting the extension of opportunities for adult education in their respective countries. The British Institute of Adult Education was established as a branch of the Association, and, by holding meetings and conferences and making investigations during the year, has endeavoured to influence in favour of adult education sections of public opinion which might not otherwise have been reached. The report also mentions the work done by the Seafarers' Education Service in installing libraries on board ship for the use of crews. A commission has been appointed to study the value of the cinema in adult education. One of the most important activities of the Association is the reception of overseas visitors in London, and the collection and exchange of information by these means.

The first international conference of the Association is to be held in Geneva in July 1923. The following subjects are on the agenda: universities and popular education, the education of seafarers, education of illiterates, visual instruction, and aesthetics in adult education.

(1) WORLD ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION: *Bulletin XII; Adult Education in Russia, and Third Annual Report of the World Association*. London, May 1922.

WORKERS' EDUCATION IN GERMANY

On the occasion of the recent International Conference on Workers' Education, held in Brussels from 15 to 17 August 1922 ⁽²⁾, the German General Federation of Trade Unions (*Allgemeiner deutscher Gewerkschaftsbund*) presented a report on workers' education in Germany, from which the following information has been taken ⁽³⁾.

Press. The General Federation regards its press as a most important means of education. More than sixty periodicals, mostly weekly, with a circulation of about 9,000,000, are published under the auspices of the General Federation of Trade Unions and the General Federation of Salaried Employees (*Afa*); in addition, about ten periodicals for particular trade groups, with a circulation of about 500,000, are issued. In 1920 the trade union press cost about 55,000,000 marks.

Local Organisation. There are 543 local trade union education committees under the General Federation of Trade Unions. These organise lectures, classes, social gatherings, libraries, and the purchase of books. There are a large number of libraries and reading-rooms owned by local federations of trade unions, while many individual unions possess libraries of their own. There are also 395 young people's committees (*Jugendausschüsse*) to cater for the special needs of trade unionists between the ages of 14 and 18, of whom there are about 500,000 in the General Federation. Special periodicals are published for these young trade unionists, and include articles on the principles of trade unionism, vocational education, and general moral education. In 1920 a sum of 942,606 marks was spent on libraries and general educational work, and 150,779 marks on education of young people.

Vocational Training. The trade unions also interest themselves in the vocational education of their members. A number of technical journals and technical supplements to trade union journals are issued. The majority of collective agreements include special provisions regarding the training and employment of apprentices. In addition, some of the trade unions undertake definite technical training for their members, notably the printers, bakers, mechanics, and musicians. The railwaymen's unions have for some time organised technical railway schools (*Eisenbahnfachschulen*) in co-operation with the School Association (*Schulverband*).

Central Institutions. It is in the sphere of workers' education strictly so-called, however, that the most interesting institutions are found. Co-operation between the public authorities and the trade unions for the provision of non-vocational education for adult workers is carried to a higher pitch in Germany than in most other countries.

In 1921 a Labour Academy (*Akademie der Arbeit*) was established by the German Government at Frankfort-on-Main. The students are almost all nominated by the trade unions, which pay their expenses. The Academy offers a year's course in economics and labour law. The 1921-1922 session was attended by 50 students; that of 1922-1923 has enrolled 42. Nearly all of these are trade union officials or employees, who, after completing the course, return to their old positions.

(2) A report of the proceedings of the conference will be given in a subsequent number of the *Review*.

(3) *L'Atelier*, 19 Aug. 1922. Paris. Cf. also *International Trade Union Movement*, Vol. II, No. 1, Jan.-Feb. 1922, pp. 36-42; No. 4, July-Aug. 1922, pp. 228-231: *Educational Work of the German Trade Unions*, by Alexander RUOLL.

The Prussian Government has organised Technical Schools of Economics and Administration (*Fachschulen für Wirtschaft und Verwaltung*) at Berlin and Düsseldorf. At the present time more than twenty members of the General Federation of Trade Unions are attending these schools. The cost per head for the year's course is estimated at 15,000 marks, of which 10,000 marks are paid from public funds and the remainder by the trade unions to which the students belong. The purpose of these schools is to train adults of both sexes, who have at least completed their elementary school education and are engaged in industry, for administration in public and private economic and social bodies. The normal limits of age for admission are from 20 to 35 years. The course covers ten months, from October to July, but in Berlin it is proposed to organise evening classes following the same course, to cover at least two years. The curriculum of the Berlin school includes economics, organisation of labour and industry, book-keeping and accountancy, trade union history, elementary social policy, social administration, social hygiene, elements of law, labour and industrial law, general politics and sociology, the German constitution, state and municipal government, and German language, literature, art, etc.

An Institute of Political Science (*Staatswissenschaftliches Institut*) has been established at the University of Münster in Westphalia to train trade union officials and others as instructors for adult education. The courses of instruction are free, and the trade unions defray the maintenance expenses of the students. The Miners' Union alone sent 18 students to the last session.

The General Federation of Trade Unions itself is affiliated to the Committee of German Associations for Popular Education and the German Committee for Education and Instruction. These are general organisations, whose membership includes persons of all political and philosophical opinions, and are consulted by the Government on all important educational questions.

Purely Labour Institutions. For Central Germany a Resident Workers' College (*Heimvolkshochschule*) has been established at Tinz near Gera (Reuss) giving four months' instruction in the basic principles of Socialism. It is supported by the trade unions and the two Socialist parties. A course for women trade unionists has been arranged from August to December of this year.

An example of education organised solely by the trade unions is to be found in the trade union school of Berlin. This offers short courses of twenty days (or evening classes for a correspondingly longer period) for trade union officials and unpaid workers and young trade unionists. The students are nominated by the organisations of which they are members, which pay a fee of 20 marks per head. The remainder of the cost is borne by the Berlin trade unions as a whole.

As an example of the educational activities of individual trade unions, the work of the Agricultural Workers' Union (*Landarbeiterverband*) may be mentioned. From April to November 1921 it organised nine courses, each lasting a week, for its branch officials. Altogether 300 students attended these courses, which covered trade union development and its lessons, wage systems in agriculture, works councils and arbitration in agriculture, the opponents of the Agricultural Workers' Union, and administration.

Works Councils Schools. When the Works Councils Act came into force in Germany, the trade unions rapidly realised that the members

of these councils required special training to fit them for their duties. A Central Works Councils Committee (*Zentralbetriebsräteausschuss*) was set up under the General Federation of Trade Unions to supervise, among other things, the training of works council members. The *Betriebsräte-Zeitung*, published by the Federation, has a circulation of 120,000, while the nine chief trade unions publish special works council papers, which have a circulation of about 350,000. In addition, the Central Works Council Committee and the individual unions have published books and pamphlets, the sales of which have amounted to about 250,000.

In 1921 there were 195 schools or courses for works council members, and 129 of these had enrolled 20,655 students. The Berlin Works Council School is an example of the more highly organised and efficient of these institutions. It offers 2-month courses, which in 1921 were attended by a total of 4,285 persons, and in the first half of 1922 by 2,794. The estimated cost of the Berlin school for 1922 is about 600,000 marks, of which 100,000 marks should be paid by the students themselves and the remainder by the trade unions. The curriculum of the school covers the Works Councils Act itself, works councils in joint-stock companies, book-keeping and accountancy, factory organisation, the monetary and banking system, labour law, socialisation, the economic organisation of the country, elementary economics, current economic events, economic geography, social hygiene, the workers and the press, income and the cost of living, and the elements of Socialism.

In addition to the general training of works council members irrespective of industry, some of the great industrial unions have organised special training for works councils for their own members. The Metal Workers' Union (*Metallarbeiterverband*) organised 3-week courses in 12 of its 18 districts from the beginning of 1921. These courses involved full-time instruction, and the students left work to attend them. Each course was attended by 65 to 80 trade unionists. The courses dealt with economic history, labour law, the constitution of companies, factory organisation, and industrial hygiene. The Miners' Union (*Bergarbeiterverband*) in 1920 organised 22 local courses, including about 800 lectures, and from the beginning of 1920 to the end of the first quarter of 1922 had arranged 1,071 lectures, at which the average attendance was from 40 to 60. The Building Workers' Union (*Bauarbeiterverband*) also sends lecturers to meetings of its local branches.

Workers' education in Germany, as organised by the General Federation of Trade Unions, has, as will be seen, reached an advanced stage of development. The summary given above does not, of course, include the adult education work of the Christian and other trade union organisations, or of bodies entirely outside the trade union movement. If this also is taken into account, it is obvious that the adult worker in Germany has extensive and varied opportunities for education.

PROPOSAL FOR A LABOUR UNIVERSITY IN FRANCE

As a result of the International Conference on Workers' Education which met in August, a proposal has been advanced for the creation of a "Labour University" under the auspices of the General Confederation of Labour of France (⁴). This is to be organised in eight sections.

(⁴) *La France libre*, 27 Aug. 1922. Paris.

There will be a school for the training of trade union leaders, which will give instruction in the organisation of production and distribution, the history of the labour movement, national and international, the organisation of finance, and public speaking. The second section will arrange for the popularisation of knowledge concerning social, scientific, economic, artistic, and literary progress. Vocational courses will be organised to prepare young people for industry, and to assist them in the choice of a trade. With the assistance of the legal council of the Confederation, courses in industrial and social law will be given. Other sections will deal with health and sport, the education and care of young children, household management and other questions particularly concerning women, and libraries and publications.

ADULT EDUCATION IN SOVIET RUSSIA

In a *Bulletin* issued by the World Association for Adult Education⁽⁵⁾ an account is given of adult education in Russia both before and after the Revolution; the following is a summary of that part of the article which covers the period since the Revolution. The author states that "the statistics quoted . . . are taken from official publications of the Soviet Government. Independent sources of information are either non-existent or inaccessible". If the description of the system of adult education in Russia appears unduly optimistic, it should be noted that much of it is drawn from the plans of the Government rather than from the record of its achievements, and that the figures given, as the author says, cannot be verified.

Since the Revolution in Russia the Soviet Government has made extensive plans for education, entrusted chiefly to the Commissariat of Education. Political education was at first under the Department of Adult Education in the Commissariat; later the Department was set up as an independent body under the title of the Chief Political Education Board. The Board controls a network of Communist schools, which centre round the Sverdlov Communist University at Moscow. The Commissariat of Education controls general education and vocational and technical education.

It is estimated that nearly three-quarters of the population were illiterate at the time of the Revolution, and that only 18 per cent. of the peasant and working classes were able to read. By Decree of the Council of People's Commissaries an Extraordinary Commission was set up for the eradication of illiteracy. The plans of this Commission included the education of over 30 million illiterates between the ages of 18 and 40. Courses are being organised in various parts of Russia for the training of teachers for illiteracy classes. In the district of Cherepovietz courses and conferences for instructors attended by over 15,000 persons were held, and similar courses have been organised in other districts. The work has developed rapidly, and it is stated that since the Revolution 4,800,000 persons have been taught to read. The Commissary for Education, Mr. Lunacharsky, estimates that illiteracy will be "liquidated" in Russia within the next ten years. In the Red Army the percentage of illiteracy is only 45 per cent. as compared with 85 per cent. in the old army. In three months

⁽⁵⁾ WORLD ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION : *Bulletin XII ; Adult Education in Russia*. London, May 1922.

the "liquidation" courses in the province of Tambov were attended by 40,000 persons; in the province of Cherepovietz by 57,807; in the province of Ivanovo-Vosnesensk by 50,000; and in Petrograd by 25,000 persons.

The training of teachers for schools of all kinds has also engaged the attention of the Commissariat of Education. It is stated that there are now 55 training colleges and two academies of people's education, with a total of 10,305 students. In addition, 300 short-time training courses for teachers already at work have been organised.

A Central Committee for Vocational and Technical Education has been set up. Its plans are based on the principles that technical education should not begin before the age of 14-15, on the foundation of a minimum of general education, and that every citizen should be given full opportunities for completing his education to as high a point as he desires. The following institutions have been set up under this scheme; vocational training for adults, with courses ranging from six months to two years; vocational schools for adolescents, with a 4-year course; a day technical school, with a 4-year course; evening or workers' technical schools, with 6-year courses; technical high schools, with a 3-year course; a polytechnic high school, with a one-year course; and preparatory schools for those whose theoretical training is insufficient to allow them to enter the above institutions.

Attention has also been given to higher education and the reform of the universities. In 1919 "Workers' Faculties" were created in all existing universities, giving 2-year courses in preparation for entrance to the university proper. The first year is occupied with general education, the second with three parallel courses: (1) training in physics and mathematics for entrance to technical high schools and the mathematical faculty of the university; (2) the natural science section, training for the natural science and medical faculties and for the agricultural high schools; (3) the social-economic course for workers who do not propose to go beyond the Workers' Faculty. It is stated that there are at present 60 Workers' Faculties, with 24,300 students⁽⁶⁾.

The universities themselves are divided into two sections, one for preparing "mass" specialists in practical economics, statistics, foreign trade and diplomacy, administration, or foreign languages, the other for highly skilled specialists—teachers, scientific workers, etc. According to the latest returns, the number of university students in Soviet Russia is 158,000, and the number of university teachers 5,500. The students at high schools number 213,301.

As further aids to the education of the masses, the Soviet Government has taken steps to place theatres, museums, music, and the fine arts within the reach of all classes of the population. A uniform price

(6) More recent information tends to show that the number of places at the universities reserved for members of the "Workers' Faculties" is very limited. In 1922 the "Workers' Faculties" only received 3,681 out of 33,449 places. This is accounted for by the fact that the Commissariat of Education has very little money, and therefore has to give preference to the fee-paying "new bourgeoisie" before the proletariat, and that candidates from the "Workers' Faculties" are not sufficiently well educated to follow a university course. The local workers' organisations have been unable to fill all the places reserved for them; they only send such of their members as are "sound" Communists, (*Izvestia*, 12 Aug. 1922: *The Conquest of Higher Education*, by KISELEFF). This may suggest that the actual state of affairs in education in Russia is not altogether so promising as the article summarised would suggest.

for theatre seats has been established and the repertoire of the largest theatres has been much improved. State orchestras have been organised, including five large symphony orchestras and about 50 smaller ones. In 1919 and the beginning of 1920 these orchestras gave over 400 concerts of various kinds in the provinces. The Department of Fine Arts organises art exhibitions in Moscow and the provinces and also endeavours to develop industrial art in 35 workshops where 7,000 persons are employed.

THE WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA

In April 1921 a small conference was held in New York attended by educationalists and trade unionists to consider the promotion of workers' education in the United States. The result of the conference was the establishment of the Workers' Education Bureau of America, with headquarters at 465 West 23rd Street, New York City. It is intended that the Bureau shall act as a clearing-house for information of all kinds regarding the workers' education movement in the United States, a centre for the registration of teachers for workers' classes, and a publicity office. In addition, it is to stimulate the development of workers' schools and colleges where they have not yet been founded, and encourage the movement in every possible way. It is also proposed that the Bureau shall study general questions affecting the movement as a whole, with a view to placing the results of its research at the disposal of its members. Such matters as textbooks, class material, teaching methods, and curriculum will all come within the sphere of the Bureau. Should it later prove feasible to undertake social and statistical research in any of the workers' classes, the Bureau will be required to co-ordinate and supervise the various parts of the work.

Any local or national trade union could become a member of the Bureau on payment of the affiliation fee, while trade unionists, educationalists, and other individuals interested could become associate members.

The Bureau held its second annual conference on 22 and 23 April 1922 in New York. In addition to accredited delegates from various workers' educational institutions in the eastern States, over three hundred persons from States west of the Mississippi were present.

The conference received reports on the progress of the organisations represented and messages of greeting from the workers' educational institutions in other countries. The relation of the labour movement to workers' education was discussed at some length, and a committee of ten appointed to develop a plan of co-operation between the American Federation of Labour and the Workers' Education Bureau. The resolution on the subject also provided for such changes in the "organic law, officers, and offices" of the Bureau as might be necessary to make this co-operation effective.

In July an agreement was arrived at between the Federation and the Bureau, under which the latter organisation will in future work in full co-operation with the Committee on Education of the Federation (?). It is provided that only unions affiliated to the American Federation of Labour and in good standing, and the four railway

(?) *New York Call*, 15 July 1922. New York.

brotherhoods, shall be represented in the control or membership of the Bureau. The Education Committee of the Federation is to have three places on, and the chairmanship of, the Board of nine persons which controls the activities of the Workers' Education Bureau.

The first report issued by the Bureau^(*), in addition to giving an account of the conference of 1921, summarises the development and present position of workers' education in the United States, both by means of the verbal reports given at the conference by representatives of various labour schools and colleges and by means of the replies given to a questionnaire issued in preparation for the conference.

The first point brought out is the comparatively recent development of the movement for workers' education in the United States. Before 1918 only four among the twenty-six enterprises which replied to the questionnaire were in existence. From that time the number grew steadily, and in 1920 no less than thirteen new institutions for workers' education were founded. All the enterprises reported on are isolated and sporadic; there has never been hitherto any approach to national organisation or co-operation. This is partly due to the fact that the whole movement for workers' education is the outcome of the activity of an enthusiastic minority, in some cases of individuals, rather than of concerted action of large bodies. The workers' colleges or schools range in size from a highly organised enterprise like the Rand School of Social Science, which has been in existence since 1906, or the educational department of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, with its 2,000 students, to small groups, with a membership of less than 25, still struggling to overcome their initial difficulties.

The schools are almost invariably under the control of the trade unions, which in many cases provide the bulk of the necessary funds. The University Extension movement, which in Great Britain was so largely responsible for the development of the workers' education movement, is only represented in America by two ventures, under the auspices of Amherst and Bryn Mawr colleges respectively, though university teachers and authorities have in many cases been willing to co-operate in running the classes.

The best, as well as the most usual, type of organisation has proved to be the comparatively small class, working under a teacher who spends part of the time in direct instruction and part in guiding discussion among his students. The number in these classes averages under thirty, and the standard of attendance is high as compared with those of ordinary night and continuation schools. Some workers' colleges have devoted much of their energies to the organisation of "mass education", in the form of popular meetings and lectures combining entertainment and instruction. Certain of the New York trade unions undertook this work at times of unemployment or strike in order to utilise the spare time of their unoccupied members. Purely recreational and social activities also form part of the programme of many of the larger educational enterprises.

The subjects most largely studied, as might be expected, were English language and literature, economics and economic history, and public speaking, while physical training attracted large numbers. The students were for the most part, if not exclusively, trade union mem-

(*) WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA: *Workers' Education in the United States; Report of Proceedings of the First National Conference*. 144 pp. New York, Workers' Education Bureau. 1921. 50 cents.

bers, but it is noticeable that in only four places were students under thirty years of age in the majority ; hitherto it has been the older union members who have availed themselves of opportunities for education.

The Workers' Education Bureau is still in the stage of experiment, but its existence for over a year is a sign of progress towards better organisation and co-ordination in the American workers' education movement, which itself has grown in a few years from the dream of a few individuals to a force of no little importance for the future of American labour.

A SUMMER SCHOOL FOR WOMEN WORKERS

An interesting experiment in adult education was initiated in 1921 by a joint committee of trustees and former students of Bryn Mawr College, Philadelphia, and representatives of women workers in the United States. During the regular summer vacation of the College a school for women workers, lasting two months, was held and attended by 80 students. This year the number of students was 100, of whom about 20 were foreign-born (*). Their ages ranged from 18 to 39. The curriculum included economics, approached through the history of the Industrial Revolution and the development of trade unions, English composition, hygiene, and physical training and open-air recreation as compulsory subjects. The students were also at liberty to choose from among the voluntary subjects, namely, literature, history, psychology, science, and music. The student body was largely self-governing, and through student committees and joint committees with the faculty of the School controlled most of its own activities.

This venture is regarded as important as a step towards greater co-operation between the colleges and universities and labour in the United States. Attention is also called to the value of the school in bringing women workers from different trades and different parts of the country into touch with one another. It is stated that former students of Bryn Mawr have, through the summer school, been impelled to take up definite work in connection with adult education in various parts of the country.



(*) *Christian Science Monitor*, 11 Aug. 1922, Boston.

LEGISLATIVE NOTES

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I. United States of America : Labour Legislation of 1921

The United States Bureau of Labour Statistics has just published its volume of Labour Legislation of 1921 ⁽¹⁾.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION

There has been very little Federal legislation on labour matters during 1921. The Immigration Act of 19 May 1921, known as the "Three per Cent Act", has been published in the *Legislative Series* of the International Labour Office ⁽²⁾ and need not be summarised here.

The Maternity and Infancy Welfare Act ⁽³⁾ may also be mentioned, though it is not strictly speaking labour legislation. It is another ⁽⁴⁾ example of Federal legislation designed to encourage the States to take action along certain lines by granting them Federal appropriations for specific purposes.

⁽¹⁾ UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS : Bulletin No. 308 ; Washington, Governm. Print. Office. For a survey of the corresponding volume of laws of 1920 see *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 4, Apr. 1922, *Legislative Notes*, p. 659.

⁽²⁾ INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Legislative Series*, 1921 (U. S. A. 1) [hereafter quoted as *Legislative Series*].

⁽³⁾ *Ibid.* 1921 (U. S. A. 2).

⁽⁴⁾ See the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1920 ; *Legislative Series*, 1920 (U. S. A. 1).

STATE LEGISLATION

Factory and Workshop Acts and Codes

New York. Perhaps the most important event in the labour legislation of the States of the United States of America in 1921 was the recodification of the New York "Labour Law", which now forms Chapter 50 of the Laws of 1921. Existing legislation was not substantially changed by this codification except as regards the reorganisation of the State Department of Labour. The head of the Department^(*) is now a single Industrial Commissioner appointed by the Governor for a term of four years, instead of, as formerly, an Industrial Commission of five members. But the idea of government by commission is not abandoned, since an Industrial Board of three members is established in the Department. The members of the Board, as well as the Commissioner, are all full-time civil servants, and that the Board is not regarded as subordinate to the Commissioner is shown by the fact that his salary is the same as those of the members of the Board. The Industrial Board deals with claims for compensation under the Workmen's Compensation Law as well as with the questions of hours, hygiene and safety detailed below. The Commissioner shares with the Board the duties formerly devolving upon the Industrial Commission in the administration of the Workmen's Compensation Law. He is permitted to attend the meetings of the Industrial Board except when workmen's compensation review cases are before it. On the other hand, it is the Commissioner, and not the Board, who appoints as many salaried referees as may be necessary to adjudicate upon claims for compensation. The Industrial Board acts as a kind of court of appeal in such matters.

The duties of the Commissioner are given under ten headings : (1) to enforce the Labour Law itself and the rules made by the Industrial Board (see below) ; (2) to exercise certain functions under the Workmen's Compensation Law ; (3) to cause proper inspections to be made for the enforcement of the Law and the rules ; (4) to cause investigations to be made of the condition of women in industry ; (5) to intervene in industrial disputes ; (6) to propose to the Industrial Board the adoption or modification of any rules as he may deem advisable ; (7) to establish public employment offices if he thinks fit ; (8) to conduct investigations into, and compile statistics concerning, the conditions of labour generally ; (9) to enforce, if necessary, any municipal ordinance or by-law affecting places coming under the Labour Law ; (10) to investigate, if he desires, the condition of aliens relative to their employment in industry. The duty of the Industrial Board is to issue rules for carrying out in detail the provisions of the Law, and also to exercise certain functions under the Workmen's Compensation Law. The rules of the Board, which, when issued, are to be called collectively by the somewhat misleading name "Industrial Code", may deal with hygiene, accident prevention, the construction of factories and business premises, and methods of work, the object being that all places to which the Law applies shall be "so constructed, equipped, arranged, operated and conducted in all respects as to provide reasonable and adequate protection to the lives, health and safety of all persons

(*) See Article II of the Labour Law : "The Department of Labour" ; *Bulletin* 308, p. 146.

employed therein". Specially dangerous or unhealthy trades or processes may be specially regulated. The rules of the Board have the force of law. Rules are adopted by a majority (i.e. by two affirmative votes). A public hearing must be held before the adoption, amendment, or repeal of a rule. The Board may, likewise after a public hearing, allow special exemptions from particular provisions of the Law or the rules if there would be "practical difficulties of unnecessary hardship" in carrying them out. Appeals⁽⁶⁾ against the validity or reasonableness of any rule go first to the Board itself, and take the form of a petition to the Board to review the rule; if the Board upholds the rule appeal may be made to the Supreme Court.

In recodifying the Law no attempt was made, it appears, to find any logical order for the various provisions to be included. The Law to be enforced by the Department of Labour is divided into a series of "Articles" dealing respectively with the employment of children and women, hours of labour, payment of wages, general provisions (combining a strangely miscellaneous collection of provisions, as described below), public work, immigrant lodging houses, building work, factories, bakeries, manufacture in tenement houses, mercantile and other establishments, mines, explosives. Article IV dealing with the employment of children and women prohibits employment of any kind before the age of 14, and makes employment between 14 and 16 contingent upon the child's ability to procure an "employment certificate" issued by certain education authorities. These certificates depend upon the physical fitness of the child for the work upon which he is about to enter and upon his ability to read and write simple sentences in English⁽⁷⁾. Children under 16 employed in a factory or mercantile establishment must submit to a physical examination whenever required by the medical inspector of the Department and can be removed from employment for which they prove physically unfit. They are absolutely excluded from employment at certain dangerous types of machine and in certain occupations involving a risk of accident (such as cleaning machinery), of explosion, or of injury to health (such as manufacturing or packing paints, dry colours or red or white leads, match dipping or dyeing, and preparing any composition in which dangerous and poisonous acids are used). Girls under 16 may not work in any capacity which compels constant standing, and there are a number of other exclusions from employment in operation for girls of various ages up to 21 and boys up to 18. Adult women are only excluded from work in connection with a mine or quarry, from operating certain grinding or polishing wheels in circumstances giving rise to injurious dust, and, in certain circumstances, from core-making in foundries. Nor does it appear that the Board has power to exclude adult women from any further injurious trades, although rules may be adopted excluding minors under 18 from occupations shown by investigation to be dangerous and injurious to health. The prohibition of the employment of women about the time of their confinement extends to commerce as well as manufactures, but covers only a period of four weeks after childbirth. On the other hand, women workers have the right to insist upon examination by a woman physician in cases where a medical examination is required by the employer. Seats must be provided for women workers, and their work must be done

⁽⁶⁾ Article III of the Labour Law.

⁽⁷⁾ See the Education Law, Ch. 16 of the Consolidated Laws, § 631 (*New York State : Miscellaneous Labour Laws*, 1 Nov. 1921).

sitting if possible, failing which they must be allowed to make use of seats provided for them "to such an extent as may be reasonable for the preservation of their health".

Article V of the Law deals with hours of labour. Men's hours are limited to 10 hours a day on trams and electric underground or elevated • railroads, and to 8 hours a day in State or municipal works or under public contracts. "All other employees", except farm or domestic servants, have a standard working day of 8 hours, but overtime for extra pay is permitted without restriction. Signalmen on busy railway lines may not work more than 8 hours except in cases of extraordinary emergency.

The hours of work of women and young persons are regulated in factories and mercantile establishments^(*). Children under 16 may not work in factories more than six days a week, nor more than 8 hours a day, nor at night (between 5 p.m. and 8 a.m.). In mercantile establishments, offices, hotels, theatres, and other places of amusement, or in delivering articles and messages, the same limitations of hours are imposed upon children, except that the night in such occupations is not held to begin till 6 p.m. Boys between 16 and 18 may not work more than six days a week and 54 hours a week (9 hours a day or an arrangement allowing a shorter day once a week) in factories, nor between midnight and 4 a.m. Girls over 16 have the same daily and weekly hours of work as boys, but in their case night work is prohibited between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. up to the age of 21, and between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. for women over 21. In mercantile establishments no limit is fixed to the hours of boys between 16 and 18, but the same hours as for factories apply to women over 16, except that the prohibition of night work is between 10 p.m. and 7 a.m. in this case. Some exceptions are allowed in canneries. The hours fixed for women, young persons, and children must be posted up in the workplaces. The same Article contains some special provisions (mostly allowing a 9-hour day and prohibiting night work with differing definitions) affecting the hours of work of women employed in restaurants, in charge of elevators, on street railroads, and of young men under 21 as well as of women in telegraph or messenger services.

A weekly rest-day is also prescribed in Article V. The general rule is 24 consecutive hours of rest in all factories and mercantile establishments and on elevators, the most important exceptions being in the case of necessarily continuous industries. In such industries the Board may allow exceptions from the weekly rest, provided that none of the workers affected works more than 8 hours in any calendar day.

Article VI of the Labour Law, dealing with the payment of wages, requires wages to be paid in cash, but allows employers who give the Commissioner satisfactory proof of their financial responsibility to use cheques for the payment of wages. This Article also provides that, in the case of railway companies, wages shall be paid at least twice a month not more than fifteen days in arrears, and, in other companies, once a week not more than six days in arrears.

Article VII ("General Provisions") deals with certain general and particular aspects of hygiene, safety, and the protection of trade union labels. It opens with a Section requiring workplaces to be so construc-

(*) A "factory" includes any place where any person is employed in making, altering, furnishing, etc. any article. A "mercantile establishment" means any place where any person is employed in which goods, wares, or merchandise are offered for sale.

ted, arranged, and conducted as to provide reasonable and adequate protection to the lives, health, and safety of the persons employed, leaving it to the Board to make rules to carry these general provisions into effect. The next Section requires copies or abstracts of the provisions and rules applying to a workplace to be posted up in it. The third Section is a special provision for elevator employees, for whom washing facilities and sanitary conveniences must be provided. There follows a Section on the inspection of boilers (requiring annual inspection of all boilers used for generating steam or heat and carrying a pressure above fifteen pounds to the square inch). We find next two Sections dealing with industrial poisoning, the first prohibiting the taking of meals in workrooms where lead, arsenic, "or other poisonous substances or injurious or noxious fumes, dust, or gases exist in harmful conditions", and requiring the employer to provide a suitable place where the employees may eat their meals; and the second requiring physicians to notify to the Commissioner all cases treated by them of persons suffering from "poisoning by lead, phosphorus, arsenic, brass, wood alcohol, mercury, or other compounds, or from anthrax, or compressed air illness, contracted as the result of the nature of such persons' employment". The next Section is for the protection of employees at switchboards and requires a rubber mat to be provided for the employees to walk on while working at a switchboard of over 220 volts. This is followed by two Sections for the protection of trade union labels or marks used for the purpose of enabling purchasers to identify goods made under trade union conditions; these Sections provide for the registration of such labels and penalise their fraudulent use or counterfeiting. The next Section places special penalties upon employee of the State or of a municipality who violate or permit violations of the Labour Law. The next makes the Commissioner the general guardian of the rights of the workers, requiring him to help them to enforce their just claims against their employers and to protect them against frauds and other improper practices. The final Section of this miscellaneous Article authorises the Commissioner to inspect labour camps in the State.

Article VIII regulates conditions of employment in public works (application of the 8-hour day, preference to be given to American citizens over aliens in engaging workers), and Article IX the licensing of lodging houses for immigrants. Article X deals with accident prevention in building operations and in factories. Article XI, in the first place, requires factories to be registered with the Commissioner, and deals also with accident and fire prevention and sanitation in Sections which enter in some respects into minute detail, but many of which are also supplemented by rules of the Board's "Industrial Code". Article XII deals with the sanitary condition of bakeries. Article XIII regulates work in a "tenement house", which is defined as "a house or building. . . which is occupied in whole or in part as the home or residence of three or more families living independently of each other and doing their cooking upon the premises. . . ."; in other words the subject of this Article is home work among poor people living in flats or parts of houses. All manufacturing processes in tenement houses are regulated by this Article except the manufacture of collars, cuffs, and shirts which are to be laundered before being offered for sale. No other article may be sold if made in a tenement house, unless the owner of the tenement house has procured a license to permit persons to carry on manufactures on his premises. In addition, the owner of a factory wishing to give out work to be done in a tenement house

must first get a permit from the Commissioner. The Article lays down the conditions which must be observed if goods are manufactured in a tenement house (cleanliness, sanitation, ventilation, air-space, freedom from infection). As a rule, no person outside the members of the family living there may be employed and no basement more than half of the height of which is below the level of the ground may be used for manufacturing any article. No factory may give out work on articles of food, or dolls, or children's clothing to be done in a tenement house or in an apartment which is also used for living purposes. Periodic inspections (at least every six months) must be made of licensed tenement houses. If articles are found to be made unlawfully in a tenement house, the Commissioner may have them labelled "tenement made". Occupants of apartments who carry on manufacture unlawfully may be ejected by the owner of the house.

Article XIV of the Labour Law regulates mercantile and other establishments as regards sanitation, safety, and supply of drinking water. In certain cases (excluding the smallest undertakings and those in small towns) washrooms and dressing-rooms must be provided. The employment of children under 16 and of women in a basement of a mercantile establishment is prohibited without a permit, given only on condition that the basement is sufficiently lighted, ventilated, and sanitary. This Article also prohibits any mercantile company from compelling employees to contribute towards any benefit or insurance fund.

Article XV contains provisions (supplemented by rules of the Board) dealing with safety and protection of health in mines, tunnels, quarries, and compressed air works.

Article XVI deals with the manufacture, storage, and transportation of explosives.

Employment of Women and Children

The subject which seems to have occupied most attention on the part of State Legislatures during 1921 was the regulation of child labour. The following Acts are concerned with the age limit for the admission of children to work and other conditions attached to their employment.

Connecticut. Children under 14 are excluded altogether from employment in bowling alleys and shoe-shine parlours, which are now to be regulated as mercantile establishments; the educational standard for procuring employment certificates (see above under *Factory Acts and Codes, New York, Article IV*) has been fixed at the completion of six grades of school work ⁽⁹⁾.

Illinois. The educational standard upon which the issue of employment certificates depends has been raised (six years' schooling is now required instead of five, and an attendance at school for 130 days between the fourteenth and fifteenth birthdays instead of between the thirteenth and fourteenth), and wood shapers have been added to the list of dangerous machines at which children under 16 may not work ⁽¹⁰⁾.

Indiana. The law has been amended so that employment certificates are now required up to 18 years of age.

Massachusetts. The list of occupations for which minors between 16 and 21 must have educational certificates has been extended. In

⁽⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, chs. 212 and 272.

⁽¹⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 435.

addition, children between 14 and 16 must now procure employment certificates before admission to work and a special certificate is prescribed for farm work ⁽¹¹⁾. Street trading is prohibited in large cities below the age of 12 in the case of boys and 18 in the case of girls.

Missouri. The law relating to the employment of children was modified during 1921 ⁽¹²⁾. The position now is that no child under 14 may be employed "at any gainful occupation" during school hours, nor between the ages of 14 and 16 without a permit. Under 14 no child may be employed during the school terms unless in possession of a permit. Permits for employment depend upon the child's health and fitness for the occupation proposed. There is a list of dangerous operations from which children under 16 are excluded.

New Mexico. An age limit of 14 has been fixed for the employment of children in manufactures, mines, hotels, places of amusement, or as messengers and elevator attendants ⁽¹³⁾.

Ohio. The law of Ohio relating to the school attendance and employment of children was extensively amended during 1921 ⁽¹⁴⁾. As the law now stands, the employment of a child under 16 is prohibited in the following classes of undertaking: mill, factory, workshop, oil well or pumping-station, cannery or bottling or preserving establishment, mercantile or mechanical establishment, tenement house, garment-making or dress-making or millinery establishment or working-room, store, office, office building, laboratory, restaurant, hotel, boarding house or apartment house, bakery, barber shop, bootblack stand or establishment, public stable, garage, laundry, place of amusement, club, or as a driver or chauffeur, or in any coal yard or brick, lumber, or building-material yard, or in the construction or repair of buildings, or in the transportation of merchandise. Exceptions are allowed only in the case of holders of certificates, and permit work in the summer vacation or outside school hours. For employment between 16 and 18 "age and schooling" certificates are required. These certificates are only issued on proof that the child is 16 years of age and has satisfactorily passed a test for the completion of the school work of the seventh grade, that a guarantee of employment has been given to him, and that he procures a medical certificate of fitness either for permissible employments in general or for specific occupations. There are special relaxations to the general rule for backward children, especially those for whom the English language is a difficulty, in which case attendance at evening classes as well as part-time day classes may be required as a condition to the grant of a certificate. Part-time school attendance is compulsory up to the age of 18, provided there are such classes accessible to the young person. The classes may extend to 8 hours a week, they must take place between 7 a.m. and 6 p.m. (12 noon on Saturdays) and may not be held on Sundays or holidays. For school children between 14 and 16 special certificates may be issued permitting their employment outside school hours, provided that their hours of school attendance and work together do not exceed 9 hours. Vacation certificates may also be issued to permit children between 14 and 16 to take up work during the summer vacation. These certificates do not depend upon school attainments, but a health certificate is required. The only type of work open to children without certificates is "irregular service", which means open-air work not involving physical strain

⁽¹¹⁾ Acts of 1921, chs. 341, 351 and 410.

⁽¹²⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 184.

⁽¹³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 150.

⁽¹⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 376.

and such that it is interrupted by rest periods. Work of that description may be undertaken by school children for not more than 4 hours a day or 24 hours a week.

Porto Rico. All gainful employment, except domestic and farm work, has been prohibited to children under 14 in Porto Rico ⁽¹⁵⁾, and work permits must be procured by children between 14 and 16 starting work.

Wisconsin. The law relating to child labour in Wisconsin has been codified and various amendments introduced ⁽¹⁶⁾. The principal are those allowing children of school age to be employed without a permit during the vacations in domestic service, and fixing the educational standard for work permits at the completion of 9 years' school attendance, not including kindergarten.

The hours of work of women and children were affected during 1921 by the following laws.

Connecticut. The hours of work of children under 16 have been reduced from 10 hours a day and 55 a week to 8 hours a day on 6 days in the week, night work being prohibited between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. ⁽¹⁷⁾.

Hawaii. The 8-hour day or 48-hour week has been introduced for children under 16, and night work (9 p.m. to 5 a.m.) prohibited ⁽¹⁸⁾.

Indiana. Hours of work are limited to 8 a day in the case of boys between 14 and 16 and of girls between 14 and 18 ⁽¹⁹⁾.

Massachusetts. The Massachusetts law prescribing a 9-hour day for women and children has been extended so as to cover laundries, hotels, hairdressing establishments, cinemas, elevator operators and switchboard operators at private telephone exchanges ⁽²⁰⁾.

Missouri. The law already referred to above limits the hours of work of children under 16, in all occupations except agriculture and domestic service, to 48 a week and prohibits night work (7 p.m. to 7 a.m.) ⁽²¹⁾.

New Jersey. The legal hours of women workers in manufacturing or mercantile establishments, bakeries, laundries, and restaurants have been reduced from 60 to 54 a week ⁽²²⁾.

New Mexico. The hours of children under 16 are limited to 48 a week and night work prohibited between 9 p.m. and 6 a.m. An 8-hour law for women has also been introduced ⁽²³⁾.

New York. The provisions of the New York Labour Law on this subject have already been noted ⁽²⁴⁾.

A number of other laws affecting in some measure the employment of children are given in the *Bulletin* of the Bureau of Labour, although they are more strictly speaking education laws. They cannot all be noted here. In general, it may be observed that the education laws and child labour laws are more closely linked in the United States than in European countries, where the system of employ-

⁽¹⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 75.

⁽¹⁶⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 434.

⁽¹⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 188.

⁽¹⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 187.

⁽¹⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 132, sec. 21.

⁽²⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 280.

⁽²¹⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 184.

⁽²²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 194.

⁽²³⁾ Acts of 1921, chs. 150 and 180.

⁽²⁴⁾ See above under *Factory Acts and Codes*,

ment certificates does not exist. In the United States the tendency is to fix a very high school-leaving age—often 18 years of age—and to permit a young person to leave school before that age only if he is ensured regular and suitable employment. Employment is often prohibited in the United States before 16 years of age, which is a high standard compared to that of European countries. But, on the other hand, we find in the United States many exemptions allowing children to leave school at an earlier age in order to work for the support of relations, and work is frequently permitted during the school vacations. An attempt to create a Federal standard excluding children from employment before 14 has recently been declared unconstitutional, so that the matter again rests exclusively with the States (²⁵).

The protection of women workers from overstrain is the subject of a special Act in **California** (²⁶) which prohibits employers from requiring women to lift any box, bundle, or other receptacle which with its contents weighs more than 75 lbs. Where women are employed on work which necessitates the moving of such heavy receptacles, pulleys or other contrivances must be provided to facilitate the work.

Hours of Work

The hours of work of women and children have been the subject of some legislation, referred to under *Employment of Women and Children* above, but very little has been done in the United States to enforce by legislation any limitation to the hours of work of adult men. Indeed, it is not certain whether laws on that subject applying to occupations other than those presenting some special hazard or strain (such as mines, smelters), or for public employees, would be held to be constitutional. The regulation of hours, consequently, usually takes the form of fixing a standard working-day on the basis of which wages will be calculated, overtime being unrestricted provided it is specially remunerated (²⁷). During the year 1921 the only notable legislation on this subject was an amendment to the constitution of **Michigan** authorising the Legislature to regulate the hours of work and conditions of labour of men as well as of women and children (²⁸).

Other laws affecting hours of work adopted in 1921 are those of : **California**, reducing the hours of drug clerks from 10 per day and 60 per week to 9 per day and 54 per week (²⁹) ; **Porto Rico**, applying the law limiting hours of labour in the public service to 8 a day to certain telegraph and telephone operators (³⁰) ; **Ohio**, prescribing an 8-hour day for State employees and allowing them fourteen days' annual leave. The 8-hour day has received a set-back in **Minnesota** (where road work has been excluded from the 8-hour day law for public works), and in **Texas** (where the 8-hour day for public works has been converted from an absolute limitation to a basic day). In addition to the legislation of

(²⁵) See *Bailey & Bailey v. the Drexel Furniture Co.*, in which the Federal Child Labour Tax Law was held to be unconstitutional.

(²⁶) Acts of 1921, ch. 903.

(²⁷) See the reference to the regulation of hours of work in New York under the heading *Factory Acts and Codes* above.

(²⁸) Art. V, sec. 29.

(²⁹) Acts of 1921, ch. 765.

(³⁰) Joint Resolution No. 35.

Ohio referred to immediately above granting annual leave to State employees, an Act was adopted in **Hawaii** ⁽³¹⁾ during 1921 extending the annual leave of public employees to three weeks, and allowing them to accumulate six weeks' leave to be taken at one time.

Hygiene and Safety

Although in many States there now exist authorities (commissions or boards) with power to issue detailed regulations concerning health and safety in workplaces, yet a multitude of detail remains in the laws themselves.

Accident prevention is the subject of legislation of 1921 in the following States :

In **California** ⁽³²⁾ the annual inspection of elevators is prescribed and the fee fixed, and the law for the prevention of accidents in building work is amended.

In **Minnesota** the workers' eyes must be protected from flying objects or the splashing of hot substances or chemicals ⁽³³⁾.

In **Montana** an amendment of 1921 deals with means of egress in case of fire ⁽³⁴⁾.

In **North Dakota** a new law contains provisions dealing with scaffolds, hoists, cranes, etc. ⁽³⁵⁾.

In **Pennsylvania** an independent emergency electric lighting system must be provided for the ways of egress in factories used after dark ⁽³⁶⁾.

Safety in Mines was the subject of legislation in **Alaska** (where a code of mining laws for coal mines has been enacted) ⁽³⁷⁾ ; **Arizona** (requiring notice to be given of the beginning or suspension of mining operations) ⁽³⁸⁾ ; **Arkansas** (dealing with the provision of maps) ⁽³⁹⁾ ; **Colorado** (dealing with blasting operations and authorising the Commissioner to issue regulations) ⁽⁴⁰⁾ ; **Illinois** (dealing with blasting, the examination of gaseous places ⁽⁴¹⁾, electrical installations in mines ⁽⁴²⁾, requiring knowledge of English on the part of shot-firers ⁽⁴³⁾, and also enacting a code of regulations relating to safety in mines ⁽⁴⁴⁾) ; **Indiana** (respecting the duties of the inspector when gas is discovered in the mine ⁽⁴⁵⁾, and fixing penalties ; ventilation, haulage, explosives, installation of dressing and bath-rooms ⁽⁴⁶⁾) ; **Montana** (requiring ambulances to be provided at large mines) ⁽⁴⁷⁾ ; **Ohio** (requiring the installation of telephones in mines ⁽⁴⁸⁾ and amending the requirements as to wash-rooms ⁽⁴⁹⁾) ; **Tennessee** (requiring washrooms at mines above a certain size) ⁽⁵⁰⁾ ; **Utah** (requiring a permit for storage of high explosives for more than 24 hours) ⁽⁵¹⁾.

⁽³¹⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 201.

⁽³²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 330.

⁽³³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 113.

⁽³⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 98.

⁽³⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 42.

⁽³⁶⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 237.

⁽³⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 14.

⁽³⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 73.

⁽³⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 100.

⁽⁴⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 177.

⁽⁴¹⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 512.

⁽⁴²⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 568.

⁽⁴³⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 568.

⁽⁴⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 525.

⁽⁴⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 154.

⁽⁴⁶⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 279.

⁽⁴⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 185.

⁽⁴⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 48.

⁽⁴⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 22.

⁽⁵⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 24.

⁽⁵¹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 80.

Sanitation was dealt with by legislation during 1921 in **California** (requiring sanitary conveniences to be provided for cinema employees ⁽⁵²⁾ and dealing with the installation of washing facilities, ventilation, and protection from dust and fumes in foundries ⁽⁵³⁾) ; **Connecticut** (requiring the provision of sanitary conveniences in all manufacturing, mechanical, and mercantile establishments) ⁽⁵⁴⁾ ; **Delaware** (adding transport establishments to the list of those where conveniences must be provided) ⁽⁵⁵⁾ ; **Illinois** (requiring showers to be provided in wash-rooms where these are prescribed by an earlier law) ⁽⁵⁶⁾.

Another series of measures deal with hygiene in the interests largely of the public, namely in bakeries (**California** ⁽⁵⁷⁾, **Idaho** ⁽⁵⁸⁾, **North Carolina** ⁽⁵⁹⁾, **Ohio** ⁽⁶⁰⁾, **South Dakota** ⁽⁶¹⁾, and **Texas** ⁽⁶²⁾) ; in hotels, restaurants, etc. **Pennsylvania** ⁽⁶³⁾, **Texas** ⁽⁶⁴⁾) ; in laundries (**Connecticut**) ⁽⁶⁵⁾ ; and in home work (**Wisconsin**) ⁽⁶⁶⁾.

Wages

There was no progress during 1921 in minimum-wage legislation for women and minors. Four States have amended their existing laws and Texas has abolished its legislation on this subject altogether, a new measure to replace an older one repealed ⁽⁶⁷⁾ having been vetoed by the Governor. The amended laws are those of **Arkansas** (replacing a Commission authorised to grant exceptions to the statutory minimum wages and consisting of two women only by an "Industrial Welfare Commission" consisting of a man and a woman representative both of employers and workers with the Commissioner of Labour as chairman) ⁽⁶⁸⁾ ; **California** (administrative changes) ⁽⁶⁹⁾ ; **Kansas** (transferring the functions of the Industrial Welfare Commission to the "Court of Industrial Relations") ⁽⁷⁰⁾ ; and **Minnesota** (transferring the functions of the Minimum Wage Commission to the "Industrial Commission") ⁽⁷¹⁾.

Deductions from wages were regulated in 1921 in **California** ⁽⁷²⁾ by an Act making it unlawful to deduct for late arrival more than the wage proportionate to the time lost, provided that half an hour's wage may be deducted even though the worker arrives at work actually less than half an hour late.

An Act of **New Hampshire** has extended to all employers the requirement, formerly applying only to companies, that wages shall be paid once a week in cash ⁽⁷³⁾.

New Mexico has adopted a Truck Act ⁽⁷⁴⁾ prohibiting employers or their representatives from endeavouring to induce the workers, by threat or any other manner, to buy goods at any particular place.

⁽⁵²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 897.

⁽⁵³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 244.

⁽⁵⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 266.

⁽⁵⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 187.

⁽⁵⁶⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 445.

⁽⁵⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 701.

⁽⁵⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 223.

⁽⁵⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 173.

⁽⁶⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 604.

⁽⁶¹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 242.

⁽⁶²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 263.

⁽⁷⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 263. See also *International Labour Review*, Vol. V., No. 4, Apr. 1922, *Legislative Notes*, p. 665.

⁽⁷¹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 84.

⁽⁷²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 901.

⁽⁶²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 63.

⁽⁶³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 169.

⁽⁶⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 66.

⁽⁶⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 227.

⁽⁶⁶⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 259.

⁽⁶⁷⁾ Repealing Act, ch. 118 of the Acts of 1921.

⁽⁶⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 140.

⁽⁶⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 279.

⁽⁷³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 68.

⁽⁷⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 10.

The **New York** Labour Law deals with the payment of wages in Article VI ⁽⁷⁵⁾.

A **Wisconsin** law specifies that the fortnightly payment of wages, already prescribed for companies, shall take place on the fifteenth and last days of each month, or, if any such day should fall on a Sunday or holiday, on the previous business day, provided more than 8 days' wages are due. A number of laws and amendments were adopted during 1921 dealing with the assignment of wages and workers' liens.

Conciliation and Arbitration ; Industrial Organisation

The following laws deal with arbitration.

In **California** the State Board of Arbitration has been abolished, and its duties have not been transferred to any other new or existing body ⁽⁷⁶⁾.

In **Kansas** the Kansas Compulsory Arbitration Act ⁽⁷⁷⁾ has been affected by the creation of a "Public Utilities Commission" ⁽⁷⁸⁾, to which the powers and duties formerly devolving upon the Court of Industrial Relations are transferred in so far as public utilities are concerned.

The labour situation in the United States was reflected in some measure in the legislation of 1921 affecting the rights of trade unions.

In **Alabama** ⁽⁷⁹⁾ an amendment of the Criminal Code makes it a misdemeanour to organise a strike or to picket "without a just cause or legal excuse therefor", or, without any such condition, to declare a boycott, to intimidate or blacklist a person or firm, to commit acts of sabotage or to incite to any deeds rendered illegal by the Act. The penalties provided for breaches of the law may be imposed on "any person, firm, corporation or association of persons"; they consist of fines not being less than \$100 nor exceeding \$1000, with or without imprisonment for not more than six months for a first conviction. For a second and every subsequent conviction the punishment must include imprisonment for at least three months and not more than six months.

In **Hawaii** an Act of 1921 ⁽⁸⁰⁾ prohibits incitement to violence, sabotage, rioting, etc.

In **Illinois** it has been made illegal ⁽⁸¹⁾ for representatives of labour organisations to attempt to extort money from employers for undertaking to prevent or settle labour disputes.

In **Nebraska** a law ⁽⁸²⁾ has been adopted which prohibits the molestation of any person (which includes, amongst more violent actions, persisting in talking to a person or photographing him against his will) in order to induce him to leave work, and also makes it unlawful for any person to "loiter about, beset, patrol or picket" any undertaking.

In **Oregon** the Act of 1919 dealing with criminal syndicalism and sabotage has been re-enacted in a more stringent form ⁽⁸³⁾.

Several States adopted laws in 1921 for the protection of trade union labels : **California** ⁽⁸⁴⁾, **Iowa** ⁽⁸⁵⁾, **New York** ⁽⁸⁶⁾, **North Dakota** ⁽⁸⁷⁾.

⁽⁷⁵⁾ See above under *Factory Acts and Codes*.

⁽⁷⁶⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 619.

⁽⁷⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, chs. 261 and 262.

⁽⁷⁸⁾ See *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 4, Apr. 1922, *Legislative Notes*, p. 665.

⁽⁷⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 23.

⁽⁸⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 272.

⁽⁸⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 216.

⁽⁸⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 29.

⁽⁸¹⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 401.

⁽⁸⁶⁾ Labour Law, Article VII. See above under *Factory Acts and Codes*.

⁽⁸²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 235.

⁽⁸⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 137.

⁽⁸³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 34.

Employment and Unemployment

Legislation was adopted during 1921 authorising the establishment of public employment offices or extending the scope of existing employment services in **Illinois** ⁽⁸⁸⁾ (extending the existing service); **Louisiana** ⁽⁸⁹⁾ (authorising the Commissioner of Labour to establish free employment bureaux); **North Carolina** ⁽⁹⁰⁾ (establishing a free employment bureau); **North Dakota** ⁽⁹¹⁾ (establishing a general system of free employment service).

Private employment offices were regulated in **Alaska** ⁽⁹²⁾ (imposing a licence-tax on private employment offices); **Indiana** ⁽⁹³⁾ (exempting approved charitable associations from existing provisions regulating private employment offices); **Nebraska** ⁽⁹⁴⁾ (replacing, but only slightly amending, an older law respecting the licensing of private agencies); **Utah** ⁽⁹⁵⁾ (exempting teachers' agencies from the general law.)

Administration

Some important changes in methods of administration of labour laws were made during 1921.

In **California** a Department of Labour and Industrial Relations has been created ⁽⁹⁶⁾ in place of several independent bodies (the Industrial Accident Commission, the Immigration and Housing Commission, the Industrial Welfare Commission, and the Bureau of Labour Statistics), the respective functions of which are transferred to four divisions in the Department. The mutual relations between these divisions are regulated by a board consisting of one representative of each.

In **Kansas** the administration of labour legislation has been transferred to the Court of Industrial Relations ⁽⁹⁷⁾, which is consequently now responsible for the inspection of mines and factories, for administering the free employment bureaux and all the duties formerly devolving upon the Commissioner of Labour and Industry.

In **Michigan** the powers previously exercised by the Industrial Accident Board, the Department of Labour, the State Labour Commissioner, the Board of Boiler Rules, and the Industrial Relations Commission have been centred in a new Department of Labour and Industry ⁽⁹⁸⁾.

In **Minnesota** the administration of the Workmen's Compensation Act, of measures relating to boiler inspection, accident prevention, statistics, the employment of women and children, mediation and arbitration has been centred in an Industrial Commission consisting of three members ⁽⁹⁹⁾.

In **Montana** a Department of Agriculture, Labour, and Industry has superseded former government offices ⁽¹⁰⁰⁾. One of the divisions of the new Department has the duty of enforcing the law relating to hours

⁽⁸⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, p. 443.

⁽⁸⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, Extra Session, No. 98.

⁽⁹⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 131.

⁽⁹¹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 117.

⁽⁹²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 604, adding Article II* (§§364-364d) to the Political Code.

⁽⁹⁷⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 262. See also *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 4, Apr. 1922, *Legislative Notes*, p. 665.

⁽⁹⁸⁾ Acts of 1921, No. 43.

⁽¹⁰⁰⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 216.

⁽⁹²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 31.

⁽⁹³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 108.

⁽⁹⁴⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 189.

⁽⁹⁵⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 48.

⁽⁹⁹⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 81.

of work and conditions of labour, child labour, and the free employment service. The Industrial Accident Board remains unaffected by the new organisation.

In **New York** changes in administrative organisation are contained in the Labour Law summarised above ⁽¹⁰¹⁾.

In **Ohio** an "Administrative Code" has been adopted ⁽¹⁰²⁾, setting up a Department of Industrial Relations which deals with factory inspection, labour statistics, mines, the compensation law, arbitration, boiler inspection and safety.

In **Washington** a new "Administrative Code" ⁽¹⁰³⁾ likewise sets up a Department of Labour and Industries dealing with industrial insurance, safety, and industrial relations, all previous boards and bureaux being abolished.

II. Canada : Labour Legislation of 1921

The Government of the Dominion of Canada published last year a collection of all the labour legislation of the Dominion and of the Provinces as existing at the end of 1920 ⁽¹⁰⁴⁾. A supplementary volume (with a cumulative index) has now appeared showing the amendments adopted in the course of the calendar year 1921 ⁽¹⁰⁵⁾. The following are the more important of the laws reproduced in this volume.

DOMINION LEGISLATION

Very little Dominion legislation was passed in 1921. An amendment to the Bankruptcy Act ⁽¹⁰⁶⁾ includes claims to compensation under any of the Provincial Workmen's Compensation Acts among the debts having priority in case of the bankruptcy of the employer.

An Act amending the Chinese Immigration Act provides, among other things, that Chinese immigrants must establish their identity to the satisfaction of the Controller, and authorises a Board of Enquiry, under Section 13 of the Immigration Act ⁽¹⁰⁷⁾, to order the deportation of persons not allowed to enter. The Immigration Act is also amended so as to allow accredited representatives of international trade unions to enter the country without being subject to the usual conditions ⁽¹⁰⁸⁾.

PROVINCIAL LEGISLATION

Employment of Women and Children

British Columbia. An Act ⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ fixing the minimum age for the employment of children on the lines of the Washington Convention on

⁽¹⁰¹⁾ See under *Factory Acts and Codes*.

⁽¹⁰²⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 105.

⁽¹⁰³⁾ Acts of 1921, ch. 7.

⁽¹⁰⁴⁾ CANADA, DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR : *Labour Legislation in Canada as existing 31 December 1920*. Ottawa, 1921.

⁽¹⁰⁵⁾ *Id.* : *Labour Legislation in Canada for the Calendar Year 1921*. Ottawa, 1922.

⁽¹⁰⁶⁾ The Bankruptcy Act Amendment Act 1921, ch. 17.

⁽¹⁰⁷⁾ Statutes of 1910, ch. 27. Section 13 authorises the Minister to appoint a Board of Enquiry consisting of three or more persons at any port to decide the cases of persons seeking to enter Canada or detained at the port for any cause.

⁽¹⁰⁸⁾ Ch. 32.

⁽¹⁰⁹⁾ Ch. 19 of 1921, First Session.

that subject was placed on the Statute Book of British Columbia in 1921. But the Act will not come into operation until similar laws are enacted in all the other Provinces of the Dominion.

Another Act⁽¹¹⁰⁾ to introduce the provisions of the Washington Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth was originally couched in similar terms so as to remain in suspension until the other Provinces had adopted legislation of the same kind. But an amending Act adopted in the Second Session of the British Columbian Legislature in 1921 amended the final Section in such a way as to bring the Act into operation on 1 January 1922. This Act covers all the provisions of the Convention except that requiring sufficient benefits to be paid to a woman while absent from work at the time of her confinement⁽¹¹¹⁾.

The Washington Conventions concerning the night work of women and of young persons are also embodied in British Columbian legislation of 1921⁽¹¹²⁾; but these laws also do not come into operation until adopted likewise in other Provinces.

Ontario. The minimum age for the employment of children in shops has been raised from 12 to 14 by an amendment to the Factory, Shop and Office Building Act⁽¹¹³⁾. The only shops excluded from this provision are those where only members of the employer's own family living in a house attached to the shop are employed. The same amending Act adds to the Section of the older law respecting the provision of seats for shop assistants a paragraph requiring chairs or seats to be provided for the women and girls employed in factories or offices in all cases where the inspector is of opinion that their work can be efficiently performed while they are seated.

Hours of Work

British Columbia. An 8-hour day law⁽¹¹⁴⁾ on the lines of the Washington Convention was adopted in British Columbia in 1921. But it is not of any practical importance as yet, since it is so framed that it will not come into operation until similar legislation is enacted in the other Provinces of the Dominion.

Manitoba. A permissive Act amending the Shops Regulations Act⁽¹¹⁵⁾ allows municipal councils to issue by-laws in prescribed terms exempting confectioners', fruiterers', and tobacconists' shops, news-agents, hotels, and refreshment houses from the provisions of the Act as regards hours of closing.

Ontario. The Act amending the Factory, Shop, and Office Building Act, to which reference has already been made above under *Employment of Women and Children*, contains a provision requiring a city or town council to issue by-laws for the closing of particular classes of shops on particular days or after stated hours, if an application is made in that sense by not less than three-quarters of the occupiers of shops affected.

⁽¹¹⁰⁾ The Maternity Protection Act; ch. 37 of 1921, First Session, and ch. 31 of 1921, Second Session.

⁽¹¹¹⁾ Article 3 (c) of the Convention.

⁽¹¹²⁾ Chs. 46 and 47 of 1921, First Session.

⁽¹¹³⁾ Ch. 76.

⁽¹¹⁴⁾ Ch. 22 of 1921, First Session.

⁽¹¹⁵⁾ Ch. 180 of the Revised Statutes of Manitoba, 1913.

Yukon Territory. A legal 8-hour day was introduced during 1921 for underground workers in mines⁽¹¹⁹⁾. Exceptions are allowed only in cases of emergency.

Safety

British Columbia. The Coal Mines Regulation Act was amended in 1921 by an Act⁽¹¹⁷⁾ dealing with the use of safety lamps and the watering of dusty mines. The Boiler Inspection Act was also amended in various details during 1921⁽¹¹⁸⁾.

New Brunswick. An Act⁽¹¹⁹⁾ has been adopted setting up a Fire Prevention Board, whose officers may inspect buildings, including factories and "all places in which numbers of persons work", in order to ensure the safety of the persons in them in the event of fire.

Nova Scotia. An Act of Nova Scotia⁽¹²⁰⁾ authorises the Governor-in-Council to issue regulations for the prevention of boiler explosions.

Quebec. An Act of Quebec regulates the installation of electric lighting, heating, or power in buildings, including workshops, factories, and industrial establishments⁽¹²¹⁾. Another Act⁽¹²²⁾ requires builders using scaffolding more than 15 feet high to procure a certificate of its inspection and approval by the municipal inspector of scaffoldings.

Wages

Alberta. In the Province of Alberta provisions respecting the fixing of minimum rates of wages for women and young persons under 18 are contained in Section 26a of the Factories Act⁽¹²³⁾. This Section was amended in 1921 by an Act⁽¹²⁴⁾ which diminished the power of the Advisory Minimum Wage Committee (so that it could only "recommend" but not "determine" the rates of wages to be paid to women workers), and which deprived the Committee of their power to deal with the wages of all persons, male as well as female, under 18.

British Columbia. The Minimum Wage Act was amended during 1921⁽¹²⁵⁾. The amendments deal with the prohibition to employ a woman over 18 at a wage less than that fixed for "experienced" employees unless she is in possession of a licence granted on the ground that she is physically defective or an apprentice or improver, and with the procedure for the issue of licences for these purposes.

Ontario. The Minimum Wage Act of Ontario which set up a Minimum Wage Board empowered to establish minimum rates of wages for women in any trade or calling in the Province has been amended by the addition of two Subsections⁽¹²⁶⁾, allowing the Board upon peti-

⁽¹¹⁶⁾ Ch. 5 of 1921.

⁽¹¹⁷⁾ Ch. 39 of 1921, First Session.

⁽¹¹⁸⁾ Ch. 4 of 1921, Second Session.

⁽¹¹⁹⁾ The Fire Prevention Act 1921, ch. 10.

⁽¹²⁰⁾ The Steam Boilers Inspection Act 1921, Ch. 10.

⁽¹²¹⁾ Forming §§ 3789a-3789z of the Revised Statutes 1909, ch. 75 of 1921.

⁽¹²²⁾ Ch. 76 of 1921, replacing §§ 3790-3796 of the Revised Statutes 1909.

⁽¹²³⁾ Statutes of 1917, ch. 20. Section 260, which provides for the establishment of a Minimum Wage Committee, was inserted by ch. 40 of the Statutes of 1920.

⁽¹²⁴⁾ Ch. 41 of 1921. The position has been changed again by an Act of 1922.

⁽¹²⁵⁾ Ch. 40 of 1921, First Session.

⁽¹²⁶⁾ The Minimum Wage Amendment Act 1921, ch. 40. This Act has been further amended in 1922, by an Act allowing the Board to fix hours of work, as well as wages.

tion of either employers or workers concerned or of its own motion to suspend or vary or revise any of its orders in accordance with changed conditions in any industry, and empowering it to make different orders for the same industry in different localities. The Factory, Shops, and Office Building Amendment Act already referred to under *Employment of Women and Children* also affects the Minimum Wage law by requiring the inspectors of factories and shops to report any violations of the provision requiring the Board's orders to be posted up in workplaces.

Yukon Territory. An Act of 1921⁽¹²⁷⁾ requires all wages earned in mining operations to be paid monthly not later than the fifteenth day of the month following that for which they are due. If a person ceases to be employed he must be paid all wages due to him immediately.

Conciliation and Arbitration

Quebec. The Municipal Strike and Lock-out Act⁽¹²⁸⁾ prohibits strikes or lock-outs in municipal services before the matter in dispute has been referred to a board of arbitration, consisting of one representative each of the two parties and a chairman chosen by them by agreement or, failing agreement, by the Minister of Public Works and Labour.

Accident Compensation

Alberta. The Workmen's Compensation Act was amended in various respects during 1921⁽¹²⁹⁾. The principal amendments are concerned with the sphere of application of the Act and the amount of compensation. The Act applied to a large number of specified industries, but an employer engaged in an industry not coming under the Act could apply to the Workmen's Compensation Board to have his employees insured against accidents under the Act. This provision has been amended so as to give the workers too the right to apply to the Board for inclusion under the Act. Section 47 of the Act, which enables the Board to commute weekly payments due to an injured worker to a lump sum, has been amended so as to make such commutation dependent upon the consent of the workman or his dependants in case of death or permanent disability, either total or representing a loss of at least 10 per cent. in earning capacity. The rates of monthly compensation for widows and other dependants in the case of fatal accidents have been increased (e.g. from \$30 to \$35 a month in the case where only a widow is left, and similar increases in the allowances for children and in the maximum sums fixed for partial dependants), and a Subsection has been added enabling the Board to allow compensation to an aunt, sister, or other suitable person, acting as foster-mother to a deceased workman's motherless orphans, as if she were the widow. The basis for the payment of compensation in cases of total disability has been altered by repealing Subsections fixing definite sums for this purpose and replacing them by others giving 55 per cent. of the worker's average weekly wage, either permanently or for so long as he is totally disabled. The case of partial disability is dealt with similarly; instead of fixed sums specified rigidly for the loss of particular limbs, the worker now receives 55 per cent. of the

⁽¹²⁷⁾ Ch. 8 of 1921.

⁽¹²⁸⁾ Forming §§ 25200a-25200o of the Revised Statutes 1909; ch. 46 of 1921.

⁽¹²⁹⁾ Ch. 38 of 1921, amending ch. 5 of the Statutes of Alberta 1918.

difference between his past earnings and those which he is able to earn in some suitable employment after the accident. The adoption of this method of assessing compensation as a percentage of wages has resulted in the addition to the provisions respecting the method of computing "average weekly earnings" of a proviso limiting such earnings for the purposes of the Act to \$2,000 per annum. A new Section (54a) meets the case of very low wages by providing that the weekly compensation for total disability shall not fall below \$10, or, if the average earnings are less than that sum, the actual amount of such earnings.

Manitoba. The rates of compensation payable under the Workmen's Compensation Act of Manitoba have also been increased ⁽¹³⁰⁾ potentially by striking out the maximum amounts formerly fixed for the total compensation payable to dependants; the minimum compensation payable in case of permanent total disability has been increased from \$6 to \$15 a week, and this is made an absolute minimum applicable even where it exceeds the actual earnings of the disabled worker. Another amendment protects the worker's rights in the case of sub-contracting, by giving him a claim against the principal if the contractor who was his immediate employer should fail to provide for him. The new Act further allows employers to insure themselves and their dependants under the Act on application to the Workmen's Compensation Board, which administers the accident insurance fund set up by the Act.

III. Mexico: The Labour Code of Puebla

An interesting Labour Code was passed in November 1921 ⁽¹³¹⁾ in the State of Puebla, Mexico, in order to put into effect Article 123 ⁽¹³²⁾ of the Mexican Constitution which requires each State to adopt labour laws on certain specified lines suited to their several local needs. In some respects, however, the Puebla Code does no more than confirm certain principles laid down in the Constitution, without attempting to give them practical effect, notably in so far as concerns the remarkable provision that in every agricultural or commercial undertaking or factory or workshop the workers shall have a right to a share in the profits ⁽¹³³⁾. The Commission of the Puebla Legislature to which the Government's draft Code was submitted for consideration came to the conclusion that the political situation was not such as to make it possible to put this principle into operation at once. But they conceived the idea of devoting the workers' share to the purposes of social insurance, on which subject it appears that a Bill had already been submitted to the State Legislature by the Federal Government. The Code (Title VI, §§ 188-192) consequently merely reaffirms the existing provisions of the Constitution and limits the profit-sharing privilege by two further provisions, the first declaring that the workers' share in the profits shall be assessed in proportion to wages and shall not be less than 10 per cent. of their wages, and the second requiring the workers to devote their share to the purposes of social insurance institu-

⁽¹³⁰⁾ Ch. 83 of 1921, amending ch. 159 of the Statutes of 1920.

⁽¹³¹⁾ *Código de Trabajo*, 14 de noviembre de 1921.

⁽¹³²⁾ *Constitución política de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, que reforma la de 5 de Febrero de 1857*; promulgada el 5 de Febrero de 1917. (Extracts published in the *Bulletin of the International Labour Office* (Bastle), 1918, Vol. XIII, p. 52).

⁽¹³³⁾ Item VI in the list of standards for labour legislation given in Article 123 of the Constitution.

tions which are at the same time declared to be of public utility (*de utilidad pública*). It appears therefore that the plan of compulsory profit-sharing amounts to requiring employers to contribute a sum equivalent to at least 10 per cent. of their wages bill towards the purposes of social insurance, as soon as an Act to establish a system of insurance is adopted. The Code states that a special Act shall be introduced for this purpose, but no date is fixed for its adoption⁽¹³⁴⁾.

Except as regards insurance against sickness and old age, the Code covers practically every side of labour legislation. An introductory Title lays down general principles giving the workers full freedom in the choice of an occupation and the right to receive due remuneration, and prohibits contracts or agreements whereby a man sacrifices his personal liberty; in addition, so-called 'competition' clauses in contracts of work, i.e. clauses preventing an ex-employee from setting up business in competition with a former employer, are entirely debarred by a paragraph rendering illegal any agreement by which a worker renounces temporarily or permanently his right to carry on any particular trade or occupation.

Title I of the Code deals with the contract of work, under which heading are included all provisions relating to the employment of women and young persons, and dealing with agricultural and domestic work, and the employment of public employees, as well as those regulating in general the terms of engagement and dismissal and collective agreements. The provisions affecting women and children in particular follow fairly closely those of the Constitution. Children may not be admitted to any class of work before the age of 12 (§ 22). From 12 to 16 years of age children may not work more than six hours a day, nor at night⁽¹³⁵⁾, nor at work requiring too much exertion or liable to injure their health or morals, nor without a permit from the municipal authorities (§ 23). Night work is prohibited for women workers as well (§ 25). The employer must arrange for any minors whom he employs to attend educational classes (§ 88). A special Chapter regulates contracts of apprenticeship (Chap. VIII, §§ 91-96). The provisions concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth (§§ 85 and 86) differ slightly from those of the Constitution. Under the Code as well as under the Constitution women are excluded from work requiring considerable physical exertion for three months before confinement; but the Code in addition excludes them from all work for three weeks before, and one month after, confinement, whereas the Constitution prescribes only a month's rest after the birth of the child⁽¹³⁶⁾. During the compulsory rest period the woman retains her right to receive her full wages and to the maintenance of her contract of work. Nursing mothers must also be allowed a quarter of an hour every three hours for feeding their infants and a hygienic room must be provided for the purpose.

The employment of young persons under 16 is prohibited on overtime and in any operations specified in the Code as dangerous or unhealthy (§ 81); these are indicated in the following Section (§ 82), covering, roughly speaking, the cleaning of machinery in motion and work at certain specified dangerous machinery involving risk of injury by accident or of industrial poisoning or exposure to injurious gases,

⁽¹³⁴⁾ No further information as to the progress of the Bill has yet reached the International Labour Office.

⁽¹³⁵⁾ This provision is repeated in § 145 in the Chapter on Hours of Work.

⁽¹³⁶⁾ Item V of Article 123 of the Constitution.

vapours, or dust, or exposing the workers to a risk of explosion or fire, or to continual contact with water. Further provisions respecting accident prevention and hygiene are contained in Title IX of the Code (§§ 280-307), which deals with those subjects specifically in relation to conditions of work in general without special reference to women and young persons. This Title lays down in general that all places where work is carried on "collectively" shall be clean and healthy and leaves it to the municipal authorities to draw up more detailed provisions of general application as far as concerns ventilation, lighting, supply of drinking water, prevention of fumes, precautions against fire, and also special regulations for particularly dangerous occupations. In addition, a certain number of specific requirements are laid down in the Code itself, dealing with the cleaning of floors and walls (§§ 282, 283); the prevention of noxious fumes (§ 284); sanitary accommodation (§ 285); air space, requiring seven cubic metres of air space per worker, or ten cubic metres in certain cases (§ 286); ventilation (§ 287); apparatus for drawing off dust in flour mills and other dusty industries (§ 288); drawing off of heavy gases (ventilation to be downwards) (§ 289); the grinding of irritant and toxic materials in closed apparatus (§ 290); the prohibition of meals in workrooms in unhealthy trades (§ 291); lavatories, soap, towels, etc., and drinking water to be supplied for the workers (§§ 292, 293); the prevention of accidents from machinery (§§ 294, 295); precautions in case of fire and against explosion (§§ 296-302).

The conditions laid down in Title I of the Code for the termination of a contract of work (Chapter X, §§ 122-135) contain one unusual point, namely, the provision that a contract for an indefinite term may be terminated by the worker on giving one month's notice, whereas the employer cannot dismiss a worker without giving at least two months' notice.

The provisions of Title I relating to collective agreements (Chap. IX, §§ 97-121) are intimately connected with those of Title IV respecting the registration of trade unions (§§ 170-177). Trade unions (*Sindicatos*, i.e. both employers' and workers' associations) are only recognised if they have at least 25 members and are registered at the Labour Department in the Capital, or at the municipal offices in other places. Registered trade unions must have rules on certain prescribed lines and they may not have any religious basis. Only organisations so registered may be parties to collective agreements. All such agreements must be in writing and filed at the same offices as those where trade unions are registered, where any person may inspect the files. The underlying principle of a collective contract laid down in the Code seems to be that it is enforceable as a whole by the organisation that concluded it, while individual members concerned may attend or be represented at the proceedings as third parties. But, on the other hand, breaches of the contract by particular workers cannot be laid at the door of the trade union, the employer having to take proceedings against the individual.

Title I contains in addition special chapters dealing with agricultural labour (Chap. III, §§ 44-62); domestic service (in which servants are divided into two classes, those in private houses and those in hotels, restaurants, and other public places) (Chap. IV, §§ 63-72); and salaried employees (both in private service and in the public services) (Chaps. V and VI, §§ 73-80).

The maximum working day and minimum wage are dealt with together in Title II of the Code (§§ 136-157). The ordinary legal work-

ing day is fixed at 8 hours (§ 136). In the first place, in extraordinary circumstances by mutual agreement, and in the second place, in case of accident involving danger or serious loss, the legal day may be increased by not more than 3 hours on three consecutive days, and provided that (in the second case named) "there shall be paid one hundred per cent. of the remuneration in normal hours" (§ 143)⁽¹²⁷⁾. No rule is laid down for the remuneration of night work. But if night work is at the same time overtime, it must be paid for at least at the rate for overtime by day, unless the industry requires night work from its very nature, when the rate of pay need only be 50 per cent. above the day rate. One day's rest must be granted for every six days' work.

The provisions relating to wages are interesting, but depend upon future legislation for their full operation. Although the principle is laid down that the amount of the wage shall be freely determined by the parties, yet workers cannot contract to work for a wage less than that fixed by the Central Council of Conciliation and Arbitration (§ 148). The minimum wage is to be such as suffices, in view of local conditions, to satisfy the "normal requirements of the life of a worker considered as head of a family". Special committees (*comisiones especiales*) are to be set up in each municipality to fix the local minimum wage in accordance with a special Act on the subject. If the workers are paid by measure or weight they have the right to arrange for the checking of the measuring or weighing operations. Wages must be paid in cash and no deductions are allowed (§§ 153, 155). A section of the Chapter on Women and Young Persons (Chap. VII of Title I, § 87) may be mentioned in this connection, which prohibits the payment to women or young persons, only because of their sex or age, of a wage less than that paid to adult men for equal work.

Title III of the Code (§§ 158-169) requires works regulations (*reglamento de talleres*) to be drawn up in every undertaking (industrial, commercial, agricultural, labour camps) by a joint committee consisting of three representatives of the employer and three of the workers, nominated by their organisation if they are organised, and otherwise elected (§ 158). The regulations must be approved and registered by the Labour Department and posted up on the premises.

Strikes and lock-outs are the subjects of Title V of the Code (§§ 178-187), which defines the objects for which the strike may be used (to compel the employer to observe the contract of work, to procure improvements in the contract, to secure the observance of the provisions of the Code and of the awards of the Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, and in support of another lawful strike); on the other hand, lock-out (*paros*) are lawful exclusively in cases of overproduction, and then only after procuring the consent of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration (§ 187). Strikes may only take place after previously notifying the Department of Labour or the President of the Municipality, and in the case of public utilities at least ten days' notice must be given (§ 184).

The adjustment of trade disputes is dealt with in Chapter II

⁽¹²⁷⁾ *En estos casos, se abonará el ciento por ciento del abonado en las horas normales.* It is not clear from the text whether it is intended that overtime shall be absolutely restricted to the circumstances named in § 143, since another section (§ 140) implies that overtime may be freely worked if it is remunerated at double the ordinary rate of wage (. . . *se cuotizará con el ciento por ciento sobre el precio del que quede dentro de la jornada maxima*).

(§§ 246-279) of Title VIII, Chapter I of which (§§ 230-245) is concerned with the establishment of a Department of Labour (*Sección del Trabajo y Previsión social*), which includes the labour inspection service, and also the Central Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. As well as the Central Board, special Boards are contemplated for various purposes. A permanent board of conciliation must, for instance, be set up in every undertaking in which at least 25 persons are employed (§ 250).

Title VII of the Code is the Workmen's Compensation law. It requires employers to pay compensation to their workers for all accidents arising out of, or in the course of, their work, and also for occupational diseases. These are not specified. Compensation is payable for any injury to health caused by the work. The law applies to agriculture and forestry where machinery is used, as well as to all industrial and transport undertakings, mines, theatres, cinemas, etc. For temporary total disablement the compensation includes medical treatment and the whole wage for not more than six months. In case of permanent partial incapacity one year's wages is payable, in case of total permanent incapacity for the worker's usual work, eighteen months' wages, and in case of total permanent incapacity for all work, two years' wages. The maximum sum payable to dependants in case of death is two years' wages. Insurance is not compulsory, but employers may insure in companies approved by the Department of Labour.

The final Title of the Code contains a miscellaneous collection of provisions dealing, for instance, with mining and the prohibition of truck shops and requiring the employer in up-country labour centres to provide ground-space for public buildings, shops, and other requirements of social life, and, on the other hand, prohibiting all places for the consumption of intoxicating drinks and gambling in such centres.



GOVERNMENT REPORTS

FACTORY INSPECTION IN THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1921 ⁽¹⁾

OWING to the reorganisation of the British factory inspectorate which took place in 1921, and the consequent readjustment of districts necessitating the compilation of new registers of establishments, somewhat less inspection work was undertaken by the staff in 1921 than in 1920 (p. 9). The staff was numerically weaker than in previous years; the number of posts authorised was reduced from 235 to 211, and even on this lower number there were twenty vacancies yet to be filled at the end of the year (p. 7). Further, owing to the increasing number of Regulations and Orders calling for supervision, visits of inspection tend to require more and more time (p. 9). In the course of 1921 several new Orders came into operation—Welfare Orders for the glass-bevelling and hollow-ware and galvanising trades ⁽²⁾, and Orders ⁽³⁾ under the Women and Young Persons (Employment in Lead Processes) Act of 1920 ⁽⁴⁾, in addition to Regulations for the manufacture of lead compounds ⁽⁵⁾ and of celluloid ⁽⁶⁾ (p. 10). Special enquiries were made in various trades by the Engineering Branches of Inspectorate, in preparation for these Orders and others to be issued later (pp. 8-9).

Workshops under inspection tend to decline in numbers, and factories to increase. In 1921 there were 142,749 factories and 156,123 workshops on the register, as compared with 140,064 and 161,067 in 1920 (p. 114). Among these 95,460 establishments or departments were under special regulations (p. 120). Fewer visits of inspection were effected than in 1920—331,578 to factories and workshops under the Factory Acts, and 20,822 to places not under the Acts, as against 347,301 and 22,779 in 1920 (p. 131). Detailed statistics of contraventions observed and notices issued are not available for 1921, owing to the change of areas; but the total number of prosecutions is stated—573, as against 1,081 in the previous year, half of them relating to the employment of children and young persons (pp. 9-10, 117-119). The decline in the number of prosecutions is attributed to the general restriction of industrial activities consequent upon trade depression (p. 10).

As in 1920, the regulation of hours of work gave rise to few difficulties. One-third of the prosecutions dealt with this matter, but most of the cases related to the employment of young persons and children (p. 117). In general, hours of work were found to be far below the

⁽¹⁾ UNITED KINGDOM, HOME OFFICE: *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year 1921* (Cmd 1705); 131 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1922. 3s.

⁽²⁾ INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1921, Part II (G. B. 3).

⁽³⁾ Ibid. (G. B. 4).

⁽⁴⁾ Ibid. 1920 (G. B. 10).

⁽⁵⁾ Ibid. 1921 (G. B. 6).

⁽⁶⁾ Ibid. Part II (G. B. 5). Regulations were also made for the manufacture of aerated waters and the handling of hides and skins, but these did not come into operation until 1922. They are published in the *Legislative Series*, 1921, Part II (G. B. 5). See p. 672.

legal limit ; they were usually 48 a week or less, partly on account of slackness of trade, but partly also owing to the decided preference of most workers for a normal day not exceeding 8 hours. Night work was less frequent, except in bakeries ; the five-day week was found to be common among Jews, and gaining popularity among other workers (p. 83). The one-break day was also met with very frequently ; but difficulties were encountered in connection with the simultaneous mealtime required for all protected persons, especially in very large establishments, where sufficient canteen accommodation could not be provided for all the workers at once (p. 84).

Overtime was very rare, on account of trade depression, but some bad cases were met with, e.g. in a woollen mill women and young persons were habitually employed for 12½ hours a day, and in a country dairy women were employed for 70 hours a week during several weeks in succession. Mealtime work is still met with in the textile trades, usually owing to the workers' disregard of the law and the managers' indifference (p. 85). The two-shift system for women and young persons (?) is not being widely adopted, owing to slackness of trade ; but 145 orders authorising it were issued to different firms in 1921 (p. 14). Employers generally find the system economical ; the workers are divided in their preference. It has not been found to upset home arrangements in general, having been adopted mostly in areas already accustomed to a three-shift system for the men of the family. Some of the men's unions objected to the two-shift system on home welfare grounds ; but they offered at the same time to make up a night shift of men instead, if trade necessitated it—which, as the reporting inspector remarks, would presumably derange home affairs also (pp. 86-89).

The apparent improvement in safety conditions—only 92,565 accidents, including 951 fatalities, against 138,702 accidents and 1,404 deaths in 1920 (pp. 122-130)—is attributed by the inspectors almost entirely to the general industrial depression and to the closing down in the iron and steel trades (which have a high accident rate) during the coal strike. Nearly one-eighth of the accidents in 1921 occurred in shipbuilding, and one-fifteenth in the textile trades. In both the textile and the non-textile trades between 39 per cent and 40 per cent. of the accidents were due to persons falling or being struck by falling objects, while deaths due to these two causes were 68.8 per cent. and 72.2 per cent. of the total number of deaths by accident in the textile and non-textile trades respectively (p. 15).

Accidents due to particular types of machinery have been analysed in detail (textile, p. 130 ; laundries, p. 16 ; rubber-mixing rolls, p. 19). In laundries accidents are said to be caused in many cases by cleaning running machinery. Rubber-mixing rolls and dough mixers and dough brakes present special difficulties, as effective guards are apt to hinder the operation of the machine, but apparently satisfactory patterns have lately been devised (pp. 19, 25-27). An examination of the 301 accidents on power-presses during the year reveals the fact that only four accidents occurred where the press had a suitable guard and was handled in accordance with the Regulations (p. 24). Grinding was specially investigated, and it was noted that exhaust hoods, if made large and strong enough, would serve also to prevent the flying of fragments of burst grindstones. The need for regulating

(?) Under Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Act, 1920. *Legislative Series*, 1920 (G. B. 9).

the speed of stones according to their size was also commented upon (pp. 27-28). As for cranes and hoists, formerly responsible for many accidents, employers tend to insure them, and so to procure their periodical inspection, while electrical anti-overwinding devices are being used more frequently (pp. 28-30).

Safety committees increased in number during 1921, especially in the heavy iron and steel trades and in shipbuilding. Employers' associations have latterly taken up insurance of their members for workmen's compensation, which gives them a direct interest in accident prevention (pp. 20-21). The standardising of safety measures by agreement is progressing; in 1921 an agreement was concluded in the Sheffield area respecting guards for rolling mills, and joint conferences were in progress or being planned at the date of the *Report* in respect of the fencing of woollen and worsted machinery and the guarding of bakery appliances (p. 8). Fencing of self-acting mules in cotton mills was reported to be good in Yorkshire, but poor in East Lancashire (p. 38).

At the docks conditions were improved, though gangways from ships to the shore were not always properly fenced. The British rule is to fence gangways on both sides, whereas a rail on one side is sufficient for the ports of registry of some of the foreign vessels which frequent British ports (p. 34). The fencing of cranks, cogs, etc. of winches is also less satisfactory on foreign vessels than on British ones. Less trouble has been experienced in respect of the fencing of hatchways, except in the Western Division, where lower-deck hatches are often unguarded (p. 37). In shipyards the main defects encountered were inadequately fenced gangways at Southampton, and unfenced openings in decks and lack of regular arrangements for internal inspection in the Clyde district (pp. 46-47).

In connection with the generation and use of electricity, there were 322 accidents, of which 12 were fatal, compared with 403 and 24 in 1920. The decline is attributed partly to slackness of trade. Four new electrical inspectors were appointed in 1921, in pursuance of a promise made before the war; this branch of the inspectorate deals with over 600 electricity supply undertakings (with all their central stations and sub-stations), and about 70,000 works using electricity. The Senior Inspector, in his notes for the year, surveys the progress made during the twenty years since the first appointment of an electrical inspector (pp. 50-54).

Regulations were adopted in 1921 for four dangerous trades—the manufacture of lead compounds^(*), the bottling of aerated waters^(*), the handling of hides and skins⁽¹⁰⁾, and the celluloid industry⁽¹⁰⁾. The first three sets of Regulations replaced similar provisions contained in Special Rules. Only the lead and the celluloid Regulations came into operation during 1921. Prosecutions for breaches of Special Rules and Regulations were instituted in 66 cases during the year—36 in connection with docks and shipyard work and 17 in potteries (pp. 33, 119). Occupational poisoning was reported in 318 cases, of which 32 were fatal, as against 476 and 38 in 1920 (p. 121). In spite of trade depression, cases of plumbism were fairly numerous—230 cases, including 23 deaths. The electric accumulator industry was extremely slack, but produced 35 cases of lead poisoning as against

(*) *Legislative Series*, 1921 (G. B. 6).

(*) *Ibid.* Part II (G. B. 5).

(10) *Ibid.* Part II (G. B. 5).

47 in the previous year ; a special enquiry has therefore been set on foot (p. 35). Some cases of lead poisoning and of brass-founder's ague were met with in shipyards in connection with the cutting by oxy-acetylene flames of steel (lead-painted) and galvanised plates of old battleships (pp. 69-70). In the heading of yarns, it was found at one works that the ordinary exhausts were inadequate for certain very heavily leaded yarns, so that several workers were affected (p. 41). Far fewer cases occurred in the hollow-ware tinning trade, as the process of "common tinning" is being replaced by pure tinning now that the difference in cost is no longer substantial (p. 43). In connection with the manufacture of lead compounds, an instance is noted of the performance of every operation by machinery from the first washing of the corrosions to the packing of the finished compound in casks (p. 48). In potteries it was found that low solubility glazes were being substituted for leadless glazes, owing to their smaller risk of loss in firing ; while two firms have succeeded in making Rockingham ware with low solubility glaze instead of the large quantities of lead formerly used (p. 44). Various breaches of Regulations were met with ; in the Derby area many girls under 16 were employed as clay carriers, often lifting excessive loads, while the requirement for internal inspection was generally disregarded even in establishments where installations and rules of employment were good (pp. 45-46).

Anthrax cases were far fewer than in 1920—25 as against 48. The decline is attributed at least in part to the work of the disinfecting station at Liverpool, which was opened in April (p. 72). Moreover, less horsehair was imported from China, Siberia, and Russia during the year. It is noted that it is often difficult to trace the real origin of horsehair ; in one works, where excellent arrangements were made for disinfecting hair from scheduled areas, a fatal case of anthrax occurred owing to the handling without special precautions of a batch of hair supplied as American (and therefore presumably safe), which was found too late to be Russian (pp. 41-42).

Gassing was as frequent in 1921 as in 1920, and there were more cases of carbon monoxide poisoning. It is noted that the common method of treating carbon monoxide poisoning by walking the patient up and down is apt to do serious harm, since it is rest and warmth that are necessary in such cases (p. 73). A special enquiry was made in anilin black dyeing works to ascertain the extent of poisoning by anilin vapour and of chrome ulceration. It was found that 35 hours a week was the maximum period of employment in contact with anilin which was compatible with health, no matter what precautions were taken. In only six of the 23 works visited was there any regular inspection of the workers' hands for chrome ulcers, and only six works had lavatory basins with hot water laid on (pp. 74-77). Only 29 cases of chrome ulceration were notified in 1921 as against 126 in 1920 ; this was partly due to slack trade, partly to the greater care taken by workers and employers, and partly to greater ability to distinguish between real cases of chrome ulceration and other types of occupational eczema (pp. 77-79).

In the year under report the first case of tobacco amblyopia known in the United Kingdom was met with (p. 82).

During the year the certifying surgeons examined 228,656 young persons (little over half the 1920 number), and rejected 9,118, while a further 6,571 were certified only conditionally (pp. 10, 80, 115). Medical examinations under Regulations for Dangerous Trades were effected

in 175,735 cases, and 311 workers were suspended (pp. 10, 116). The Senior Medical Inspector remarks that uniformity of practice among certifying surgeons has not yet been attained (p. 81).

In the chapter on health and sanitation (pp. 55-61) some progress is noted, though defects are mentioned in London, Glasgow, and Stirling bakehouses. Attention is drawn to the variation in local authorities' standards for sanitary accommodation. It is observed that lighting is sometimes inadequate, especially at dangerous spots such as lift landings, while windows are not cleaned often enough. Welfare work (pp. 62-65) has progressed in spite of industrial depression, but it is suggested that the workers need educating into appreciation and co-operation. In this connection we may note a special psychological difficulty observed by the Senior Engineering Inspector in the heading of yarn—workers in this trade were found eating in the workrooms in some cases, in spite of the danger of lead poisoning, because they did not like taking their meals in the conditions of publicity of the messroom table (p. 41).

A special enquiry into conditions in underground workrooms in London was made by a man and a woman inspector with the assistance of a medical inspector (pp. 95-107). Ventilation and lighting were the chief difficulties in these workrooms; dampness was infrequent. The glass industry was also specially studied (pp. 108-113), particularly the mixing process, where there is risk of plumbism. It is noted that extremely long employment—40 to 60 years—is the rule in the glass industry, practically no one leaving it after having completed his apprenticeship.

A chapter of the *Report* is devoted to truck, which is said to be dying out in general, though the charge for cotton, needles, etc. is reappearing in East London now that cotton is so dear. Notices displaying long and illegal lists of fines and deductions are sometimes met with, but found to be out of date and never enforced. Deductions for damaged work present the one serious problem under this head (pp. 90-94).

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION IN ONTARIO 1921 ⁽¹⁾

The Workmen's Compensation Board of the Province of Ontario has recently published its report for the year 1921, the seventh year of its existence. The Ontario Workmen's Compensation Act was the first of its kind in Canada and also the most liberal in benefits. When the Act was passed in 1914, the compensation provided for workmen was 55 per cent. of the loss of earning capacity, and no provision was made for medical aid. By 1920 various amendments had raised the compensation to 66½ per cent. and provided for all medical aid, necessary.

The Act differs from the compensation laws of most of the United States in making the employers in various classes of industry collectively, and not individually, liable for payment of benefits, though certain employers, such as railway and navigation companies, municipalities, etc. are upon the individual liability basis. The collective-liability system with state insurance is far less costly than the individual liability system with private insurance. In Ontario only

⁽¹⁾ PROVINCE OF ONTARIO: *Report of 1921 of the Workmen's Compensation Board*, pp. 78. Toronto, Clarkson W. James. 1922.

two cents out of every dollar paid by the employer are absorbed in administration expenses. The amount added to accident cost for the expenses and profits of private assurance is usually between 40 and 60 per cent. In order to encourage accident prevention, those employers in whose establishments relatively few accidents occur enjoy the benefit of a refund of a portion of their premium, while employers with a bad accident experience must pay additional charges.

During the seven years' operation of the Act there were 271,807 accidents, of which 2,784 were fatal, and nearly 28 million dollars were awarded in compensation and medical aid expenses. More than 100,000 persons, including workmen's families, are every year in receipt of benefits. The average cost rate to employers of the benefits provided was about \$1.12 per \$100 of pay-roll.

The total number of accidents reported during the year 1921 was 45,191, as against 54,851 in 1920, and 44,260 in 1919. The fatal accidents numbered 386, as against 452 in 1920, and 429 in 1919. The total number of workmen covered by insurance in 1921 was about 450,000. Thus there was in 1921 one accident for every ten workmen. In 1920 less than 1 per cent. of all accidents resulted in death; 6 per cent. in some degree of permanent disability; 56 per cent. are temporary disability cases involving compensation; and 37 per cent. involved medical aid but no compensation, as they did not disable the workman for more than seven days. Nearly half the total cost of accidents was chargeable to those which involved permanent disability, while 15 per cent. of the total cost was for medical aid. Of 40,997 accidents tabulated 27 per cent. were ascribable to machinery and about the same proportion to handling objects, loading, carrying, piling, etc.

The methods of calculating accident frequency rates, measuring degree of disability, and classifying industries unfortunately do not correspond with those recommended by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. For example, Class 5 in the Ontario grouping of the industries includes Schedule 2 and part of Schedule 25 of the standard classification, and Class 6 for Ontario comprises Schedules 4 and 24 and part of Schedule 23⁽²⁾.

(2) UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Report of Committee on Statistics and Compensation Insurance Cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions*; Bulletin No. 201. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1916. Also *Standardisation of Industrial Accident Statistics: Reports of the Committee on Statistics and Compensation Insurance Cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, 1915-1919*; Bulletin No. 276. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1920.

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Book Notes

INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

INTERNATIONAL ECONOMIC CONFERENCE OF GENOA : *Decisions contained in the Verbatim Record of the Third Plenary Session.* 80 pp. Rome, Stabilimento poligrafica per l'amministrazione della guerra.

Besides the verbatim record of the Third Plenary Session, this publication contains four appendices, dealing with the financial and transport resolutions, the economic recommendations, and the report on verification of credentials. The recommendations relating to labour are given on pp. 73-74.

Congrès international d'éducation morale (troisième), Genève, 28 juillet-1^{er} août 1922. Rapports et mémoires. 2 Vols., 186 and 217 pp. Geneva, Office of the Congress, Institut J. J. Rousseau. 1922.

This publication is a reprint of thirty reports relating to methods of education and teaching. Frequent references are made to the League of Nations, and one of the later reports advocates the creation of an International Office of Education under the auspices of the International Labour Office.

FÉDÉRATION INTERNATIONALE DES TRAVAILLEURS DE LA TERRE : *Rapport de la Fédération internationale des travailleurs de la terre sur la période du 17 août 1920 au 31 décembre 1921.* 11 pp. Utrecht, the International Secretariat. 1922.

Report of the International Landworkers' Federation for the period 17 August 1920 to 31 December 1921.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURE, BUREAU OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL INTELLIGENCE : *Les Landschaften et leurs opérations de crédit hypothécaire en Allemagne (1770-1920).* By TCHERKINSKY. 94 pp. Rome. 1922. 3 francs.

A study of the history of rural credits in Germany.

UNION INTERNATIONALE DES ASSOCIATIONS POUR LA SOCIÉTÉ DES NATIONS : *Sixième conférence, Prague, 4-7 juin 1922.* By AHMED IHSAN Bey. 40 pp. 1922.

A report by the Turkish delegate of the recent conference at Prague of the International Union of League of Nations Societies.

OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

BELGIUM

HAINAUT, COMMISSION PROVINCIALE DES LOISIRS OUVRIERS : *Une année d'organisation et d'initiative — mai 1921 à mai 1922. Assemblée plénière du 28 mai 1922, rapport général.* By Permanent Deputy Paul PASTUR. Publication No. 4. 155 pp. Haine-Saint-Pierre, Secrétariat général des Loisirs ouvriers. 1.75 francs.

The Workers' Leisure Committee for the province of Hainaut is divided into seven sections, which deal respectively with housing, gardens and allotments, poultry and rabbit-keeping, general education, physical culture, art training, and moral education. Mr. Pastur's report describes what has been accomplished in these different fields in the course of the year 1921-1922. The activity of the sections has shown itself in the organisation of a large number of competitions (the programmes of which are given in full), exhibitions, visits to places of interest, lectures, in the provision of grants, and by the distribution of leaflets for propaganda and education purposes. The committee's financial statement for 1922 is given in an appendix.

CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Exposé sommaire des Travaux législatifs de l'Assemblée Nationale de la République Tchécoslovaque. Session d'Automne 1921-1922. 46 pp. Prague, publ. by the National Assembly.

This publication contains summaries of the most important Acts adopted by the National Assembly of Czechoslovakia during the autumn session 1921-1922.

FRANCE

CONSEIL GÉNÉRAL DE LA SEINE 1922 : *Rapport relatif au fonctionnement de l'Office départemental du placement et de la statistique du travail et à l'organisation des secours de chômage dans le département de la Seine pendant les années 1920 et 1921.* Presented by Messrs. Henri SELLIER and Emile DESLANDRES, General Councillors. 574 pp. Paris. 1922.

This voluminous report contains detailed information of the highest interest concerning the employment office of the Department of the Seine. This is one of the greatest local employment exchange services in the world, and is especially remarkable on account of its subdivision into numerous independent sections, each dealing with a particular trade and working under the supervision of representatives of employers and workers in that trade. A large number of tables contain very complete documentary material on the organisation of the public employment exchange service in France.

TUNIS

DIRECTION GÉNÉRALE DE L'AGRICULTURE, DU COMMERCE ET DE LA COLONISATION ; DIRECTION DU COMMERCE ET DU TRAVAIL : *Textes législatifs et réglementaires concernant le repos hebdomadaire.* Tunis, Imp. Centrale (G. Guinle). 1922.

— : *Textes législatifs et réglementaires concernant les accidents du travail en Tunisie.* Tunis, Guenard and Franchi. 1922.

These are official collections of the Acts and orders on weekly rest and compensation for accidents in operation in Tunis in 1922.

GERMANY

REICHSAMT FÜR ARBEITSVERMITTLUNG: *Jahrbuch der Berufverbände im Deutschen Reiche. Jahrgang 1922*; being the Twenty-fifth Supplement of the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt. 40+127 pp. Berlin, Hobbing. 1922. 160 marks.

By an Order dated 25 May 1921 a Federal Employment Office was set up to watch the progress of employers' and workers' organisations and to provide statistics. The information obtained by the Office has been collected into a year book published as a supplement to the *Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*. A new feature in the 1922 issue is the inclusion of a special article treating of the development of these bodies (pp. 1-40). The scope of the work has also been widened, especially in regard to employers' associations and joint industrial associations, while a larger variety of types of organisations are noticed; the liberal professions, for instance, now find a place for the first time. A list of trade union and trade journals has been added. The editors state that they have endeavoured to make the year book not only scientifically exact, but also practically useful. They therefore make a special request for notice of all changes of address.

GREAT BRITAIN

HOME OFFICE: *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year 1921*. Cmd. 1705. 131 pp. London, H.M. Stationery Office. 1922. 3s. 0d.

This report is analysed in detail under the heading *Government Reports*.

INDIA

BUREAU OF EDUCATION: *Education at Jamshedpur*. Pamphlet No. 11. By G. E. FAWCUS and M. D. MADAN. 10 pp. Calcutta, Superintendent Government Printing. 1921. 1 anna.

This pamphlet describes the educational work carried on by the Tata Iron and Steel Company on their Jamshedpur estate, which, lying in the Province of Bihar and Orissa, is about 25 square miles in extent and has a population of at least 71,000. The schools established are mainly for children employed in the works or children of employees of the Company, though a few others are admitted. They include a secondary school, two upper primary schools for girls, a technical school, a small English-speaking school, and eleven primary schools. In addition, there is an evening technical school for apprentices in the steel works, a commercial school, and a new technical school with a three years' course for foremen. Attendance at all these is voluntary, and small fees are charged, except in nine of the primary schools, which, unlike the others, are not run directly by the Company. In the year 1920-1921 the Company spent 5,307 rupees on capital expenditure and 52,100 rupees on recurring expenditure, towards which a government grant of 7,200 rupees was made. With the addition of the new technical school the recurring expenditure for the year 1921-1922 was expected to exceed 65,000 rupees. The total number of pupils is about 1,350.

LATVIA

MINISTÈRE DES AFFAIRES ÉTRANGÈRES; SERVICE DES INFORMATIONS: *La Lettonie en 1921*. 158 pp. Paris, l'Emancipatrice. 1922.

The object of this small book, which is a sequel to a Bulletin published in the autumn of 1921, is to give information on various points of home policy in Latvia and on the administration and economic and agricultural life of the country. The first pages recapitulate the circumstances which led to the foundation of the Latvian State, and give some general information as to the State itself; there are also a number of statistical tables illustrating the economic situation of the new Republic. The Ministry states that there are very few

unemployed in the towns, that industry is reviving, that strikes have become rare, and that the cost of living is less in Latvia than in many other European states. One of the appendices gives the text of the draft Constitution of the Republic.

LUXEMBURG

BOURSE DE TRAVAIL : *Rapport annuel de la Commission administrative pour les années 1919-1920-1921*. 5+7+7 pp. Luxembourg. 1922.

Annual report of the Administrative Committee of the Labour Exchange for the years 1919, 1920, and 1921.

CHAMBRE DE COMMERCE : *Rapport général sur la situation de l'Industrie et du Commerce pendant l'année 1921*. 64 pp. Luxembourg, impr. de la cour Victor Buck. 1922.

This report gives a general survey of economic conditions in Luxembourg during 1921, together with separate surveys for the most important branches of industry. Statistics covering a series of years are given as to the numbers of workers, total production, value and average prices of the products, for various industries, while graphical representations are included. Consideration is also paid to the state of employment and movements of wages during the year, while social insurance against accidents, sickness, invalidity, and old age are treated statistically for the period 1911 to 1921.

SWEDEN

KUNGL. SOCIALSTYRELSEN: *Kollektivavtal i Sverige år 1921*. ix+17 pp. Stockholm. 1922.

The annual report of the Swedish Social Board (*Socialstyrelsen*) on the collective agreements entered into during 1921 shows that the number of agreements concluded during that year was 800, affecting about 4,500 employers and 185,000 workers, and that the number of agreements in force at the end of the year was 1,876, covering 348,675 workers. This means a rather considerable decrease in comparison with the end of 1920, when the number of collective agreements in force was 2,256 and the number of workers affected 424,366 (1).

Out of the 800 agreements entered into during 1921, 500 were concluded with organised and 300 with unorganised employers. For the workers the corresponding figures were 799 and 1 respectively. Again, 20 agreements covering 72,530 workers were national. As regards the duration of agreements, 762 were concluded for a period not exceeding one year, 25 for from one to two years, and in 13 there was no provision on the point. A summary written in French gives the more important data concerning the contents of the agreements.

SOCIALDEPARTEMENTET : *Sveriges offentliga utredningar 1922 : 2 Arbetsstatistisk undersökning rörande husbyggnadsverksamheten i Sveriges städer och stadsliknande samhällen*. By Bertil NYSTRÖM. 208 pp. Stockholm, P. A. Nordedt. 1922.

This report on the condition of the building trade workers in the Swedish towns is analysed in detail under the heading *Government Reports*.

(1) In addition to the issue of annual reports, the Social Board has recently published a general history of collective bargaining in Sweden under the title *Kollektivavtal i Sverige vid årsskiftet 1920-1921*. For a detailed review see *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, p. 295 et seq., under *Government Reports*.

UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE: *Results of a Survey of Elevator Interlocks and an Analysis of Elevator Accident Statistics*. Technologic Papers of the Bureau of Standards. Document No. 202. By C. E. OAKES and J. A. DICKINSON. 30 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office, 17 Oct. 1921. 5 cents.

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR, BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Retail Prices 1913 to December 1920*. Bulletin No. 300. Retail Prices and Cost of Living Series. 217 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. May 1922.

— : *Proceedings of the Eighth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions 1921*. Bulletin No. 304. 254 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

Court administration of workmen's compensation laws and the question as to whether compensation commissions should administer accident prevention laws were two of the most important topics considered at the 1921 meeting of the Association. The practice of Court administration was generally condemned by the meeting, but some difference of opinion was expressed as to whether compensation commissions should administer the accident prevention laws. Speakers opposed to such a course considered the desirability of differentiating administrative from judicial functions, while their opponents brought out the advantages of having both functions under a single head. A number of interesting papers were read and discussions held on accident prevention and safety work and on medical problems. It was pointed out that nearly all workmen's compensation laws are still defective in that they do not apply to farm labourers, to domestic servants, nor to employees in groups of less than five. Out of 48 States 43 have adopted workmen's compensation laws in the last ten years, but there is a great variation both in the form and in the effectiveness of statutes. The Association reiterated its demand for "a uniform Federal Workmen's Compensation Act, applicable to all maritime employment and employees".

— CHILDREN'S BUREAU: *Child Labour and the Work of Mothers in Oyster and Shrimp Canning Communities on the Gulf Coast*. Bureau Publication No. 98. 114 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

This report gives the results of a study of the work of children in canneries, and the conditions of the families in which children or the mothers work. In all, 423 families with 1,350 children under 16 years of age, living in nine communities in Mississippi, Louisiana, and Florida, were investigated. The hours of work, the hazards and discomforts of cannery occupations, the degree of literacy of the children, the extent to which migratory labour is utilised, and the housing of cannery workers are among the more important aspects of the question considered.

— : *Industrial Home Work of Children*. Bureau Publication No. 100. 80 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

This report gives the results of a study made in Providence, Pawtucket, and Central Falls, Rhode Island, in 1918. The Rhode Island Child Labour Law did not apply to work done in homes, nor did the State laws relating to hours of labour and working conditions in general. Information is given concerning the number, sex, age, and nationality of child home workers, their living conditions, the occupations in which they were engaged, conditions of work, and earnings. The social and industrial aspects of home work are discussed at some length.

— : *Children of Wage-earning Mothers*. Bureau Publication No. 102. 92 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

The conclusions set out in this report are based on a study of 843 wage-earning women, the mothers of 2,066 children under 14 years of age, all resident

in Chicago. The study is limited to one aspect of the problem, namely, the effect of the employment of mothers upon the welfare of their children. The care of the children during the mothers' working hours, ill-health and fatigue of the mothers, irregularity of school attendance, and the delinquency record of children are among the points dealt with.

— WOMEN'S BUREAU : *State Laws affecting Working Women* ; Bulletin No. 16. 51 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1921.

This *Bulletin* contains useful tabular summaries and map diagrams showing the state of labour legislation affecting working women in the United States of America.

— — : *Women in Georgia Industries*. Bulletin No. 22. 89 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

This report gives the results of a study of women employed in industry in the State of Georgia conducted during 1920 and 1921. Particular attention is given to hours of work, wages, and working conditions. It is stated that the most striking facts revealed are the long hours of work and the lack of sanitary arrangements or of the general provisions necessary for the welfare of the workers.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, BUREAU OF MINES : *Coal Mine Fatalities in the United States, 1921*. Technical Paper No. 302. By William W. ADAMS. 71 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

— — : *Production of Explosives in the United States during the Calendar Year 1921, with Notes on Mine Accidents due to Explosives*. Technical Paper No. 313. By William W. ADAMS. 25 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES' COMMITTEE ON LABOUR : *Investigation of Wages and Working Conditions in the Coal-Mining Industry*. Parts I and II, 561 pp. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1922.

This report contains the evidence taken between 30 March and 25 April 1922 by the Committee on Labour of the House of Representatives in connection with a Bill to establish a Commission to enquire into labour conditions in the coal industry. Reports of later sittings will doubtless be published in due course. Part I includes the results of an investigation of wages and hours of labour in the bituminous coal fields carried out by the Bureau of Labour Statistics, and the statements of the President of the United Mine Workers and of a representative of the National Coal Association, in addition to a great deal of other evidence. Part II is chiefly occupied with evidence given by the Inter-State Commerce Commission and by representatives of coal operators' and miners' organisations. Part I offers a great mass of statistical information.

MASSACHUSETTS

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR AND INDUSTRIES : *Annual Report 1921*. 108 pp. Boston, Wright and Potter Printing Co. 1922.

This report contains a summary of the work of the Department for the year ending 30 November 1921, together with recommendations for legislation and reports from the Employment Service and Industrial Safety, Industrial Health, and Inspection Divisions.

— : *Report of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration, Year ending 30 November 1921*. 122 pp. Boston, Wright & Potter Printing Co. 1922.

The policy of the Board of Conciliation and Arbitration of Massachusetts is to investigate, so far as possible, all labour controversies arising in the Commonwealth. During the year covered by the *Report* 561 joint applications for arbitration were filed, and 133 awards were rendered. In seventy cases also the Board investigated, or was otherwise in communication with the parties in the rôle of conciliator. The *Report* gives a brief description of the more important cases and the texts of the awards.

— : *Report of the Division of Minimum Wage*. Reprint from the Annual Report of the Department of Labour and Industries for the Year ending 30 November 1921. 34 pp. Boston, Wright and Potter Printing Co. 1922.

The activities of the Minimum Wage Commission during 1921, a year in which the business situation rendered the work of the wage boards exceptionally difficult, are outlined in this pamphlet. The occupations and industries thus far affected by the determinations of the Commission include wholesale and retail millinery, brush industry, canning and preserving, corset, knit goods, confectionery and food preparations, office and other building cleaners, paper box, men's clothing and raincoat manufacture, women's clothing, retail stores, underwear and men's furnishings factories, and laundry work. In the appendices data relating to variations in the cost of living and the minimum wage Orders established in Massachusetts up to 1 July 1922 are supplied in tabular form.

PENNSYLVANIA

BOARD OF LABOUR AND INDUSTRY : *Proceedings of the Industrial Relations Conference, 24-27 October 1921*. 252 pp.

Nine leading topics were discussed at this conference : Industrial Co-operation, as seen from the standpoints of the employer, the employee, the public, and the state ; the Foreign Outlook ; Women and Children in Industry ; Stabilisation of Industry and Employment ; Industrial Waste, particularly unemployment, industrial disputes, accidents and sickness, hiring and discharge, and fire hazards ; Industrial Education ; Industrial Publicity considered in connection with the daily newspaper, the industrial plant magazine, the technical journal, and the trade journal ; Medical Supervision in Industry, calling attention to industrial medical clinics, the work of the doctor and educator in promoting industrial efficiency, the maintenance of community health and the rehabilitation of the industrial cripple ; and Workers' Compensation, showing the progress made, the legislation still needed, and some of the legal technicalities that hamper the work. The conference was preceded by a meeting of the approved boiler inspectors of Pennsylvania to discuss the formation of a State organisation of boiler inspectors.

NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE : *America and the Rehabilitation of Europe*. *The Annals*, Vol. CII, No. 191, July 1922. vi+209 pp. Philadelphia. 1922.

This number of the *Annals* contains papers by thirty-six more or less well-known authorities on financial, commercial, industrial, and political questions, not all of them citizens of the United States, and the problem of American participation in the restoration of Europe is discussed from almost every conceivable point of view, the American, not unnaturally, predominating.

The reader will probably find the greatest interest in a number of able papers on the economic position of Czechoslovakia, Germany, Austria, Great Britain, and Poland, which form Part I (*The Industrial and Financial Situation in Europe and its Remedies*), and in Part III, which discusses the new position

created by the financial operations of the war. Part II, which analyses the extent to which America's prosperity is dependent on the rehabilitation of Europe, appears to be less satisfactory because less objective, and the same may be said of Part IV, which discusses the converse problem of the extent to which the rehabilitation of Europe is dependent upon America.

Russia looms large in these papers. A spokesman for the American Federation of Labour, claiming to represent the American Labour movement, declares that Russia is the principal obstacle to the rehabilitation of Europe. "The Bolshevik régime has made free labour an impossibility in Russia. It has destroyed the trade unions, it has destroyed the co-operative, it has destroyed political parties opposed to the Bolshevik régime." On the other hand, the Executive Secretary of the American Committee for the Relief of Russian Children, formerly Secretary of the Near East Relief Commission, while agreeing that Russia is the chief obstacle, said that "so far as future investments in Russia are concerned, every step which may reasonably be required has already been taken". The Decree of 23 November 1920, he insists, guarantees the property of those holding concessions in Russia against nationalisation, requisition, or confiscation. A special Decree of 1921 he adds, guarantees the fulfilment of lease contracts, which can be set aside only by the courts. Certain laws of 1921 free labour from the requirement to work for the state, "proclaiming the freedom of all workers to choose their own employment and to leave such employment without special authorisation".

Numerous economic and financial programmes for the recovery of Europe are proposed; it is difficult to state which is the most representative of general opinion, and impossible to quote them all. A somewhat interesting view is that presented in the last article of the series by the associate editor of the *New York Globe*: "The United States should offer to join the League of Nations if France and England will. Let no one argue that they are already in; they are not. No major participant has ever taken the League seriously enough to permit it to be five per cent. of what it ought to be."

ARCHBALD, Hugh: *The Four-Hour Day in Coal*. 148 pp. New York. H. W. Wilson Co. 1922.

This book is a "study of the relation between the engineering of the organisation of work and the discontent among the workers in the coal mines", by a mining engineer of twenty years' experience. He analyses the effect of under-employment — the 2½-hour day, the 4-day week, and the 214-day year — on the miners, and points out defects in present methods: how cars should be supplied more regularly to miners; how a more rational system of calculating pay should be worked out; and how records should be kept of the work the miners do. No attempt is made to deal with the broader phases of the problem, such as the question of control or the allocation of blame for present conditions.

ASSOCIATION FINANCIÈRE, INDUSTRIELLE ET COMMERCIALE RUSSE: *Supplément aux mémoires présentés à la Conférence de Gênes sur la débâcle des Soviets et la restauration économique de la Russie*. 64 pp. Paris. 1922.

This publication is a supplement to the report dealing with the economic position in Soviet Russia submitted to the Genoa Conference by the Russian Financial, Industrial, and Commercial Association. It dwells particularly on Russian commercial relations with other countries, and seeks to prove the impossibility of undertaking, with any hope of success, the economic reconstruction of the country under present conditions, quoting, in support of this contention, various extracts and statistics from the Soviet press.

BEARD, Charles A.: *The Economic Basis of Politics*. 99 pp. New York, Knopf. 1922.

In a brief survey of political philosophy from Aristotle to Lenin, the author shows that there is a vital relation between the forms the state assumes and

the distribution of property, and argues that the regulation of the various and interfering interests created by differences in ownership constitutes the principal task of modern statesmen.

BRAUER, Karl : *Die Anpassung der Löhne und Gehälter an die Lebenskosten*. 61 pp. Dresden, Zahn und Jaensch. 1922.

In considering the question of the adjustment of wages and salaries to the cost of living, the writer lays special stress on the importance of employing satisfactory methods of calculating changes in the cost of living, and devotes considerable attention to describing the methods adopted in various countries. With regard to Germany, reference is made to the Jastrow, Calver, Elsas, Kuczinski, and Silbergleit series of index numbers, as well as to the official figures of the Federal Statistical Office and of separate municipal authorities. The general plan adopted in Germany is contrasted with the English system, while outlines of the methods adopted in the United States and in several other countries are given. The employment of index numbers of the cost of living as a basis for sliding scales by means of which wages and salaries are adjusted is then considered with special reference to England and Germany. Finally, the advantages and disadvantages of this method of adjusting wages and salaries are summarised. A short bibliography is added, in which reference is made chiefly to works of German authors dealing with the subject.

BRAUN, Dr. Kurt : *Die Konzentration der Berufsvereine der deutschen Arbeitgeber und Arbeitnehmer und ihre rechtliche Bedeutung*, VIII+118 pp. Berlin, Julius Springer. 1922.

Dr. Braun's purpose is to illustrate the legal influence exercised by the chief federations and organisations of employers and wage earners on the administration and legislation of Germany, and the position occupied in law by these semi-political, semi-economic bodies. The book is more than a dry compilation of theory. It reviews the history of these organisations from their inception, giving a general survey of the work they have effected and describing their activities, both those allowed by law and those merely tolerated.

Such an investigation must necessarily be incomplete, for the necessary information has not yet been written down in Germany. Moreover, the movement is still in the full tide of progress, and it is perhaps premature to pass final judgment on it. At all events, the author has for the first time collected material for studying the problem of centralising German industrial associations of employers and wage earners and the legal significance of the movement. He may, therefore, be said to have contributed towards the legislative solution of this particularly delicate question.

BRODERICK, John T. : *Pulling Together*. 141 pp. Schenectady, N. Y., Robson and Adee. 1922.

This little book is aptly dedicated "to employers and employees alike who help each other and the public to see a soul in industry". It deals with human relations in industry and specially with employee representation. It is cast in the form of a dialogue, in which the chief speaker — a philosopher-employer — tells how he cured diseased industrial relations in his own firm by the panacea of employee representation. The curative potency of employee representation resides in its being a means of enlightening the self-interest of both employer and employee so that they co-operate for their common advantage.

CALVERINI, P. L. : *La Riforma dell' amministrazione dello stato*. 15 July 1922 issue of the Review *Problemi italiani*. 348 pp. Rome.

Public opinion in Italy has long been exercised over the problem of the reorganisation of state administration. Since the end of the war the question has

become one of special gravity ; successive Ministers have sought a definite solution, but, owing to various circumstances, their attempts have been without success. In pursuance of the Act of 13 August 1921, however, an Interparliamentary Committee has been formed with the object of elaborating a scheme of reorganisation. Mr. Calverini criticises in this book the measures already adopted, and sets forth the general principles on which, in his opinion, the necessary reforms should be founded, applying them in theory to the various problems to be solved, and to the different administrative Departments. This study, which fills an entire number of the Review *Problemi italiani*, is interesting from a technical as well as from a political point of view. It is divided into four parts, entitled : Methods of Reform ; Reform of State Administrative Services ; Simplification of State Services ; and Staff Reorganisation.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE : *Economic Development in Denmark*. By Harald WESTERGAARD. 106 pp. Oxford, Clarendon Press. 1922.

The author, after rapidly sketching the social and economic conditions and development of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, traces the rise of the labour movement, the beginning of social insurance, the development and results of social legislation, and the growth of the co-operative movement. He concludes with a review of the changes, economic, social, and fiscal, consequent on the war. The book was completed early in 1919 and has not been brought up to date.

CASTAGNA, Dr. Francesco : *Una polemica sui salari*. 21 pp. Brescia, Federaz. tessile Bresciana. July 1922.

This book contains a reprint of various articles, some published by the author himself, some by his opponents, relating to the question of wages in the silk industry in the province of Brescia, Lombardy. The author considers that the wage rate has but a minor influence on costs of production, and, in support of his opinion, gives a graph of costs of production in relation to wages rates and cost of raw materials.

COMITÉ DES ALLOCATIONS FAMILIALES : *Deuxième congrès national des caisses de compensation tenu à Grenoble (France) le 22 mai 1922. Compte rendu*. 112 pp. Paris. 1922.

Report of the second annual congress of social insurance institutions held at Grenoble on 22 May 1922, issued by the Committee on Family Allowances.

— : *Les Caisses d'allocations familiales et leur Comité central. Organisation et fonctionnement, année 1921-1922*. 35 pp. Paris, 7, rue de Madrid, 1922.

Report on family allowance funds and organisation and working of the Central Committee during 1921-1922.

COMITÉ DE REPRÉSENTANTS DES BANQUES RUSSES A PARIS : *Mémoires élaborés à l'occasion de la Conférence de la Haye, juin 1922, et suppléments aux mémoires présentés à la Conférence de Gènes*. 49 pp. Paris. 1922.

A memorandum compiled at the time of the Hague Conference, June 1922, by the Committee of Representatives of Russian Banks in Paris, together with certain additions to the report submitted to the Genoa Conference. The matter dealt with relates to public finance, credit, and currency in Soviet Russia. Based on information derived from the Soviet press, this book takes the view that the present political régime in Russia foredooms to failure all attempts at economic reconstruction.

Congrès national suisse pour les intérêts féminins (deuxième), Berne, 2-6 octobre 1921. Actes du congrès. 510 pp. Berne, Stämpfli. 1921.

A reprint of fifty reports, some in German, some in French, some in Italian, classified under the six following headings : Woman in the Home ; Domestic

Economy ; Professional Activities of Women ; Woman as Educator ; the Social Rôle of Woman ; Woman in Public Life. These reports furnish a general idea of the progress of the feminist movement in Switzerland, showing at the same time the efforts made with a view to raising the social and economic status of Swiss women.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE OF NEW YORK : *Behind the Scenes in a Hotel*. 47 pp. New York, Consumers' League. 1922.

In 1921 the Consumers' League of New York undertook an investigation into hours, wages, and working and living conditions of women employees in hotels in New York State. Information was obtained not only from interviews with workers and officials of trade unions and employment agencies, but also from the actual experience of investigators who obtained employment in hotels.

The report covers the housekeeping, dining-room, kitchen, and pantry departments. It was found that hours were long and most irregular, that rest days entirely free of work were almost unknown, and that meal times were irregular and inadequate. The question of wages is complicated by the fact that many hotels provide board and lodging for their employees and expect them to supplement their wages by tips. It was shown that the latter are irregular and quite insufficient to raise earnings to a reasonable subsistence level. Living accommodation is overcrowded, uncomfortable, and frequently unhealthy, while the meals provided are usually unattractive, monotonous, and insufficiently nourishing. The amount of standing in a confined atmosphere required, together with the absence of sufficient time or accommodation for rest, makes hotel work most fatiguing and ages women prematurely. Labour turnover is very high.

The Consumers' League, on the basis of the facts ascertained, recommends a special code for the hotel industry, providing for 24 hours' consecutive rest per week, an 8-hour day and 48-hour week, prohibition of the employment of women between midnight and 6 a. m., regular mealtimes, and a minimum rest period of hours between shifts. It also recommends the abolition of tipping and the living-in system, and the establishment of a legal minimum wage. Where living-in is continued, recommendations are made for improving conditions. Hotel managers are advised to establish competent supervision of their employees' living conditions, and to exercise more care in engaging and training workers.

DELEMER, Adolphe : *Le bilan de l'étatisme*. With a preface by Jacques BARDOUX. 285 pp. Paris, Payot. 1922. 10 francs.

After describing the influence of the war on the development of state control of industry in France, the author, with the object of forming an opinion on the value of the system, attempts to estimate, by a process of large-scale accounting, the expenses involved by the war and by the various departments of state activity. He declares that the policy of state control is bankrupt, and warns public opinion against new proposals for decontrol which constitute a merely formal, and not a fundamental, change.

DEVINE, Edward T. : *Social Work*. Social Welfare Library. 352 pp. New York, The Macmillan Company. 1922.

A book both for the general reader and the social worker. After defining the function of social work and tracing briefly its origin and development from the earliest endeavours to solve the problem of poverty, disease, and crime to the efforts of modern society to promote social well-being and progress, Mr. Devine describes the characteristics of American social work, the ideals — religious, social, and political — which have contributed to make it what it is and helped to establish certain differences between American conceptions and methods and those in other countries.

The book falls into four divisions : relief and dependence ; care of the sick, disabled, and defective ; treatment of criminals ; and improvement of living and

working conditions. A chapter is devoted to training for social work.

Touching on the present tendencies and the future of social work in the United States, the author emphasises the need for centralising the work of charitable organisations and for co-operation between church, public, and voluntary agencies. Modern tendencies, he concludes, point towards a fuller appreciation of public responsibility and the ultimate provision by the state of the appropriate protective measures and relief.

EDIE, Lionel D. : *Principles of the New Economics*. 525 pp. New York, Thos. Y. Crowell Co. 1922.

An introduction to economics, intended to integrate the varied developments of recent years in economic thinking, and to relate them to the general body of economic ideas. The psychological and historical viewpoints, and the far-reaching effects on economic processes produced by the industrial applications of modern science receive special attention.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA, COMMISSION ON THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE EDUCATIONAL COMMITTEE: *Christianity and Economic Problems*. 120 pp. New York, Association Press. 1922.

This book is designed to furnish material for a discussion group. It deals briefly, but competently, in the light of the latest economic investigations, with such questions as: "Does modern industry help or hinder the full development of human beings?", "Why is there not enough to go around?", "How can industry be made to produce more goods and better people?", "What changes in control would most benefit industry?" Suggestive questions at the end of each chapter encourage the reader to form his own conclusions.

FÉDÉRATION SUISSE DES EMPLOYÉS DES POSTES : *Deuxième rapport annuel présenté à l'assemblée des délégués de la Fédération suisse des employés des postes sur l'activité de la société pendant l'année 1921*. Issued by the Central Committee at Lausanne. 79 pp. Lausanne. 1922.

Second annual report to the meeting of delegates of the Swiss Federation of Postal Employees on the activities of the organisation during 1921, by the Central Committee at Lausanne.

FETTER, Frank A. : *Modern Economic Problems*. 611 pp. New York, Century Co. 1922.

This is a revised edition of a volume published in 1916, largely rewritten, with facts and figures brought up to date, and some charts added. Current theories on money and prices, banking and insurance, tariffs and taxation, wages and labour, the policy of public authorities towards private industry and private property *versus* Socialism, are briefly stated, and illustrated by apposite economic data drawn for the main part from the United States.

GIDE, Charles : *Les institutions de progrès social*. Fifth edition revised and enlarged. viii+612 pp. Paris, Libr. du recueil Sirey. 1921.

A fifth edition, revised and brought up to date, of Mr. Gide's well known work, in which he reviews the institutions, reforms, and experiments characterising modern social evolution. As in previous editions this study falls into five parts: a long introduction consisting of a general survey, and four chapters dealing with wages, welfare, security of position, and independence of the worker.

GLEASON, Arthur : *Workers' Education ; American Experiments (with a few Foreign Examples)*. Revised edition. 88 pp. New York. Bureau of Industrial Research. 1921. 50 cents.

This survey of some twenty-six experiments in workers' education in the United States has been revised, enlarged, and brought up to date. The preface to the new edition states that it was never intended to be more than a "tentative first word" and that a full study of the field ought to replace it. After preliminary remarks on organisation, objects, method, teachers, and textbooks, the author gives a brief description of the various trade union and other classes and colleges in the United States. This is followed by some account of workers' education in Great Britain, under which the Workers' Educational Association, Ruskin College, the Labour College, and the Plebs League are mentioned, and of Belgian workers' education. The bibliography and directory for the United States and Great Britain as now given are considerably more complete than in the first edition, and will be of value to those beginning the study of adult education.

HANSSON, Sigfrid : *Arbetarrörelsen i Sverige. En historisk, organisationsteknisk och statistisk översikt*. 160 pp. Stockholm, Tidens Förlag. 1922. 1.50 kronor.

This book, the first in a series of booklets which the Labour Publishing Firm "Tiden" has begun to publish, gives a clear and concise survey of the Labour movement in Sweden. The chapter headings are : The Trade Union Movement ; Social Democracy ; The "Young Socialist" Movement ; Syndicalism (the revolutionary trade unionists) ; "Left Socialism" ; Communism ; and the Workers' Educational Movement.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY GRADUATE SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION : *Operating Expenses in Retail Shoe Stores in 1921*. Bulletin No. 31, Bureau of Business Research. 38 pp. Cambridge, Harvard University Press. 1922.

A summary of the cost of doing business in the retail shoe trade compiled from the reports of the principal retail shoe firms in the United States and Canada, and one in Hawaii, and with the assistance of the National Shoe Retailers' Association.

IRISH AGRICULTURAL ORGANISATION SOCIETY : *Report for the Year ending 31 March 1921*. 147 pp. Dublin, I. A. O. S. Printing Department. 1922. 2s. 0d.

Although covering a period of great unrest and even of war conditions, this report is able to show progress in agricultural organisation and increased trade resulting from the Society's operations. The statistics available are incomplete but encouraging, whether in respect of membership or trade turnover, and the report claims that the continued vitality of the co-operative movement in Ireland is assured.

JENKINSON, Hilary : *A Manual of Archive Administration, including the Problems of War Archives and Archive-making*. 243 pp. Oxford, Clarendon Press. 1922.

This is a technical treatise on the collection and care of archives, scrupulous in its detail and definition of terms. Perhaps the most interesting section of the book is that dealing with the function of a registry or filing division within the modern business organisation. "One result of the new methods of doing business common in our time is clearly to make official action in any large office much more personal, to cause a general decentralisation within the office." This naturally results in an "over-production of documents", which in turn

necessitates a large degree of control on the part of those who have charge of the registry or file division. "The duties then of the Central Registry will be something much more than the present ones of registering and distributing the incoming letters and despatching the outgoing. It must control, and control absolutely . . . all matters affecting the accumulation of office papers."

J. F. A. B. : *La Crise*. 186 pp. Les Documents du temps présent, Paris, Stock. 1922. 5 francs.

The first part of this book is an historical exposition in which the author analyses the economic consequences of a long war, taking the American War of Secession as an example, and those of a short war, the Franco-Prussian War of 1870, with a view to pointing lessons which may be usefully applied in a study of contemporaneous problems. The second part deals with the present crisis, more especially from the financial standpoint; in the third palliative and remedial measures are suggested. The arguments advanced are based on a large number of statistics, derived in many instances from documents published by the League of Nations.

JORGENSEN, Emil O. : *Monopoly Crowding Industry to the Wall!* 12 pp. Chicago, Committee of Manufacturers and Merchants on Federal Taxation. 1922.

The author maintains that all the benefits of the cheaper processes that capital and labour have been able to devise have gone, not to the people in lower prices, but to the holders of the earth in higher and higher rental charges. He urges that ground rent must be reduced and that the speculative rise in the value of all land, whether arising out of coal, oil, mineral, timber, water power, whether urban or agricultural, must be stopped by means of taxation.

Shokugyo Shokai Jingyo Gaisei (General Situation of the Work of Employment Exchanges). Compiled by the Central Employment Exchange Office in the *Kyocho Kai* (Association for Harmonious Co-operation between Capital and Labour). 6 maps and diagrams; 111 pp. Tokio. 1922.

This book gives information concerning the work of employment exchanges throughout the country from 1 June 1920, the time when the Central Employment Exchange Office established by the *Kyocho Kai* began to collect information on employment exchanges under the Instruction of the Minister of Home Affairs, until 1 June 1921, when the Employment Exchange Act came into force. This is a unique book, giving exclusive information about the initial development of employment exchanges in Japan.

LAPP, John A. : *Economics and the Community*. 366 pp. New York, Century Co. 1922.

The professed purpose of this book is to give what the citizen needs to know about economics rather than to explore and expound economic theory. As an aid to the concrete understanding of the problems involved, the plan of work provides for a gathering of local economic data preliminary to the study of each chapter. Lists of questions requiring the practical application of the principle explained, together with a number of illustrations, help to make plain the essential part economics play in everyday life.

LAZARD, Max : *La question du chômage*. Lecture read before the Comité national d'études sociales et politiques, January 1922; publication No. 175. 32 pp. Paris, Comité national d'études. 1922.

In this analysis of the causes of unemployment the author distinguishes between the more or less permanent causes corresponding to the normal pre-war economic system and the causes peculiar to the post-war situation. The following causes fall into the former class: unsuitable employment; lack of mobility of labour; fluctuations in consumption resulting in dead seasons;

Acts of God, war, rebellion, etc.; unbusinesslike management; and, finally, periodical crises due to over-production. The following have been added to these causes since the war: under-consumption resulting from the high cost of living; instability of the monetary standard; ill-judged interference by public authorities in the economic life of the individual (taxation of rents causing cessation of building); the sudden change in the purchasing powers of the various classes of the population leading to equally sudden changes in the nature of demand; underproduction in impoverished countries; and, finally, instability of international exchanges.

The author reviews the various remedies for unemployment: vocational training, employment-finding, relief work, systematic distribution of contracts for public works, encouragement of undertakings, and unemployment relief or insurance. He insists especially on what could be accomplished, after a thorough study of the nature of each industry, in the way of stabilising production, by improving the organisation of undertakings so as to adjust production to a more or less regular consumption, on which business arrangements could be based and to the fluctuations of which they could be adjusted.

LEIBROCK, Otto: *Die volkswirtschaftliche Bedeutung der deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände. Erster Teil: Geschichte, Organisation und Aufgaben der Arbeitgeberverbände.* 140 pp. Berlin, Otto Elsner. 1922.

In treatises on social economy little space has hitherto been devoted to the subject of employers' associations. With the exception of the work, published in 1907, under the title of *Deutsche Arbeitgeberverbände* by Professor Kessler, the literature issued is confined to a few relatively unimportant pamphlets. Mr. Leibrock has undertaken to rectify this omission, and to supply data to those who up till now have been chiefly interested in workers' organisations. The various employers' associations in Germany and their aims are briefly reviewed; next, their composition, development, and progress are traced. A discussion follows of their position at law, their value as a directing force, their organisation, their international importance, and, lastly, the duties incumbent on them. A memorandum by the Federation of German Employers' Associations relating to the present period of transition, and a list of the members of this Federation are appended.

LÉVI, Georges: *Précis de législation minière française; France métropolitaine, Colonies et Pays de protectorat.* Preface by Georges FRIEDEL. 148 pp. Nancy-Paris-Strasbourg, Berger-Levrault. 1922.

This book gives a survey of French mining legislation mostly dealing with prospecting rights, mining concessions, and so forth. Chapter XI (pp. 86-104) deals briefly with the labour legislation affecting mines (employment contracts, collective bargains, arbitration, wages, hours, weekly rest, employment of women and children, accidents, old age pensions). Measures respecting the notification of accidents, medical aid, and rescue work in pursuance of a Decree of 1813 and power to issue safety regulations under the Act of 1810 are referred to in chapter VII on the administrative supervision of mining operations.

MACKLIN, Théodore: *Efficient Marketing for Agriculture.* 418 pp. Illustr., 39 tables. New York, the Macmillan Co. 1922.

This book adds one more to the many recently published on the complex economic problems involved in agricultural marketing. It discusses the numerous processes involved in assembling, grading, packing, transporting, storing, financing, and distributing farm products, and presents what the author considers the essentials of success in the business. Co-operative marketing is compared with other marketing methods to the advantage of the former and the weaknesses of the present marketing system are exposed. The book includes a list of selected readings for each subject discussed.

MANEVY, Raymond : *La défense des huit heures*. Preface by Léon JOURNAUX. 52 pp. Paris, Le Peuple. 1922. 1 franc.

After an historical summary of the 8-hour day Act in France, Mr. Manevy deals with the three essential points on which the opponents of this measure base their objections : the absence of an 8-hour day law in other countries ; the increased gravity of the economic crisis through the fall in production ; and the alleged difficulties arising out of this Act in the way of bringing down the general cost of living. To the arguments advanced the author replies that the 8-hour day in industry is in force in various countries, notably in Germany ; that the economic crisis is making itself felt in countries other than France and is attributable to other causes than the reduction in the length of the working day (principally to shortage of raw materials, financial conditions, and fluctuations in the rates of exchanges) ; and that prevailing high prices are a consequence of monetary inflation and not of the 8-hour day. Mr. Manevy points out, moreover, that the 8-hour day has had no adverse influence on the development of French foreign commerce. He draws attention to the continual rise in the prices of agricultural products, notwithstanding the fact that the 8-hour day is not applicable to agricultural workers, while the prices of the products of industry, where the 8-hour day is in force, are tending to fall.

MANN, Harold H. and KANITKAR, N. V. : *Land and Labour in a Deccan Village*. University of Bombay Economic Series, No. 3. Study No. 2. 182 pp. London, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras, Oxford University Press. 1921.

As stated in the prefatory note, this book is a second study of rural life and conditions as found in a typical village in Western India. (Study No. 1 appeared in 1917). The report is based on first-hand information. The data compiled relate to physical features, land divisions, crops, stock and other assets, the social characteristics of the people, etc. The author concludes with general observations as to the unfavourable economic condition of the unit of the village and its future prospects.

MERCER, T. W. : *Dr. William King and the Co-operator 1828-1830*. xxxvii+144 pp. Manchester. The Co-operative Union. 1922.

This volume is a reprint of the twenty-eight numbers of *The Co-operator*, May 1918 to August 1830, the most important of the early magazines devoted to the advocacy of co-operation, with an introduction and notes by T. W. Mercer, a sketch of Dr. King's life and teaching, including information not previously published, and also a reprint of some of his letters to other pioneers of the co-operative movement in Great Britain. A bibliography is appended. The reprint of *The Co-operator*, Mr. Mercer thinks, will bring before teachers, students, and all those interested in the history of co-operation, the deep and abiding influence of Dr. King on co-operative thought and policy in Great Britain.

MORIZET, André : *Chez Lénine et Trotsky, Moscou 1921*. Preface by Léon TROTSKY. xi+300 pp. With unpublished documents and photographs. Paris, La Renaissance du Livre. 1922. 7 francs.

Although this book is favourable to Bolshevism it does not seek to cloak the lamentable conditions prevailing in Russia to-day. The author describes what he witnessed in Russia during the summer of 1921, at the time of the third congress of the Third International. In addition to some remarkable pen portraits of Bolshevik leaders, this volume contains an exposition of the "New Political Economy" and an account of the working of the Commission of State Projects (Gosplan) and of the organisation of the Education and Public Health Services.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS : *National Trade Associations*. 262 pp. Washington, W. F. Roberts Co. 1922.

This book contains the replies from 135 national employers' associations to a questionnaire issued by the National Association of Manufacturers. The

questionnaire followed three lines of enquiry : how the associations are organised, what they are organised to do, and how they go about it ; what the associations do to justify their cost, their field of activity, and the advantages they confer on their members ; whether they are trying to influence legislation, are gathering information, or are otherwise active. The first hundred replies received were analysed and digested into a brief statement included in the introductory summary.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOUR COMMITTEE : *Rural Child Welfare*. 355 pp. New York, the Macmillan Co. 1922.

This study is based upon conditions obtaining in rural districts in West Virginia, but as the types and conditions of farming on which the nature and extent of rural child labour to a great extent depend vary very considerably in that State, it might be considered as an introduction to the problems of farm children in general. Seven investigators have contributed chapters on different phases of the subject. After a preliminary statement of the rights of children and standards for their welfare descriptions are given of the home life of rural communities, the nature of farm labour performed by children and the efforts directed towards making it more really educational, and the extent to which facilities are available and utilised for schooling and recreation. Further chapters deal with the questions of dependency, neglect, and delinquency of children in rural districts, the problem of how child welfare is to be paid for out of taxation, and the status of children as defined and recognised in State law and practice.

PAGE, Kirby : *Industrial Facts*. 32 pp. *Collective Bargaining*. 30 pp. *The United States Steel Corporation*. 26 pp. *Incentives in Modern Life*. 31 pp. Christianity and Industry Series. New York, Geo. H. Doran Co. 1922.

These brochures from the Christianity and Industry series of publications are designed to draw public attention to the essential facts of the more important industrial problems of the present day. *Industrial Facts* gives concrete data concerning industrial problems and proposed solutions. *Collective Bargaining* is an ethical evaluation of certain phases of trade unionism connected with the principle of collective bargaining. Particular attention is given to the open shop movement. *The United States Steel Corporation* purposes to be an analysis of the social consequences of modern business policies. The wages, hours, and conditions of labour of the workers in the United States Steel Corporation, the financial and labour policy of the Corporation, and the consequent effect on the lives of the workers are among the questions considered. *Incentives in Modern Life* is an enquiry as to the extent to which incentives of modern life are unchristian, and discusses whether the motives of Jesus are practicable in modern business and professional life.

PENTY, Arthur J. : *Post-Industrialism*. 157 pp. London, Allen and Unwin. 1922.

Mr. Penty was one of the pioneers of the guild socialist movement in Great Britain, and in this, his latest book, he appears as a convinced mediaevalist, in opposition to the tendency to compromise with modern industrialism with which he reproaches the leaders of the National Guilds' League. The book is throughout inspired by a spirit of revolt against machinery. Mr. Penty argues that the original purpose of the Socialist movement was the solution of the problem raised by the mechanisation of industry, and he reproaches it with having forgotten or strayed from the path on which it first set out. As an immediate measure, he demands that "before any new machinery is permitted to be used, it shall be made the subject of a public enquiry which shall take evidence as to its effect upon conditions of labour, upon employment, upon the crafts and arts and all other social and economic implications". He holds that the unrestricted use of machinery does nothing but harm. The benefits which, in the early days of industrialism, the increased use of machinery conferred have now vanished and its only effect is to increase competitive waste.

POUND, Arthur : *The Iron Man in Industry*. 230 pp. Boston, Atlantic Monthly Press. 1922.

This book is a non-scientific description of the effect of the introduction of automatic machinery on the community generally and the machine worker in particular. According to the author, the automatic tool has tended to level wages, to destroy technical skill, to turn the worker into an automaton, to lower the level of physique and intelligence, to make the worker's livelihood less secure, and to restrict his personal liberty. It is also seen as an essential factor in the work-neurosis at the bottom of industrial unrest, in the over-production, characteristic of modern industry, and in the scramble for foreign markets which has proved one of the most fertile sources of modern wars. Typical products of the machine-age — the "captain of industry" and the corporation — are described and the problem of the relation between the state and business is discussed at some length. The general conclusion reached is that industrial workers must be educated so as to be able to enjoy the leisure with which the automatic machine now provides them.

REEVE, Sidney A. : *Modern Economic Tendencies*. 871 pp. New York E. P. Dutton. 1922.

This book is an interpretation of American economic evolution from early in the nineteenth century down to the entrance of the United States into the war. The author argues that the aim of all economic effort is to "feed the ultimate consumer"; that the commercialism which rules modern industry departs very widely from this objective; and that the only solution is for the community to organise as ultimate consumers.

RYSS, Pierre : *L'expérience russe*. Translated into French and preface by Raoul LABRY. xxviii+225 pp. Paris, Payot. 1922. 6 francs.

The author is a member of the Constitutional Democratic Party. His book, published in Russia in 1920, is not appreciably out of date. It is a study of the psychology of the Russian lower classes during the Revolution. Although it supplies no new data as regards the history of that period, it gives a clear idea of the rapid succession of events in Russia from 1914 to 1921.

SHEFFIELD, Alfred Dwight : *Joining in Public Discussion*. The Workers' Bookshelf, Vol. 1. 168 pp. New York. Geo. H. Doran Co. 1922.

The *Workers' Bookshelf* is described as an attempt to meet the "need of the workers for social understanding by a restatement of some of the fundamental problems of modern industrial society in simple language". This first volume in the series gives the reader practical hints how to manage his delivery, his words, and his ideas, also useful advice on how to manage a committee discussion and use parliamentary procedure.

Social Welfare Works Year Book for 1922. Compiled by the Ohara Institute of Social Research, Osaka. 362 pp. 1922.

This book gives a general account of social welfare work in Japan, and includes chapters on employment exchange work; protection of motherhood; protection of child labour; and housing problems.

STRÖBEL, Heinrich : *Socialisation in Theory and Practice*. Translated from the German by H. J. STENNING. 341 pp. London, P. S. King. 1922.

Mr. Ströbel's book, *Sozialisierung : Ihre Wege und Voraussetzungen*, published in 1921, was an account of various methods of socialisation, the results of the recent socialisation experiments in Hungary and in Russia, and the present position of the socialisation question in Germany.

Former Finance Minister in the Prussian revolutionary Government which came into existence in November 1918, the author became alienated alike from the Independent Socialists on account of their Bolshevik sympathies and from the Majority Socialists owing to their policy in the internal troubles which followed the Revolution. He attributes the inability of the Socialist Party at that time to cope with the problem of economic reconstruction to the suddenness with which political power was attained. Although many schemes had been put forward for the construction of the future Socialist State, there seems to have been no clear conception as to the transitional methods required and thus the opposing forces of capitalism virtually recovered control. Numerous quotations are cited from Kautsky, Otto Bauer, Hilferding, Karl Karsch, and other leading Socialists in support of the author's own views as to the necessity for the abolition of the capitalist mode of production and the substitution of a system of scientifically conducted industry by which production will be regulated according to requirements.

Among the various proposals subjected to an exhaustive examination in this book are those of the Socialisation Commission, the economic scheme of Wissell and Möllendorf, the proposals of Lederer and Horten. The latter are compared with the English conception of socialism in the forms advocated by guild socialists, the acceptance of which, in Mr. Ströbel's opinion, constitutes the only alternative to capitalist domination.

STROVER, Carl : *Monetary Reconstruction*. 91 pp. Published by the author at 133 West Washington Street, Chicago. 1922.

A well stated argument in favour of stabilising purchasing power by making the volume of currency in circulation vary according to changes in prices. It is proposed to set up a Monetary Commission, which would construct a properly weighted index of wholesale prices, print paper money to replace the present currency, and, by issuing or withdrawing money (preferably by purchase or sale of government securities), keep the purchasing power of money as indicated by the price index constant. The author distinguishes very clearly between a scientifically regulated paper currency such as he suggests and "fiat" money; severely criticises the expensiveness and dishonesty of the so-called gold standard, with its unstable credit superstructure; and outlines the advantages which might be expected to follow the adoption of the plan he advocates.

TIPPER, Harry : *Human Factors in Industry*. 280 pp. New York, Ronald Press Co. 1922.

The central contention of this book is that the present organisation of industry — trade unions, employers' associations and plant organisation itself — fails from lack of study of the human problems involved. The author insists that a complete readjustment of policies is needed; that leadership and supervision of a new character must be developed; that the worker must be educated, must be given incentives to develop interest, must be enabled to increase his capacity for judgment and decision, and must be given a voice in the fixing of wages, hours, and working conditions.

TRAUTMANN, René : *Au Pays de "Batouala". Noirs et blancs en Afrique*. Preface by Pierre MILLE. 254 pp. Paris, Payot. 1922.

The first part of this book is an exposition of the aptitudes and customs of the negroes and the living conditions in French Africa, particularly in the Congo. The second part is devoted to the European officials: civilian and military officials, physicians, teachers, and missionaries.

VOCATIONAL SERVICE FOR JUNIORS (NEW YORK CITY): *Investigations of Industries in New York City, 1905-1921*. Revised by Mary E. BROWN from a list compiled in 1916 by Henriette R. WALTER. 36 pp. New York, Voc. Serv. Juniors. 1921. 10 cents.

This bibliography has been issued in order to meet the needs of vocational guidance advisers and others who wish for information on the conditions and

prospects of the different industries, but have neither the time nor the knowledge to make direct personal investigations or even to find the available literature on the subject. The bibliography is classified according to the main industries of New York City, and includes the titles of official and other reports giving the necessary information, together with a brief note of their contents. Although it is intentionally confined to the conditions and industries of New York, it will be of value to students of vocational problems in other places.

— : *Opportunities for Vocational Training in New York City*. Compiled by Elsie B. GOLDSMITH. 94 pp. New York, Voc. Serv. Juniors. 1922. 25 cents.

This is a directory of vocational schools in New York City, classified under the headings of commercial, industrial, and semi-professional education. Brief particulars are given of the courses offered, the length of courses, conditions of admission, terms, hours, fees, and scholarships, if any. In addition, an index of subjects is given, showing the schools which offer instruction in that subject. The directory is preceded by a note on the conditions of employment of children in the city of New York. The book is intended for the use of teachers, parents, and school children, as well as for vocational guidance advisers who wish children to follow a further course of training before actually entering employment.

WEBER, Wilhelm : *Der Aufbau der Berufsverbände in der Forstwirtschaft, im Holzhandel und in der Holzindustrie Deutschlands*. 185 pp. Berlin, Paul Parey. 1922.

A course of lectures given by the author at the University of Giessen on trade associations in forestry and the wood industry. This study, which relates to a completely neglected subject, aims at being both a hand book for the student and the economist and an aid to the memory of the professional man. It includes two general surveys of the present position of the associations, and an alphabetical list of the latter.

WHITEFORD, James F. : *Factory Management Wastes and how to Prevent Them*. vii+220 pp. London, Nisbet. 1921.

This publication ^(*) is a reprint of a book published in 1919, but its interest has not waned. Its purpose, the author states in his preface, is to suggest means for removing some of the prevalent difficulties between manager and managed. The author defines waste as "the difference between the actual quantity used and the actual quantity required, be it energy, time, equipment, or material". He examines at first the various losses which may ensue from defective organisation or management, lax control of production, or uneconomical use of material and machinery. The next chapters are devoted to the human factor in industry, including fatigue, vocational selection, time and motion study, performance records, and overtime. The latter, in the author's opinion, "is a prolific source of waste". The end of the book deals with the various systems of cost calculation, wage payment, and profit-sharing in their relations with waste. The author points out that, in the problem of waste, the interests of employers and employees are identical and reciprocal, and he concludes that not only preventable waste, but wilful restriction of output, must be abolished by both capital and labour.

(*) Cf. FEDERATED AMERICAN ENGINEERING SOCIETIES. *Waste in Industry*. New York, 1921, analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 3, March 1921, p. 522.

