



# INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

## Trade Unionism in 1922: A Survey

**T**HIS article is a review of some of the principal tendencies of the trade union movement during 1922, illustrated by more or less typical examples. Emphasis is laid upon the purely economic phases of this development. It is true that, in many instances, the line of demarcation between the political and the economic is not always clear, and consideration of the economic features at times trenches on the political activities. This difficulty has been made particularly apparent during the past year, as there has been a marked tendency for the trade union movement as a whole to enlarge the sphere of its activities and to extend its power into the field of politics.

The industrial depression is visible behind almost every phase of trade union activity in 1922. It had already been in progress during 1921, and has caused unparalleled unemployment, some reduction of wages, and a successful resistance on the part of employers to any further extension of the 8-hour day movement; in some cases it has meant an addition to working hours. Its immediate effect was a loss in trade union membership, a loss, however, not of such magnitude as to reduce numbers very seriously.

The effect on the unions of the depression has generally been similar to that resulting in the past from like industrial depressions. At the same time they have also reacted in somewhat new and untried ways. The vastness of the present crisis has impressed the trade unions with the necessity of taking a wider interest in economics. They have realised the difficulty of their position in not being in touch with the sources of information concerning the industrial situation, and their need of informed leadership and counsel. They are insisting on the education of their members. They are even reaching out into the field of research and emphasising the need for a broader understanding of economics and industrial problems.

The past year has shown a considerable effort on the part of the unions to consolidate their organisation, generally either by the formation of industrial unions or by building up alliances within related crafts and industries.

While consolidating their organisation, the unions have taken in some instances a more conciliatory attitude in disputes and have shown a tendency to adopt the method of negotiation as against that of the strike. The numerous and petty strikes which usually occur on a rising market, when direct action is a method of securing ends sought, have not, for obvious reasons, characterised the past year. There have, however, been a certain number of large and severe strikes among unions which were particularly strong or enjoyed an exceptional strategic position in industry regardless of their numerical strength.

If the past year has afforded few signs of interest in workers'

participation in the management of industry, it is hardly because trade unions take less interest in it, but rather because they have had to adopt an attitude which is primarily defensive. The one aspect of this movement which has continued to develop to some extent is the guild movement in the building industry. Interest in this phase of workers' control has spread from Great Britain where, however, it is now meeting with financial difficulties; it has been given consideration by the trade union movement in several countries in Europe and has found some support and development in the United States <sup>(1)</sup>.

It is a characteristic of the trade union movement that in times of depression greater interest is taken in matters not directly connected with the employment relation. This has been illustrated in 1922 by the development of credit institutions established in conjunction with co-operative societies operating their own banks, as in Germany and Austria <sup>(2)</sup>. In the United States banks were established in 1921 and 1922 by individual trade unions, e.g. by the International Machinists' Association, the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers <sup>(3)</sup>, and several other unions are following their example. The locomotive engineers' organisation has even purchased an interest in a large financial house in New York City.

Apart, however, from such practical experiments as these, trade union literature, articles in the trade union periodicals, resolutions and declarations of congresses have shown little direct consideration of trade union theory or attempt to justify its position on sound economic principles. The discussions and arguments of the unions have generally been on broad humanitarian grounds, and appeal has been made to certain fundamental rights which it is deemed are the heritage of all men.

#### MEMBERSHIP

Few complete figures for membership are available for 1922, but reports at congresses held during the year have shown a considerable fall in membership. The British Trades Union Congress, for example, showed a loss among British trade unions of approximately 1,250,000 since a year ago <sup>(4)</sup>; there were signs, however, at the end of 1922 that the decline was ceasing <sup>(5)</sup>. In the United States the loss within the American Federation of Labour during the year amounted to approximately 711,000 <sup>(6)</sup>. In the Netherlands the principal federation of trade unions suffered a decrease from 225,000 in January 1921 to 200,000 in October 1922. The Swedish federation has maintained its membership between 1921 and 1922. In Germany, where legislation on workers' control and a period of rising prices have stimulated trade

<sup>(1)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, pp. 926-927. G. D. H. COLE: *The Guild Movement in Great Britain*, in *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922. AMY HEWES: *Guild Socialism; the Two Years' Test*, in *American Economic Review*, June 1922. CARL S. JOSLYN: *The British Building Guilds; a Critical Survey of Two Years' Work*, in *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Cambridge, Mass. Nov. 1922; U. S. Bureau of Labour Statistics, *Monthly Labour Review*, May 1922, pp. 162-165.

<sup>(2)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, pp. 756 and 757.

<sup>(3)</sup> *Labour Age*, Nov. 1922. New York.

<sup>(4)</sup> INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Industrial and Labour Information* (hereafter cited as *Industrial and Labour Information*), Vol. III, No. 13, p. 10

<sup>(5)</sup> See Mr. Sidney Webb's article in this issue.

<sup>(6)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 388.

union organisation, there have been increases during 1922 of both male and female membership. The membership of the General Federation of Trade Unions, for example, increased from 7,864,000 in the first quarter of 1922 to 8,136,000 in the third quarter; the number of women members increased in the same period from 1,646,000 to 1,754,000. The loss, from 8,400,000 to 5,100,000, in Russia is due to the fact that membership has now been made voluntary; it is no longer in effect compulsory (\*). For other countries figures for 1922 are not available.

The decrease in trade union membership which occurred in 1921, though considerable, nowhere reduced membership to its pre-war level. The growth of the unions during the war was unprecedented; many of them had by 1920 more than doubled their pre-war membership, and some had trebled it. In Australia and New Zealand labour was already highly unionised in 1913 and therefore the wartime increases were not so great as in most countries. The French General Confederation of Labour lost almost 50 per cent. of its members between 1920 and 1921, but a fair proportion of these have no doubt been absorbed by the dissident minority confederation and are not therefore an absolute loss to French trade unionism. The reduction of 30 per cent. in the membership of Norwegian and Finnish trade unions is largely attributable to the existence of opposing tendencies within the movement. Except in two or three countries trade unions everywhere retained in 1921 a membership 50 per cent. or more larger than in 1913.

Important increases in the membership of trade unions occurred in several countries between 1920 and 1921. The gain of 60 per cent. in Russia is remarkable, though in that country there were, no doubt, very special reasons to account for it. Membership advanced considerably also in Austria and Poland, where the instability of real wages due to the depreciation of the currency is a stimulus to organise for self-protection. The increase of membership in the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom and in Spain may be explained by the fact that much labour still remained to be organised in those countries. The figures for Spain do not, however, give an adequate idea of the total number of organised workers; the 300,000 members of the National Confederation of Labour dissolved in 1919 probably retained some organisation.

A large proportion of those who have left the trade unions within the last two years have no doubt done so involuntarily and will therefore return as soon as they are able. A certain number, particularly the new members who joined the movement at the flood tide of prosperity, have, however, left owing to dissatisfaction with trade union results. Some have been disheartened by the unsuccessful results of strikes; for example, it is reported that the workers who participated in the great miners' strike in South Africa have left the unions in large numbers; or, again, the loss of more than half of the members of the International Seamen's Union of America is attributed to an unsuccessful strike; in Japan the results of labour disputes cause violent fluctuations in membership (\*). The decrease in the membership of British trade unions since 1920 has been much greater in the case of women than of men (\*); this is due to the fact that women abnormally employed in industry during the war and afterwards during the boom were among the first to become unemployed when the depression began.

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(\*) Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 934.

(\*) *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 19, pp. 366-367.

(\*) *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 930.

## TRADE UNION MEMBERSHIP IN THIRTY COUNTRIES, 1913, 1920, 1921

Country	(in thousands)		
	1913	1920	1921
Argentina	(1)	68 (2)	75 (2)
Australia	498	684	703
Austria	260 (3)	935 (4)	1,158 (4)
Belgium	200	920	900
Bulgaria	30	36	44
Canada	176	374	313
Czechoslovakia	(1)	1,650	1,500
Denmark	152	362	323
Finland	28	59	49
France	592 (5)	1,640 (5)	885 (5)
Germany	4,513	1,300 (6)	12,625
Greece	(1)	170	(1)
Hungary	115 (6)	343 (6)	266
India	(1)	(1)	150-200
Italy	427 (7)	3,100 (7)	2,200 (7)
Japan	(1)	(1)	111
Netherlands	138 (8)	539 (8)	524 (8)
New Zealand	72	96	98
Norway	64	154	96
Poland	(1)	947	1,033 (9)
Portugal	(1)	100 (10)	(1)
Roumania	10 (6)	90 (11)	32
Russia	(1)	5,222	8,400 (12)
Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom	9	25 (13)	50 (13)
South Africa	5	133	108
Spain	128 (14)	220 (14)	240 (14)
Sweden	136	390	362
Switzerland	90 (15)	293 (16)	248 (16)
United Kingdom	4,198	8,493	6,793
United States	1,946 (17)	4,079 (17)	3,907 (17)
	2,567 (18)	4,924 (19)	—

(1) Figures not available.

(2) Figures taken from *First Year Book of the International Federation of Trade Unions*; they indicate the membership of the Regional Federation of Workers of Argentina only. In addition, the *Year Book* shows a membership of 153,000 for an Anarcho-Syndicalist federation and 20,000 for a Catholic organisation at the end of 1921. An Argentina employers' periodical estimates that at the end of 1921 the Regional Federation of Workers of Argentina had 40,000 members and the Anarcho-Syndicalist federation from 45,000 to 20,000. The Secretary of the Regional Federation of Workers of Argentina stated in the *Revista de Ciencias Economicas* of August 1921 that at the end of 1920 his organisation had more than 90,000 members.

(3) Figure includes General Federation of Trade Unions only.

(4) Figure does not include Federation of German-speaking Workers, which had 50,000 members on 30 September 1921.

(5) Figures do not include membership of unions independent either of General Confederation of Labour or of Confederation of Christian Workers (founded in 1919). The independent unions at the end of 1921 had 148,000 members, according to the *First Year Book of the International Federation of Trade Unions*.

(6) Approximate figure.

(7) Figures include General Confederation of Labour and Italian Confederation of Workers only. There were 972,000 trade unionists in 1913 and at the end of 1921 it is estimated that there were 3,000,000.

(8) Figures do not include independent unions whose membership, according to the *First Year Book of the International Federation of Trade Unions*, was 125,401 at the end of 1921.

(9) Figure does not include Polish trade unionists working in Upper Silesia and Westphalia, who numbered 310,000 in the third quarter of 1921.

(10) Figure for 1919.

(11) Figure does not include 80,000 trade unionists in Transylvania.

(12) Figure for July 1921.

(13) These figures relate only to the central organisation, which is affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions. The Christian trade unions represented at the Congress of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions in June 1922 had 22,500 members. The figures are not comparable with those for 1913, which relate to pre-war Serbia.

(14) Figure relates to General Union of Workers only. There also exist two other large organisations of Catholic land workers and of Communists. The number of Christian trade unionists represented at the Congress of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions in June 1922 was 42,000.

(15) Figure relates to Federation of Trade Unions only.

(16) Figures include Federation of Trade Unions, Federation of Salaried Employees, and Christian Unions. There were, in 1922, about 19,000 other trade unionists.

(17) Figure relates to American Federation of Labour only.

(18) Professor Barnett's estimate for total membership in 1915.

(19) Professor Barnett's estimate for total membership.

## ORGANISATION

Changes in trade union structure are normally slow and difficult of realisation. To achieve anything novel along that line, it has usually been found necessary either to create a new organisation or to bring about practical disruption of an existing one. Questions of organisation have, however, always come up for consideration at a time of crisis in the labour movement. During the year 1922 the question has been widely discussed and consolidation has been realised to a certain extent by the amalgamation of competing unions in a particular craft ; by the conclusion of alliances ; by the formation of industrial unions aiming at the "One Big Union", which embraces all the workers in a country ; and by the formation of more comprehensive international organisations. This tendency on the part of the workers has existed for many years. Nevertheless the year 1922 remains remarkable both for the number of re-organisation schemes put forward and the number put into practice.

In Argentina, Australia, Germany, Italy, New Zealand, Norway, South Africa, and Sweden the national trade union federations are undergoing re-organisation embodying more or less the principle of industrial unionism. In Argentina the new Workers' Federation of Argentina is to consist of industrial unions <sup>(10)</sup>. The "One Big Union" in Australia came into being early in 1922, and now includes about a third of the membership of the continent ; it is organised in five departments — agriculture, building, manufacture, mining, and transport <sup>(11)</sup>. There is a similar movement on foot in New Zealand <sup>(12)</sup>. A novel scheme which combines both craft and industrial unionism has been launched in South Africa ; every worker is to belong both to his craft union and to a union embracing all workers in a particular industry ; both kinds of union are represented on the national executive <sup>(13)</sup>. The Leipzig congress of the German Federation of Trade Unions adopted a resolution in favour of the amalgamation of all existing unions into fourteen industrial federations <sup>(14)</sup>, and in several trades, notably building and printing, immediate steps were taken towards applying the principle in practice. The new organisation of the Italian General Confederation of Labour, which came into force on 1 January 1922, provides for a number of industrial unions in which manual and non-manual workers are grouped in special sections <sup>(15)</sup>. A strong centralising tendency is evident in the two alternative schemes now being submitted to Norwegian trade unions for their approval. Every locality is to have a general union which comprehends workers in all trades. In every area large enough to warrant it, groups are to be formed to unite all workers in a particular industry ; the groups of a particular industry federate to form a national group for that industry. These national industrial groups succeed the present national trade unions, but with much diminished power. The power which is lost to the groups is added to the central body, the Confederation of Labour, to which are federated the local general unions and the national industrial groups ; this central body is very much strengthened.

<sup>(10)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, p. 219.

<sup>(11)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 39-40.

<sup>(12)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 40.

<sup>(13)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 932.

<sup>(14)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, pp. 376-377.

<sup>(15)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 462.

Up to this point the two schemes resemble one another. The principal difference between them is that in one the local craft unions as well as the shop clubs are retained and form part of the local general unions, while in the other the local craft unions are dissolved and the local general unions consist of shop clubs only. Thus under the latter scheme no provision at all is made for craft unionism <sup>(16)</sup>. At the Swedish Trade Union Congress of August 1922 a Syndicalist proposal for decentralisation and the formation of local general unions, together with a Communist proposal for a strong central Executive for aggressive action, were both rejected; at the same time, there was much support for the principle of industrial trade unionism and the unions are to be completely reorganised on this basis by the end of 1925 <sup>(17)</sup>. Ever since 1909 there has been a movement in this direction, but it has met with great difficulties, arising from the fact that highly-developed craft unions do not feel the necessity for a changed organisation. In Finland a system of local general unions in addition to the craft and industrial unions was established during the year, but up to the present it has not received general support from the workers.

In the United States the idea of industrial unionism has relatively little support, largely because centralisation in the regular trade union movement — through the industrial departments of the Federation <sup>(18)</sup> — has probably already proceeded further than in most other countries. The 1922 convention of the American Federation of Labour was almost unanimously opposed to the idea <sup>(19)</sup>. However, eleven State Federations of Labour have passed resolutions endorsing industrial unionism. A strong sentiment for amalgamation is noticeable in the printing, textile, clothing, and railway industries of the United States, but attempts for joint action by the building trade unions have met with marked failure.

One of the objects of greater centralisation is to form a headquarters for the conduct and direction of strikes. A proposal of this character was made before the British Trade Union Congress, but was not accepted <sup>(20)</sup>. The conduct of all disputes except purely local ones is part of the new Norwegian scheme. In Germany and Austria the central organisations have succeeded in taking over the control of all strikes of a general nature and the same trend is noticeable in France <sup>(21)</sup>.

Among the more notable instances of the formation of large industrial unions this year is the British Transport and General Workers' Union <sup>(22)</sup>. In Germany an Industrial Union for the Building Industry is in process of formation, though several important unions remain outside it <sup>(23)</sup>. The majority of woollen workers in Great Britain are now included in one large organisation — the General Union of Textile Workers. The British cotton workers have formed a central organisation — the Cotton Workers' Federation — to negotiate collective agree-

<sup>(16)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, p. 932.

<sup>(17)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 736.

<sup>(18)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 866-867.

<sup>(19)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 385.

<sup>(20)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 740.

<sup>(21)</sup> In Denmark the general strike of 1922 was in control of the Danish Federation of Trade Unions. Following that strike the Federation of General Workers objected to control by the Trade Union Federation, and insisted on greater discretion being lodged in the membership of the unions concerned in particular strikes.

<sup>(22)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 41-42.

<sup>(23)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 216-217.

ments and promote labour legislation <sup>(24)</sup>. Transport workers in Great Britain <sup>(25)</sup> and in Germany <sup>(26)</sup> have approached the railwaymen with a view to amalgamation or federation.

Sometimes an alliance is concluded between unions. The miners and the engineers in Great Britain have concluded an agreement whereby an engineer employed at a mine is given a miner's membership card, and takes part in strikes and other activities with the miners. In the United States fifteen railway unions have an alliance with the United Mineworkers <sup>(27)</sup>.

In the international field an amalgamation has taken place among the leather workers, saddlers, and shoemakers, while for the building industry a close alliance of the International Federations of Building Workers, Carpenters, Painters, and Stone Workers is under consideration <sup>(28)</sup>. The movement towards unity among the trade unions of the three Scandinavian countries has made further progress this year, postal workers <sup>(29)</sup>, foremen, commercial employees, and textile workers <sup>(30)</sup> in the three Scandinavian countries having all concluded alliances. At the end of 1922 the workers in at least fourteen industries in Scandinavia were organised in alliances. In Central Europe two conferences of transport workers' unions have taken place in the groups of states interested in the navigation of the Danube <sup>(31)</sup>, and the Rhine <sup>(32)</sup> respectively.

A peculiar tendency is represented by the Italian National Federation of Trade Guilds, which is the Fascist trade union organisation <sup>(33)</sup>. The National Federation was founded in January 1922; its present membership is about one million. Its main strength seems to lie in the agricultural workers, but it has also succeeded in recruiting many workers from other trade union organisations. Its policy is not yet clearly defined, partly on account of the diversity of the elements which it has absorbed, and partly because it manifests itself differently from one locality to another. There is, however, ground for stating that it is national rather than international in tendency, and that it favours closer collaboration of all the factors in production <sup>(34)</sup>.

The general movement for amalgamation and consolidation has affected non-manual workers' unions as well, in Germany especially, but also in France, Great Britain, and Italy. They are at the same time moving into closer relationship with manual workers. The evident reason for these developments is that non-manual workers including civil servants, particularly where currency is depreciated, as in Germany, have the same wages problem to face as the manual workers. Further, the wages of civil servants have generally failed to rise to the same degree as those of manual workers to compensate for increased cost of living. The margin between the salaries of non-manual workers and the wages of manual workers has therefore

<sup>(24)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 931.

<sup>(25)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 379.

<sup>(26)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 932.

<sup>(27)</sup> Ibid. Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, p. 760.

<sup>(28)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 927.

<sup>(29)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 567.

<sup>(30)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 43.

<sup>(31)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 41.

<sup>(32)</sup> Ibid. Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 265.

<sup>(33)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 21, pp. 454-455.

<sup>(34)</sup> Ibid. Vol. IV, No. 13, pp. 234-238.

decreased <sup>(35)</sup>, and the two categories have found themselves more and more on a common footing.

Affiliation of civil servants to manual workers' federations has raised the question of the right to strike. This right has been vigorously vindicated by civil servants in France <sup>(36)</sup>. In Germany a division of opinion has occurred on this point <sup>(37)</sup> and the railway officials have left the Federation of Civil Servants (*Deutscher Beamtenbund*), an independent organisation of civil servants, and have joined the General Federation of Civil Servants (*Allgemeiner Deutscher Beamtenbund*), a new organisation of civil servants whose policy harmonises with that of the General Federation of Trade Unions <sup>(38)</sup>.

### HOURS

A striking feature of the labour movement in 1922 has been its resistance to all attacks upon the 8-hour day <sup>(39)</sup>. The most important success obtained by the opponents of the 8-hour day has been in Switzerland, where the Legislature has passed an Act providing that the working week may be lengthened to 54 hours in time of serious crisis <sup>(40)</sup>. Here, however, the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions organised a demand for a referendum and obtained 203,000 signatures, four times the necessary number. The Act will therefore have to be submitted to a popular vote. In France also Administrative Decrees have been issued which allow longer hours to be worked while, nevertheless, maintaining the 8-hour day in principle. In the case of railways in France <sup>(41)</sup>, as also in Germany <sup>(42)</sup>, a distinction has been made between hours of actual work and hours of attendance, so that the hours of attendance of a level-crossing keeper, for example, are considered to count for less actual work than those of a locomotive driver. The hours of actual work, however, are not to exceed eight a day, averaged for the year or for the month on French and German railways respectively. The railwaymen in Germany agreed to this arrangement after a strike and much negotiation, but in France they have not yet accepted it <sup>(43)</sup>. In Great Britain the railwaymen have accepted an arrangement whereby work may be spread over ten hours in the day, but in principle not more than eight hours' actual work is to be performed. On American railways the effect of the ruling of the Railroad Labour Board which abolished extra compensation for overtime in the freight service until after ten hours has been to lengthen

<sup>(35)</sup> INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Studies and Reports*, Series D, Wages and Hours No. 2, *Wage Changes in Various Countries 1914 to 1921*, Geneva, 1922 ; *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 830.

<sup>(36)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, p. 381 ; *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. III, No. 2, pp. 94-95.

<sup>(37)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 42-43.

<sup>(38)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 566.

<sup>(39)</sup> None of the early laws enacted have as yet been repealed ; on the contrary, additional countries enacted laws of that character (Belgium in 1921, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom in 1922) or, as in the case of Sweden, prolonged existing laws. In Germany a Bill closely modelled on the Washington Draft Convention on hours to replace the 8-hour day in force since the end of 1918 is being considered.

<sup>(40)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 217-218.

<sup>(41)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. III, No. 13, pp. 608-611.

<sup>(42)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. IV, No. 9, pp. 183-184.

<sup>(43)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. IV, No. 11, pp. 203-209. See also, in this issue, *The New Regulation of Hours of Work on the French Railways*.



hours. The application of the 8-hour day to deck hands in the French mercantile marine has been suspended, the principal reason being that it had not been applied in foreign mercantile marines. A strike of French seamen was unsuccessful <sup>(45)</sup>.

The 8-hour day was one of the principal matters in the dispute between workers and employers in Denmark in the spring of 1922. The strongly organised Danish Federation of Trade Unions, after a struggle lasting two months, obtained a settlement which secured the maintenance of the 8-hour day <sup>(46)</sup>. In the United States the most important struggle involving hours of work in 1922 took place in a section of the New England textile industry. After a strike lasting from seven to nine months the workers were defeated in two of the five textile manufacturing States in New England and the working week of over 30,000 operatives was lengthened from 48 to 54 or 55 hours.

The arguments used by trade unions in support of the 8-hour day are extremely varied. The French Miners' Federation, for example, insist that output per man in 1919 was slightly greater than in 1913 when the working day was 9½ hours <sup>(47)</sup>. The French Printers' Federation, on the contrary, take the view that an increase of output in their industry could not have been expected in a shorter working day, and reject any demand for longer hours based solely on the question of output; they rest their case on the social advantages accruing from the short day, and assert that they are entitled to share in the increased productivity resulting from improved machinery <sup>(48)</sup>. The building workers in Great Britain assert that unemployment would increase if the working day were lengthened and fear that earnings for a 50-hour week, though perhaps rising at first, would ultimately fall to the same level as for the present 44-hour week. Similar reasons have been advanced by the French Leather Workers for opposing an increase in overtime hours <sup>(49)</sup>.

To the proposal that hours of work should be regulated by collective agreements alone and that there should be a return to freedom of contract in this matter, the reply has been that legislation is necessary in order to protect those workers who are unorganised, or whose organisation is weak. The technical aspect of the 8-hour day, it is stated, must not be allowed to obscure its social aspect; health, safety, and liberty are also important considerations <sup>(50)</sup>. The 8-hour day is an institution to which the workers have become firmly attached, both for its own sake and because it is a symbol of social progress, and any attack upon it would, it is felt, threaten wages and social legislation as a whole <sup>(51)</sup>.

#### WAGES

There are two systems of wage payment which have grown up as a result of fluctuating prices and especially of rising prices. First is the regulation of wages in accordance with some fixed or agreed upon

<sup>(44)</sup> Ibid. Vol. II, No. 1, p. 39.

<sup>(45)</sup> Ibid. Vol. IV, No. 1, pp. 37-43.

<sup>(46)</sup> Ibid. Vol. II, No. 6, pp. 307-310.

<sup>(47)</sup> Ibid. Vol. I, No. 11, p. 620.

<sup>(48)</sup> Ibid. Vol. II, No. 13, pp. 698-699.

<sup>(49)</sup> Ibid. Vol. IV, No. 1, p. 31.

<sup>(50)</sup> Ibid. Vol. I, No. 8, pp. 448-449.

<sup>(51)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, p. 922.

sliding scale, and second is the payment of higher wages to workers with family responsibilities. The adjustment of wages by sliding scale, i. e. by an automatic rise or fall in accordance with an index number of the cost of living or some other determining factor, has been generally accepted by labour in Europe, as in Great Britain, France, Norway (where industries working for the home market and mining and shipping are adjusted by a sliding scale), and to a limited extent in Belgium, Sweden, and Italy. In Great Britain wages in the iron industry depend upon the price of pig iron and in coal mining upon the profits of the industry.

Where currency is depreciating and prices are rising rapidly the sliding scale has not been favoured by the trade unions. The satisfactory operation of the system depends upon the use of an accurate index number of the cost of living, the calculation of which is very difficult under those conditions. The restricted application of the system in Germany<sup>(52)</sup> is partly due to the workers' distrust of index numbers and partly to other reasons. After the Armistice the workers thought that prices would fall and were unwilling to accept sliding scales because they wished to recoup themselves for years of privation. When prices, on the contrary, went up, many workers would have welcomed the introduction of sliding scales, but the employers objected. At present wage agreements are concluded for short periods, usually not longer than a month. The German trade unions considered that the present basic wage is not sufficiently high and that it would be absurd to perpetuate it automatically. They also think that their influence would be diminished by the adoption of the system and that they would no longer maintain the control which they now possess over wages by reason of the frequent negotiations in which they are at present engaged. Further, they point out that the system makes no provision for participation by the workers in the profits of industry. The sliding-scale system was introduced in Austria early in 1920 in the case of metal workers and non-manual workers in industry; thereafter it spread to many other industries. The wages of state employees in Austria are regulated by a sliding scale established by law<sup>(53)</sup>.

The views of organised labour in the United States on the question of wage adjustment differ from those of European labour. "Cost of living indices only serve to indicate the minimum of human requirements and are the measuring stick for real wages and not the basis for determining these rates. The problem of determining rates remains after indices have been considered<sup>(54)</sup>." Here all demands for increased wages have been urged not merely on the basis of increased cost of living, but on the general ground that labour deserves a share of the increases arising from more efficient production and greater output. Increases based on the cost of living, it is argued, would bind labour to accept decreases on a falling market. As the situation has, however, changed from one of depression and now shows an upward tendency, the question has fallen into abeyance; the workers need no longer fear unemployment; employers are anxious for intense and uninterrupted production and desire to avoid strikes, and labour is pressing for increased wages<sup>(54)</sup>.

<sup>(52)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. III, No. 3, pp. 156-157.

<sup>(53)</sup> AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOUR, EXECUTIVE COUNCIL: *Report to Forty-second Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labour*, Washington, 1922, pp. 18-20.

<sup>(54)</sup> *Bloomfield's Labour Digest, Industrial Relations*, Vol. XIII, No. 2, p. 1308.

The payment of higher wages to married workers in the form of family allowances, as in France, Germany, and Austria-Hungary during and particularly after the war, has met with varied response from the unions. The official attitude, however, seems to be, on the whole, opposed to the institution. Even the Christian unions with their known solicitude for family welfare are not united in support of it. Objections are made on various grounds. Both employers and workers are agreed that the system of family allowances is a factor in the preservation of social peace. At the same time, however, it antagonises the interest of the married and the single men and is liable to give rise to jealousy and weaken labour solidarity. It is alleged that the system will make it difficult for a married worker to shift from one firm to another. It is suggested that some employers tend to deduct the family allowances from the basic wage. There exists also a suspicion that employers are anxious to encourage large families in order that the supply of labour may be assured for the future. Any departure from the principle of equal pay for equal work savours of charity and is considered as a humiliation. The justice of paying a higher wage to one who serves the state by bringing up a family is usually admitted, but it is preferred that this service should be paid for by the state and not by private agencies. Other counter-proposals of the unions as set forth in collective agreements consist in the gradation of wages by age and trade experience of the worker.

#### UNEMPLOYMENT

One effect of the unemployment crisis of the past year has been to call forth numerous suggestions for its relief on the part of the trade unions. The unions have appeared fairly well agreed as to the general causes of the crisis, insisting that it lies in the extraordinarily unsound international economic relations which prevail at the present time. Specific suggestions for the relief of the situation have, however, varied in the different countries and have been coloured by the different traditions and by the peculiar unemployment situation in the various countries. A clear line of difference in attitude can be drawn between that held by labour in Europe and in the United States. European labour accepts unemployment as a more or less inevitable feature of the industrial system. Labour in the United States takes the view that unemployment is a temporary, though malignant, influence, which under certain conditions can be wholly abolished.

The remedies proposed in the different countries reflect this divergence of view as to the nature of unemployment. European labour stresses the importance of the provision of relief works in times of depression to provide against seasonal variation in employment, and proposes insurance as a relief for that residuum of unemployment which is more or less chronic. The American Federation of Labour, while also emphasising the need and value of the distribution of public contracts so as to provide against cyclical unemployment, opposes unemployment insurance on the ground that it recognises unemployment as something irremediable<sup>(55)</sup>. The trade union movements of Canada and Australia with a more markedly European tradition have put forward measures for unemployment insurance.

European trade unions are discussing not so much the principle of

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<sup>(55)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. III, No. 4, pp. 195-196.

unemployment insurance as the problem of administering and financing its organisation. Opinions seem to run in favour of administration by the trade unions themselves. The Trade Union Committee of the Belgian Labour Party <sup>(56)</sup>, the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions <sup>(57)</sup>, and the General Confederation of Labour in Italy <sup>(58)</sup> advocate that unemployment insurance funds be administered by the trade unions, recognising, no doubt, that administration by the unions themselves tends to increase their strength. The Swiss unions have complained that "the present organisation of relief has given rise to an unbearable system of bureaucracy". The Belgian unions do not desire contributions to the support of the insurance funds from the employers, because the receipt of such assistance would entail interference with the control of the workers over the disposition of the funds. The French unions have also taken steps to strengthen trade union unemployment funds. The French Metal Workers' Federation <sup>(59)</sup>, and other unions, have made membership of such funds compulsory.

A somewhat different view has been taken by the International Federation of Miners <sup>(60)</sup>, by a Joint Committee representing the British Trade Union Congress and the Labour Party, and by other bodies which hold that the contributions to the funds should be borne by the state, employers, and workers. The miners insist on equal distribution of the burden between the three. The Joint Committee of the British Trade Union Congress and Labour Party suggests a different distribution of the burden, based upon the nature of the industries affected; the state should undertake insurance in industries with more than average unemployment, maintaining the contribution of the employer, increasing its own, and lessening or abolishing that of the worker; industries in which there is little unemployment should undertake their own insurance, funds being provided for the most part by the employers, and the rest by the state <sup>(61)</sup>. Workers in the British cotton industry suggest that they and the employers should together provide funds augmented by government grants and should together administer relief in the industry. The Labour Council of New South Wales <sup>(62)</sup>, following the resolution of the All-Australian Congress <sup>(63)</sup> that "adequate provision for the unemployed is a legitimate charge upon industry", suggest that the employers alone should provide the fund and that administration should be in the hands of the trade union. The programme of the Canadian unions is somewhat broad and selective, embodying features emphasised both by European trade unions and by those in the United States <sup>(64)</sup>. Immediate cases of destitution are to be dealt with by the provision of relief works, the wages paid being at trade union rates, or by paying full maintenance allowances. Unemployment insurance should be instituted as a permanent measure; the cost should be defrayed, as in the case of workmen's compensation, by employers, who would be required to contribute to a Federal unemployment insurance fund. Private ein-

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<sup>(56)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. III, No. 4, pp. 195-196.

<sup>(57)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. II, No. 10, pp. 511-512.

<sup>(58)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. II, No. 13, p. 685.

<sup>(59)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. II, No. 12, p. 627.

<sup>(60)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. III, No. 7, p. 318.

<sup>(61)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. III, No. 12, pp. 550-551.

<sup>(62)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. II, No. 4, p. 176.

<sup>(63)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, pp. 562-563.

<sup>(64)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 6, pp. 143-144.

ployment exchanges should be abolished, and the Federal employment service should be fully developed. The more important measures for the reduction of unemployment are : the carrying on of all public works and the purchase of public supplies during periods of depression, and the allocating of the same to districts where unemployment is most acute ; road-building on a large scale ; acquiring and developing agricultural land ; the control of emigration ; loans for building workers' houses. In the case of private industry the dismissal of large numbers of workers should be prevented until the hours of all employed in the industry have been considerably reduced, and the seasonal inequalities of employment should be eliminated.

The working of short time, or underemployment for all instead of employment for some and unemployment for others, is frequently practised, especially in the textile, metal, and mining industries in many countries. It presents special advantages in industries where skilled workers once dispersed during a period of unemployment would be difficult to replace. It is generally favoured by trade unions, both as a manifestation of solidarity and as a preventive against an excessive drain upon trade union funds and against loss of members. When short time is argued to be an effective remedy for unemployment, or is excessively prolonged, the trade unions oppose it unless it is accompanied by underemployment benefit, otherwise the whole burden of maintaining the unemployed in an industry is thrown upon the workers.

In the United States a special application of the principle of short time, combined with unemployment insurance, is found in the ladies' garment industry in Cleveland, Ohio, where the workers are guaranteed a minimum either of employment or of wages<sup>(65)</sup>. The agreements concluded in 1922 between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and the employers in the men's clothing industry provide for a consideration of the question of an unemployment insurance fund upon the anniversary date of the agreement. A resolution had been passed at the 1920 convention of this union in favour of the creation of an unemployment fund supported by the industry. The fund would be maintained from contributions by employers of a specified sum per worker per week. Employers who had an excess amount of unemployment would be penalised by having to pay a higher contribution<sup>(66)</sup>. The Canadian unions also urge upon employers the necessity of retaining as many workers as possible by means of a temporary reduction of working hours. The Swiss Federation of Metal Workers and Watchmakers have a collective agreement with their employers to the same effect.

In contrast to the American and Canadian trade unions, which favour the fullest development of state employment exchange services, the British General Federation of Trade Unions desires that not only the administration of unemployment benefit, but also the work of the employment exchanges should be carried on by the trade unions<sup>(67)</sup>. This was, no doubt, the view of all trade unions in the early days when state employment exchanges were first being organised. At the present time practically all trade unions favour the establishment of jointly managed labour exchanges, i. e. exchanges managed by a board consist-

<sup>(65)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 749-750.

<sup>(66)</sup> UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS : *Monthly Labour Review*, Vol. XIV, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 1100-1101. See also LEO WOLMAN : *A Proposal for an Unemployment Fund in the Men's Clothing Industry*. New York, 1922.

<sup>(67)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. I, No. 7, p. 384.

ing of an equal number of workers and employers. Organisation of the labour exchanges by trades, with advisory committees for each trade representing both employers and workers therein, is also a cardinal principle with the unions.

#### TRADE UNIONISM AND MIGRATION

The year 1922 in trade unionism shows no change in the attitude of organised labour towards migration. Despite the fact, however, that emigration is considered in certain quarters as one of the numerous remedies for unemployment trade unions even in countries of emigration do not, as a rule, advocate it as a remedy. They insist on the obligation of industry at home to provide work for its own population. In any case, emigration on a scale sufficient to affect employment to an appreciable extent might be such as to prevent a rapid recovery when industry should begin to improve. In Great Britain the Labour Party takes the view that "neither in this country nor in the Dominions will Labour regard state-aided schemes of land settlement as a remedy for unemployment" <sup>(68)</sup>. A contrary view of emigration, as a whole, is taken by the trade union organisations in Switzerland and Italy. They look upon emigration as an actual remedy for unemployment, the Italian workers maintaining special information offices to guard the interests of all workers leaving the country.

Trade unions in countries of immigration are strongly opposed to it, arguing that it would tend to flood the labour market and increase the number of unemployed. They fear that the standard of living would be lowered. Apart from the racial antagonism involved, the entrance of workers of non-European stock is specially objected to in the United States and in the British Dominions on account of wage competition. The opinion of the American Federation of Labour has been a considerable factor in determining the policy of greater restriction of immigration by the United States Government. The Federation would prohibit the importation of labour into the United States "until such time as conditions in our country shall have become stabilised" <sup>(69)</sup>. A similar attitude is adopted in Canada <sup>(70)</sup> and Australia <sup>(71)</sup>.

Inasmuch as migration of workers does take place, the trade unions have offset the loss of membership occasioned by emigration by organising immigrant workers, thereby preventing their being used as strike-breakers and accepting lower standards than those maintained by the unions. Agreements have been made between the German and Polish Christian trade unions <sup>(72)</sup> to facilitate the admission of workers passing between the two countries to the trade unions in the country of destination. Similar arrangements have been made between the French and Belgian building workers' unions <sup>(73)</sup>. The abuse of immigrant labour for strike-breaking purposes has called forth protests from Belgian building workers <sup>(74)</sup> and from the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada <sup>(75)</sup>.

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<sup>(68)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 5, May 1922, p. 817.

<sup>(69)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. V, No. 3, Mar. 1922, p. 505.

<sup>(70)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 618.

<sup>(71)</sup> *Ibid.* p. 617.

<sup>(72)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, p. 99.

<sup>(73)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 268-269.

<sup>(74)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 792.

<sup>(75)</sup> *Ibid.* p. 791.

The movement of labour between different countries should be in response to a real demand for labour and under circumstances which assure that the incoming workers obtain positions. Hence the unions, as in Canada, advocate the placing of foreign labour through official employment exchanges. This movement to organise the placing of members internationally is exemplified especially in connection with work in the French devastated regions. The International Federation of Building Workers has set up an office for hiring labour for reconstruction work<sup>(76)</sup>, and the proposed emigration office of the Italian Federation of Building Workers is intended not only to co-operate with foreign trade unions in maintaining union rights abroad, but to organise the placing of building workers in foreign countries<sup>(77)</sup>.

A broad view of the question is taken by the Christian trade unions. For them the problem of migration raises the whole question of the standardisation of labour conditions in the different countries. The resolution adopted at the international congress at Innsbruck<sup>(78)</sup> implies that the evils connected with migration would greatly diminish if migrating workers were assured similar conditions of social well-being and protection of rights in the different countries, i. e. if "reciprocity in the matter of social legislation" were universal.

#### TRADE UNIONISM AND EDUCATION<sup>(79)</sup>

The educational work of the trade unions, which in some countries dates back many years, may be traced to two ideas, one, to strengthen their own movement by training leaders and an intelligent rank and file, the other to provide general educational facilities for the workers who have been largely deprived of them<sup>(80)</sup>.

Although the industrial depression since the war has impeded progress in educational work, the trade unions appear to be attaching growing importance to education as a factor in the general efficiency of the movement<sup>(81)</sup>, as signalled in the holding of an international con-

<sup>(76)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 22, pp. 515-517.

<sup>(77)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 928.

<sup>(78)</sup> The resolution states that "the emigration of workers ought to be organised on the basis of reciprocity in the matter of social legislation, so that immigrants and nationals receive equality of treatment. Demands on a large scale for foreign labour should be made in agreement with the labour organisations concerned". *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, p. 208.

<sup>(79)</sup> The workers' educational movement covers general, vocational, and administrative training. Usually the trade unions, Socialists, and Labour party, and the co-operative societies co-ordinate their educational efforts, while public bodies often lend financial aid. Libraries are in some countries important media of education.

<sup>(80)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 205-215: *Workers' Education in Italy*; (this article contains a useful note on the situation in Great Britain.) Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 935-936: *Workers' Education in Germany and Denmark*; Vol. VI, No. 3, Sept. 1922, pp. 335-344: *The Workers' Educational Association of Great Britain*, by Albert MANSBRIDGE; Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, pp. 527-546: *Workers' Education in Belgium*, by Henri de MAN; and pp. 639-647, *Notes on Workers' Education*; Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 814-824: *Notes on Workers' Education*.

<sup>(81)</sup> CORNELILLE MERTENS: *Working Class Education in Belgium*, in the *International Trade Union Movement*, Sept.-Oct. 1922, Amsterdam.

ference on workers' education at Brussels in August 1922<sup>(82)</sup>. This is probably the most significant event in the trade union educational movement in 1922. An enumeration of the countries represented shows how widespread this movement has become: Australia, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Switzerland, and the United States. All the organisations represented were connected with trade unions or co-operative societies. Reports were submitted by delegates on the position of workers' education in their respective countries. It was decided to discuss with the International Federation of Trade Unions of Amsterdam the possibility of setting up a permanent international office for workers' education. The President of the American Federation of Labour in a letter to the Conference wrote :

Whatever progress the Labour movement makes rests upon an educational basis. With the increasing complexities of industrial organisation, problems with which the Labour movement must deal are correspondingly intricate. No more hopeful assurance can Labour give of its desire to deal with these problems constructively than is found in its constantly widening programme for providing educational opportunities.

Though by no means the only field of education in which trade unions are interested, the training of officials and leaders is a matter which concerns them very closely. In Germany the Government has come to their aid by providing two Technical Schools of Economics and Administration, opened in 1922, and a Labour Academy, opened in the latter half of 1921<sup>(83)</sup>. The former provide training for work in state and municipal administration, trade unions, works' councils, and co-operative societies, while the latter is attended mainly by trade union officials. A labour school has been started for trade union members in Japan<sup>(84)</sup>. The projected Labour University for France is primarily "a school for militant trade unionists". In Italy the General Federation of Labour in 1921 set up a permanent trade union school in order to train the workers to become administrators in trade unions and to serve more efficiently on works' committees<sup>(85)</sup>.

Labour colleges have long been established in Great Britain. In 1922 the Trades Union Congress proposed to take over these colleges and also the Workers' Educational Trade Union Committee, a body which co-operates closely with the Workers' Educational Association. The offer was, however, refused by the Labour Colleges<sup>(86)</sup>. It is indicative of the jealousy with which certain sections of the trade union movement watch over the training of their leaders that the Labour Colleges object to any sharing of control with bodies outside the trade union movement. These colleges aim at "the education of the workers with a view to equipping them for the class struggle and aiding them in their fight against capitalism"<sup>(87)</sup>. This view is also held by the Belgian Central Committee on Workers' Education, namely, that trade union activity must be directed towards the advancement of the whole Labour movement, rather than towards a cultural improvement of the individual<sup>(88)</sup>. The Swiss workers' educational organisation proposed to

<sup>(82)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov 1922, pp. 814-815.

<sup>(83)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, pp. 640-641; also No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 819-820.

<sup>(84)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. III, No. 3, p. 165.

<sup>(85)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. III, Nos. 1 and 2, July-Aug. 1921, pp. 212-214.

<sup>(86)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 815-817; and No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 1015.

<sup>(87)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. II, No. 4, pp. 207-208.

<sup>(88)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, pp. 528-529.



follow the Belgian theory in practice with a view to preparing the workers to take a more militant and active part in the movement <sup>(89)</sup>.

In the United States, the American Federation of Labour combined the work of its Education Department with that of the Workers' Education Bureau, an institution founded in 1921 for the general education of the workers <sup>(90)</sup>. The teaching of citizenship in the public schools has been investigated by the Federation and the recommendation made that emphasis should be given to the history of the Labour movement and of the social progress for which it is responsible. In Great Britain the threatened reduction of expenditure by the Government on education met with vigorous protest from the trade unions. The membership of the (British) Workers' Educational Association, which is in close touch with the trade unions, has increased by one-third in spite of unemployment and loss of wages <sup>(91)</sup>.

In Sweden almost the whole Labour movement, without regard to a variance of opinion on political, industrial, and economic questions, is enlisted in support of the Swedish Workers' Educational Association. There has been a great increase in the number of study circles and students, which is attributable to the longer leisure enjoyed by the workers under the 8-hour day Act <sup>(92)</sup>. The Workers' Educational Association of Finland is likewise supported by the whole Labour movement. While the trade unions are all affiliated to it, their total membership does not account for more than one-sixth of the 300,000 who belong to the Association. A Workers' Academy is being established and will be opened at the beginning of 1923. Its principal aim will be the same as that of the Association itself, namely, to meet the workers' need for knowledge of social matters and for general culture. Neither by the Swedish nor by the Finnish Association is the education of militant leaders specifically provided for. Efforts in Italy have been more or less tentative <sup>(93)</sup>, while in Czechoslovakia a considerable amount of educational work has been carried on by trade unions since 1895 <sup>(94)</sup>. The rivalry of the four principal trade union organisations in that country, each with its separate educational system, has produced an intense activity on all sides, especially in the course of the last year.

#### THE INTERNATIONAL TRADE UNION MOVEMENT

There are three main currents in the international trade union movement, represented by three international federations of trade unions. In order of numerical strength they are : the International Federation of Trade Unions (Amsterdam) which has over 20,000,000 members ; the International Federation of Red Trade Unions of Moscow, whose adherents claim a membership of 12,000,000 ; and the International Confederation of Christian Trade Union with about 3,000,000 members. The very recent international organisation of Anarcho-Syndicalists, founded at the end of 1922, and representing an anarchist tendency, has not as yet become a factor in the situation.

The essential differences between these four Internationals are political. The Amsterdam International maintains friendly relations

<sup>(89)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 21, p. 484.

<sup>(90)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. IV, No. 4, Oct. 1922, pp. 645-647.

<sup>(91)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 815-817.

<sup>(92)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 19, pp. 394-395.

<sup>(93)</sup> *Ibid.* Vol. II, No. 6, pp. 334-335.

<sup>(94)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 822-824.

with the Socialist and Labour parties of Europe. It demands the socialisation of the means of production, distribution, and exchange, but at the same time it considers that the practical education of the workers for industrial democracy is the only method of replacing capitalist production. The Moscow International, on the other hand, has always been dependent upon the Communist (political) International. It also demands socialisation, but advocates revolution by violent methods and dictatorship of the proletariat as a mode of government during the transitional period. The Christian International is distinguished from the others by its preoccupation with the moral and religious aspects of social problems. It is opposed to class warfare. It admits the right of private property, though it insists upon the corresponding duties attaching thereto. The Anarcho-Syndicalist International is opposed to all kinds of political institutions ; it believes that the trade unions could become all-sufficient political and economic organisations.

The Amsterdam and Moscow Internationals differ in structure as well as in opinion. The Amsterdam International comprehends all the important national trade union federations of the world, except those of the United States and of Russia. Of these exceptions, the former finds the policy of the Amsterdam International too extreme, and the latter finds it too conservative. In contrast, the Moscow International can count only one important national trade union federation among its affiliated organisations, and that one, the All-Russian Federation of Trade Unions, provides nearly half of the estimated total membership. The rest are supposed to consist largely of minorities within trade unions affiliated to the Amsterdam International ; they are not regularly constituted trade union organisations.

The problem of constituting a united front in the trade union movement is one of much moment, and has been the object of much discussion. If the trade union Internationals differ in their political attitude, they could, nevertheless, establish a common programme of immediate aims in the matter of wages and hours, for example. A united front has occasionally been realised on the part of unions of Amsterdam and Christian tendency, e. g. on the question of hours in France and Switzerland, and on the question of wages in Germany. The Moscow International repeated at its 1922 congress the declaration in favour of a united front which it made at its 1921 congress. It affirms that it does not desire to split up the trade unions by forming rival Communist organisations ; its sympathisers are exhorted to stay in their present unions. They are to form " cells " and propagate the Communist idea with a view to capturing the trade union organisation. It was evidently impossible for the Amsterdam International to accept a " united front " on these terms, as such acceptance would have been tantamount to giving its avowed enemies a free hand to work for its destruction.

The creation by the Communists of independent trade union organisations, as in France and Czechoslovakia, may be regarded as a sign partly of weakness and partly of strength ; for, on the one hand, they have been unable to stay in the unions and capture them, and, on the other, they have proved that they possess a considerable body of followers.

In pursuance of the united front policy, the Russian unions have been demanding admission to the craft internationals associated with the Amsterdam International. In every case but one they have been refused, as it was made an essential condition of admission that the Russian unions should withdraw their support from the Moscow

International, a condition which they were, of course, unwilling to fulfil. The exception occurred in the case of the International Federation of Food Workers, which admitted the Russian union provisionally. After its admission the Russian union stated that it remained affiliated to the Moscow International and that its object was to carry on propaganda within the Food Workers' International, so as to induce it to break off relations with the Amsterdam International.

Four great congresses have marked the progress of the international trade union movement during the year: the Rome <sup>(95)</sup> and Hague <sup>(96)</sup> congresses of the Amsterdam International, the Innsbruck congress of the Christian International <sup>(97)</sup>, and the second congress of the Moscow International <sup>(98)</sup>. A fifth congress, that of the Anarcho-Syndicalists at Berlin, was notable as resulting in the formation of a new International <sup>(99)</sup>.

A characteristic of the Rome and Innsbruck congresses was that they were concerned with international economic policy <sup>(100)</sup> as well as with strictly trade union matters. At the Innsbruck congress an elaborate programme of aims on social legislation was adopted. The Hague congress was a most powerful manifestation of the pacifist policy, which has been consistently followed by the Amsterdam International ever since its reconstitution in 1919.

The assumption of political tasks by the Amsterdam International is, perhaps, the most important phenomenon of the international trade union movement during the year. It has been performing what were before the war the functions of the Socialist International. The latter collapsed at the outbreak of the war, and up to the present its successors, the Second and Vienna Internationals, have shown little sign of activity. Now, however, these two bodies are on the point of amalgamating, and in 1923 it will be interesting to see how their new organisation will collaborate with the Amsterdam International in the conduct of the political side of the labour movement.

#### THE ECONOMIC RECOVERY OF EUROPE

As has been mentioned above, the opinion of trade unions has been that the principal cause of the economic depression, the evils of which are most severely felt by the workers, is to be found in present international economic relations. Constructive proposals for the economic recovery of Europe have been made by several national trade union organisations, for example, in Great Britain <sup>(101)</sup> and Switzerland <sup>(102)</sup>. The principal contribution of labour to the solution of international economic problems is, however, the programme prepared by the International Federation of Trade Unions and submitted by it to the Genoa Conference of the Powers. It is important, not only because it is the work of an organisation representing over twenty million

<sup>(95)</sup> Ibid. Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 911-927.

<sup>(96)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. V, No. 2, pp. 39-42.

<sup>(97)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 201-211.

<sup>(98)</sup> *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. V, No. 5, pp. 189-191.

<sup>(99)</sup> Ibid. Vol. V, No. 3, p. 91.

<sup>(100)</sup> See next section.

<sup>(101)</sup> TRADES UNION CONGRESS AND LABOUR PARTY. *Unemployment: A Labour Policy*. London, 1921.

<sup>(102)</sup> *International Labour Review*. Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 929-930.

workers, but because of the far-reaching character of its proposals<sup>(103)</sup>. Side by side with this programme must be considered that prepared by the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions for its Innsbruck Congress<sup>(104)</sup>, as these two programmes correspond on a number of points. The chief remedies which are common to both programmes are : international control of raw material ; an international loan for the provision of credits to countries whose currency has depreciated ; reciprocal cancellation of war debts ; establishment of free trade ; reduction of reparations ; and disarmament.

The international control of the distribution of raw materials has been constantly advocated by the International Federation of Trade Unions ever since its Berne Conference in 1919, when it was suggested that this should be one of the economic tasks of the League of Nations. The suggestion was again put forward at the First Session of the International Labour Conference at Washington in 1919, and at the London and Rome conferences of the Federation. A just distribution of the chief raw materials needed by industry and agriculture and their withdrawal from speculative influences are regarded as essential conditions of economic restoration, but "the solution of the problem of raw materials cannot be separated from the measures that must be adopted in order to remedy the exchange situation", and therefore, "it is indispensable to arrange for the grant of credits in order to supply impoverished states with the means of resuming their industrial and commercial activity under normal conditions. These credits should be provided by means of an international loan on the security of all European nations, organised by the League of Nations and administered under its control". Nations should agree to regulate production in accordance with requirements by accurately estimating the producing capacities of the various countries, and determining for each the quantities and qualities to be consumed and produced. It would then be possible to abolish the policy of high tariffs, which "has been one of the chief factors in raising the cost of living, lowering the standard of life for the workers, reducing their productive power, and demoralising the proletariat through increasing unemployment". The League of Nations is generally regarded as the proper instrument for carrying out this programme of economic reorganisation, chiefly because it would strengthen the League by bringing it into more vital contact with the immediate economic interests of the peoples<sup>(105)</sup>.

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<sup>(103)</sup> Ibid. pp. 917-920.

<sup>(104)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 209-210.

<sup>(105)</sup> Cf. LÉON JOUHAUX. *The International Federation of Trade Unions and Economic Reconstruction*. Amsterdam, International Federation of Trade Unions, 1922.

## Employers' Organisations

THREE instances of appreciation of the work of the International Labour Organisation are illustrated in the following notes: the Federation of Master Painters and Decorators of England and Wales speaks with astonishment of the new spirit in which the white lead question has been discussed and an agreement arrived at by means of the International Labour Organisation; the United Planters' Association of South India recommends its members to take certain steps calculated to ameliorate conditions of labour along the lines of the decisions of the Third Session of the International Labour Conference regarding the employment of women and children in agriculture; the Jugo-Slav Employers' Association, in urging its claim to be consulted in the drafting of laws concerning industry, stipulates that the international obligations of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom shall be observed in so far as they can be reconciled with the undeveloped conditions of industry in that country. Two further passages would seem to indicate that employers' associations are realising more and more plainly that any amelioration of conditions of work likely to place them at a competitive disadvantage must necessarily be made the subject of international agreement. The Central Committee of (French) Shipowners, in their manifesto on the hours of work in the French mercantile marine, point out that the 8-hour day was introduced "on the tacit understanding that it was conditional on Foreign Powers following the example of France"; and that, although by the Decree of 5 September the conditions of application of the 8-hour day Act have been amended, the Government has explicitly pledged itself that French seamen shall never be compelled to work under conditions inferior to those prevailing on foreign vessels, so that this Decree will become null and void so soon as an international Convention is adopted providing for improved conditions for seamen. In Great Britain, an editorial in *Imperial Commerce*, the organ of the Imperial Commercial Association, commenting on the possibilities of unemployment insurance by industries, argues that, if the costs of unemployment are added to the charges made for goods, British industry will be at a disadvantage on the world's markets. It points out that there is machinery existent and provided for by the League of Nations to stabilise working conditions in competitive international industries and says that there is "no hope of insurance by industries being any more successful than the present scheme until some international arrangement has been arrived at".

This question of unemployment insurance by industries has recently been engaging much attention in Great Britain (1).

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(1) See *Notes on Unemployment Problems* in this issue, below.

As pointed out in the survey of the tendencies of employers' organisations published in the December 1922 issue of the *Review*, the adjustment of wages according to the variations of the cost of living index, though often resorted to in practice, is frequently condemned by employers' associations on theoretical grounds. The account of the activities of the Flour Milling Employers' Federation in Great Britain provides an instance of the smooth working of this method of adjustment; the criticisms voiced at the quarterly meeting of the Glasgow Chamber of Commerce, on the other hand, are typical objections made against the system.

One of the major functions of employers' organisations is to render help to governments in the making and amending of laws. In the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom the necessity of organising such a service is given as the paramount reason for the formation of the Central Organisation of Jugo-Slav Employers. In Esthonia the Esthonian Employers' Association has set up a legal department and a statistical department for this purpose. In the United States, where this branch of activity is particularly remarkable, the Chamber of Commerce of the United States has recently asked to be allowed to present evidence in the event of the Coal Commission appointed by the President considering any project for the nationalisation of that industry.

Some account is given in these notes of new associations of employers in the United States. Many of the objects and activities of these organisations are particularly noteworthy, inasmuch as they are seldom paralleled in other countries. The employment bureau and the investigation department of the Philadelphia Textile Manufacturers' Association which, among other things, are designed to prevent incompetent and undesirable people from interfering with the peace, development, and prosperity of the industry are remarkable in this way. The Industrial Association of San Francisco, which makes provision for enquiring into complaints lodged by employees working under open shop conditions and claims that in every instance the difficulties in question have been overcome to the satisfaction of both sides, is another interesting example. The Chicago Citizens' Committee, which has as its purpose the enforcement of the Landis Award and is intent on disciplining not only workers but also employers who depart from it, is likewise distinctly original in conception. The Open Shop Conference of Connecticut with its general programme of propaganda, education of employees, and defence of its members is more regular in form, but the lines along which it proposes to obtain these desired ends are unusual, at any rate outside the United States: "to protect sound employment relations established by members from the destructive influence of outsiders", "to aid members in maintaining or rehabilitating their working organisations", and "to protect the markets of members against unlawful attacks" are objects which can only be accomplished by means which would be considered extraordinary in most highly industrialised countries.

The importance of the question of apprenticeship is very fully

recognised by employers' associations and the difficulties inherent in the system frequently come up for discussion. The National Federation of Building Trades Employers of Great Britain and Ireland, in their half-yearly meeting on 11 October 1922, declared very strongly against sharing control of apprenticeship with workers' organisations, although, as the President of the Federation pointed out, some such form of dual control would probably be necessary in order to secure apprentices in sufficient numbers. The American Gear Manufacturers' Association in their convention of 9 to 11 October gave considerable attention to the important problem of how best to retain apprentices until they have completed their full course, and interesting accounts were given of methods which have been found useful.

Some significant minor movements in the process of organisation of employers may also be distinguished. The details given of employers' associations in newly-constituted states — Esthonia, Poland, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom — show how rapidly organisation proceeded immediately after the conclusion of the world war. The adherence of the Association of Employers in the Finnish Metal Industry to the Permanent Committee of the Employers' Organisations of the Scandinavian Mechanical Engineering Industry represents another step in the close collaboration which exists between employers in these four northern countries. The recent incorporation of the Chicago Citizens' Committee to enforce the Landis Award, and the formation of the Open Shop Conference of Connecticut and of the Industrial Association of San Francisco, (all referred to above) the first of which is indirectly, the other two directly, engaged in promoting the open shop, show that, although this movement in the United States has declined somewhat in intensity during the last eighteen months, it is nevertheless still very active.

### **Czechoslovakia**

At a meeting of the general office of the *Federation of Czechoslovak Manufacturers* held on 14 December, Mr. Hodacz, Secretary-General of the Federation, reviewed the present economic situation with particular reference to unemployment. On 1 November the total number of unemployed in Czechoslovakia amounted to 266,694 persons, as compared with 232,394 on 1 October. Since then the increase in unemployment had proceeded more slowly, but although it might be supposed that the crisis had reached its culminating point, it was not reasonable to expect that it would immediately decrease in severity. In most industries orders are not lacking, but the cost of production is so high that the factories are only engaged on part operation. The industries which are suffering are those dependent to the greatest extent upon coal and which are accordingly most affected by increase in the freight rates on coal and raw materials.

Mr. Hodacz stated that such improvements have been made in the technical and commercial organisation of industry that it has been able to economise in the number of persons employed by increasing their efficiency. As a consequence, the reduction in prices has been greater than the reduction in wages. It is intended to set up a

standardisation commission in order to encourage efforts making for an improvement in industrial efficiency.

Since the beginning of the year, reductions in wages have been made in Czechoslovakia ranging between 20 and 30 per cent., very rarely exceeding the latter figure. The workers, it is stated, have shown the greatest goodwill in adapting themselves rapidly to the exigencies of the situation. Mr. Hodacz pointed out that the Government could do much to ameliorate the effect of the crisis; in particular, it might bring about the reduction in railway rates which is urgently needed.

### **Esthonia**

Mr. Harry Taube, the Employers' Delegate for Esthonia at the Fourth Session of the International Labour Conference held in Geneva from 18 October to 3 November 1922, has supplied the International Labour Office with some details of the organisation and activities of the *Esthonian Employers' Association*.

This Association was formed in February 1917 with the object of co-ordinating the policy followed by Esthonian employers with regard to wages, the food of the workers, and the supply of raw materials and coal. To provide food to workers a special department was set up by the Association to purchase foodstuffs and footwear abroad. This department was closed down in June 1921, conditions in Esthonia having then improved to such an extent that all difficulties in obtaining articles of prime necessity had disappeared.

The fall in the rate of exchange which began in the middle of 1917 and continued until October 1920 and the accompanying rise in the cost of living made it necessary for the Association to take measures for the regulation of wages and salaries. This has been its chief activity. When Esthonia was declared an independent state, the work of the Employers' Association took a wider scope. In particular, it was able to assist the Government in matters such as legislation for the protection of labour, taxation, conclusions of treaties of commerce, and economic measures generally. In order that the Association might render efficient help in economic reconstruction and organisation of the country, a legal department and a statistical department were formed. The former prepares drafts of new laws and amendments to laws already proposed to the Diet and advises in all legal matters connected with industry. The statistical department collects and files all available data concerning production, wages, cost of living, and unemployment. The Association is also responsible by law for the inspection of boilers and electrical installations, and a special organisation, acting under the close supervision of the Association, has been set up to perform this work.

### **Finland**

A meeting of delegates of the Association of Mechanical Engineers in Norway, the Swedish Engineering Association, and the Association of Employers in the Danish Iron and Steel Industry, held in Denmark in December 1919, decided to set up a permanent committee to facilitate future co-operation between these organisations. The committee is known as the Permanent Committee of the Employers' Organisations of the Scandinavian Mechanical Engineering Industry (*Skandinaviska Verkstradsindustriens Arbetsgivareorganisationers Permanent Utsakott*). Meetings are regularly held to discuss matters of common interest and exchange information on conditions in the Scandinavian countries.



At the fifth meeting of the committee recently held in Stockholm the Association of Employers in the Finnish Metal Industry (*Finska Metallindustriens Arbetsgivareförbund*) was represented for the first time.

### France

On 29 September the Central Committee of Shipowners (*Comité central des armateurs de France*) published a manifesto on the hours of work in the French mercantile marine, of which the following is part.

The Federation of Seamen would like to make the public forget that France is the only maritime nation which has introduced the 8-hour day on board ship. That step was taken with the loyal co-operation of shipowners, on the tacit understanding that it was conditional on foreign nations following the example of France. Since then, however, foreign shipowners and seamen have rejected the 8-hour day. It was rejected by the International Conference on questions relating to seamen, held at Genoa in 1920<sup>(2)</sup>. The International Joint Maritime Commission, at a meeting held in March 1922, endorsed the decision of the Genoa Conference. The International Seafarers' Federation in turn rejected the 8-hour day at a meeting held in July 1922 and gave French seamen an example of foresight and patriotism. Seamen of other nationalities have realised that, at the present time, the mercantile marine is suffering from the world economic crisis, for which there is no immediate remedy, and that it is necessary to reduce the cost of shipping and not increase it. Was it not logical, therefore, that France should give up an attempt which she had continued for two years, which handicapped her mercantile marine in the sphere of international competition?

The Federation of Seamen is endeavouring to mislead the public and the seamen with regard to the nature and scope of the Decree of 5 September. The Decree does not modify the Act of 2 August 1919. The Council of State, whose duty it is to guarantee the legality of new measures, has approved it. Under the Act of 2 August 1919, hours of "actual work"<sup>(3)</sup> were limited to eight per day. The Decree of 5 September merely defines "actual work" at sea in a manner in conformity with actual conditions. Thus in the case of heavy work in the engine-room, a maximum of eight hours is fixed, whereas in the case of work on deck, which is of an intermittent character, twelve hours on duty is considered as equivalent to eight hours of actual work. In port a maximum 8-hour day is stipulated for both deck-hands and engine-room hands.

The Decree of 5 September is provisional. In amending the conditions of application of the 8-hour day Act, the Government has explicitly pledged itself that French seamen shall never be compelled to work under conditions inferior to those prevailing on foreign vessels. The Decree of 5 September will therefore become null and void as soon as an international Convention is adopted, providing for improved conditions for seamen.

### Great Britain

At the half-yearly meeting of the *National Federation of Building Trades Employers of Great Britain and Ireland*, held in London on 11 October 1922, resolutions were unanimously adopted in favour of bringing wages and working conditions in the building trade into line with other large industries in the country; refusing to set up a proposed Joint Committee to take over the work of the Educational Committee

<sup>(2)</sup> At the Second Session of the International Labour Conference (Genoa 1920) the proposed Draft Convention for the extension of the 8-hour day to seafarers failed by one vote to obtain the two-thirds majority required by the Labour Section of the Peace Treaty to make it effective.

<sup>(3)</sup> *Travail effectif*.

and the Welfare Committee of the late Joint Industrial Council for the Building Industry; and declaring in favour of the abrogation of the 44-hour week in the industry.

Speakers on the proposal to bring wages, hours, and conditions in the building trade into line with other large industries in the country pointed out that one of the most vitally necessary things was the stabilisation of wages for a period. It was considered that fluctuations in wages must be avoided, otherwise those likely to give work would withhold it, thinking to get better terms by waiting.

The discussion on the proposal to set up a Joint Committee to take over the work of the Educational Committee and the Welfare Committee of the late Joint Industrial Council revealed that the meeting on the whole was very strongly against dual control of apprenticeship. The president pointed out, however, that a ratio of 25 to 33 per cent. of apprentices to trained men was necessary for the maintenance of an adequate supply of skilled labour. He quoted figures showing that the number of trained men in the building industry has progressively decreased from 720,000 skilled men in 1901 to 640,000 in 1911, 423,000 in 1914, and only 324,000 in 1920. He referred to the possibility that the operatives were responsible for the small number of apprentices available and gave as his opinion that until the employers agreed to some system whereby the operatives should have some control in the training of apprentices they would never get the number of apprentices they ought to have. The general consensus of opinion, however, was that, if the employers had to manage apprenticeship, they wanted to manage it purely by themselves, and the resolution declaring the constitution of a Joint Committee inopportune was carried unanimously.

The resolution unanimously adopted, opposing the continuance of the 44-hour week in the industry, was as follows.

In view of the large number of unfederated employers who have persistently disregarded the National Agreement as to working hours and the tendency of a large and increasing number of operatives to support that view, who not only willingly work longer hours but continuously press the members of this Federation to allow them to work longer hours without overtime rates, especially in the summer months, this Federation to press through its representatives upon the National Wages and Conditions Council for an agreement for a longer working week at the earliest possible moment.

At the annual conference of the *National Federation of Master Painters and Decorators of England and Wales*, which opened at Harrogate on 16 October 1922, very considerable attention was given to the White Lead Convention adopted at the Third Session of the International Labour Conference held in Geneva during November 1921. The president of the Federation, in his opening address, congratulated Mr. Butterworth on the manner in which he had represented the employers' interests at this Conference, and declared that "it was now up to them all to carry out the proposed regulation for the protection of the workmen".

Mr. Butterworth read the report of the Materials Committee, of which he is secretary. The report stated that the most important part of the Committee's work during the past year had been that relating to the use of white lead in painting processes. It reminded the conference of the agreed settlement which had been reached on the white lead controversy, and stated that a Bill was at the moment being drafted by the Home Office. The report further stated that, as a result of conversations between Mr. Butterworth and the Home Office,

the question of the form and language of the proposed regulations had been referred to the Painters' and Decorators' Joint Industrial Council (representative of the operatives' societies and the employers' federations in England and Wales). The Joint Industrial Council had succeeded in drafting a code of regulations embodying the principles decided upon by the International Labour Conference. The report concluded with the following paragraph :

Finally, it is fitting that the Federation should recognise the new temper in which the white lead problem is now being approached. For many years controversy was keen, and often embittered. The Government, the manufacturers of white lead, the operatives, and ourselves were acting separately, and were often in open conflict with each other. As a result of the events of the past year, the controversy is stilled, and the whole of these bodies are working in friendly co-operation to the end that no man shall suffer from preventable disease, that the agreement reached at Geneva shall be put into operation as early as possible, and that our industry may not be unduly hampered in rendering its best service to the community.

At the quarterly meeting of the *Glasgow Chamber of Commerce*, held on 17 October, Sir William F. Russell referred to a resolution adopted by the Chamber calling for an enquiry into the system of adjustment of wages by the cost of living index number. This method, he said, produced unfair inequalities in the wages of workmen, handicapped trade in international competition, restricted employment and impaired national prosperity. He was convinced that there could be no great improvement in export trade until this matter was thoroughly investigated. For Great Britain to maintain its position, increase its exports, and decrease unemployment, working costs must be reduced. The resolution in question would be sent forward to the Association of British Chambers of Commerce.

Mr. George A. Mitchell, vice-president of the Chamber, dealt particularly with the reductions in railway rates in Scotland, which came into force on 17 October. He considered that, substantial as these reductions were, they still left many of the local rates higher than those of England. While recognising the difficulties of the Scottish railways, Scottish traders objected to being kept in a worse position than their competitors.

In *The Bulletin*, an occasional publication of the *Flour Milling Employers' Federation*, dated November 1922, some interesting details are given of the activities of the Federation working through the National Joint Industrial Council set up under the Whitley Council Scheme.

In view of the probability of a new wages agreement having to be negotiated at the end of 1922 to replace the agreement concluded in February 1922, the Federation has compiled a summary of wages paid in other industries. The material for this summary was obtained from other employers' organisations and national joint industrial councils, and it is stated that this liaison work is regarded as one of the most valuable of the many activities of the Federation. In view of the fact that a further wage reduction was due to take effect as from the first pay day in November, a notice setting out the reductions involved had been sent to each federated firm for posting in a conspicuous place. This notice was signed by the chairman, vice-chairman, and secretary of the National Joint Industrial Council. The

reductions are based on the fall in the cost of living, as recorded in the *Labour Gazette*, since the last reduction made in May.

Representative employers of labour from Holland and Japan have made appointments, through the Ministry of Labour, with the Office of the Federation, to discuss the work of the employers' organisation and of the Whitley Council. The Flour Milling Employers' Federation expresses itself as thoroughly in favour of such interchange of views.

Owing to the fact that employers in the flour-milling industry have been finding it increasingly difficult to absorb into the ranks of their adult staffs youths in their employment attaining the age of 21 years, the National Joint Industrial Council has decided to set up a register of youths employed. Youths will be registered as they reach the age of 18, so that if an employer in one part of the country wants a youth who has been trained in a particular branch of the milling industry with a view to retaining his services after he reaches the age of 21, it should be easy for such an employer, and for youths anxious to better themselves, to find mutual satisfaction through the use of this national register. The Federation points out that if there were a little more elasticity in the agreements governing the wages of youths, it might be possible for an employer to keep a youth in his employ at the youth's rate of pay until he could absorb him on to the adult staff, but under the present agreement a youth, on reaching the age of 21, is automatically entitled to the adult rate of pay, although the nature of his work may be no different. In the present state of trade millers cannot afford to increase their expenditure in this way and are being forced to dismiss these youths as they reach the age of 21 years.

The Minister of Labour has asked employers' organisations and Whitley councils for their views on the question whether unemployment insurance should be administered by the industries themselves rather than, as at present, by the government. The Flour Milling Employers' Federation has expressed its willingness to explore the proposal, and the trade unions, who originally were not in favour of such a measure, are now reported to be regarding it in a more favourable light. Accordingly a joint sub-committee has been formed to go into the matter in detail, and to draft a scheme applicable to the flour-milling industry. It is argued that the proposal would appear to be an attractive one, since the flour-milling industry should be able to carry its own unemployment insurance at a lower cost than the present cost of administration by the state, unemployment being comparatively uncommon in the flour-milling industry, although under-employment is still a very pressing problem.

The November issue of *Imperial Commerce*, the organ of the *Imperial Commercial Association*, discussing the question of unemployment, points out that there are two general ways of dealing with the problem—the state may pay a general unemployment allowance, or industries may themselves make their own arrangements to provide for their workers. The first method, it is stated, has been tried and is generally condemned. The other, which so far has not been tried in Great Britain, has many merits, not the least of which is that it would do much to prevent malingering. There is, however, this difficulty: if the costs of unemployment are added to the charges made for goods, the consumer must pay this extra cost. If British industry makes such arrangements and other countries competing with it on the

world's markets do not, it will be at a competitive disadvantage. The article continues :

Our goods will not sell by reason of their higher prices. The same thing was experienced in the domestic trades of this country before the era of the trade boards. As soon as hours and wages in trades were stabilised, competition was on a fairer basis. There is machinery existent and provided for by the League of Nations to attain a similar end in competitive international industries. We see no hope of insurance by industries being any more successful than the present scheme until some international arrangement has been arrived at. We should like to see the new Minister of Labour taking up this important matter at an early date, for on it depends that greater satisfaction of the worker with his lot which must precede any new anticipations of peace and tranquillity.

## India

The *United Planters' Association of South India*, at their annual general meeting held at Bangalore in August last, passed a resolution which has been communicated to the International Labour Office by the Department of Industry of the Government of India. The text of this resolution, which relates to the decisions of the Third Session of the International Labour Conference regarding the employment of women and children in agricultural work, is as follows.

That, in view of the Conventions and Recommendations passed at the International Labour Conference at Geneva in 1921 regarding agricultural labourers, this Association recommends all district associations affiliated thereto voluntarily to guarantee :

(1) all women employees a period of rest before and after childbirth, as laid down in the rule applicable to women in government employ ;

(2) all women and young persons between 14 and 18 employed at least 9 hours' consecutive rest in 24 ;

(3) all children under 14 employed at least 10 hours' consecutive rest in 24 ; and

(4) that no children under 14 shall be employed during the hours fixed for school attendance, or at any time in such a way as to prejudice their attendance at school.

## Italy

The Executive Committee of the General Confederation of Italian Industry (*Confederazione generale dell'industria italiana*) has communicated to the press the following resolution adopted at a recent session.

The General Confederation of Industry reaffirms its intention to observe the provisions of all agreements concluded with the representatives of the workers ;

points out that all organisations affiliated to the Confederation have fully recognised the necessity of respecting the agreements concluded with the workers until such time as they expire or are cancelled in a regular manner ;

considers that it is particularly necessary to follow this policy at the present moment, when certain of the workers' organisations are considerably weakened ;

recalls its previous declaration to the effect that the agreements between employers and workers should be adapted to conditions peculiar to a certain region, district, or establishment and that it would be contrary to the interests of both industry and the workers to conclude general or national agreements ;

decides to adhere to this policy even when the contracting labour organisation has been dissolved or changed ;

reserves to affiliated organisations, or, failing them, to itself, the right to examine and decide any exceptional cases that may arise ;

requests all affiliated organisations to notify to the Confederation the names of undertakings which fail to follow these provisions, even if they do not belong to the said organisations.

A Legislative Decree which came into force on 29 October 1922 lays down conditions for the official registration of employers' and workers' organisations in Italy (<sup>4</sup>) Associations of employers in industry, commerce, and agriculture, the chief function of which is the protection of their collective interests in questions concerning industrial relations, are eligible for registration. These registered associations will elect representatives to sit on the various councils and public bodies.

The associations are classified into four groups, according as to whether they are national in character or representative of a part of the country only (inter-regional, regional, provincial, or local) and according as they represent industrial, agricultural, or commercial employers in general, or employers in a single industry or special branch of commerce or agriculture. Federations of associations are also eligible for registration.

Any decisions involving an amendment of the rules of a registered association have to be communicated to the competent committee in charge of registration, in order that the latter may ascertain that the amendments comply with the provisions of the Decree. Every registered association must also transmit a list of its members (individual members or affiliated associations) to the local inspectorate and to the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare within the first quarter of each year. In the case of employers' associations this list must state the average number of workers employed per undertaking.

### Japan

On 16 October a meeting attended by representatives of 26 of the 55 smaller companies belonging to the *Japan Cotton Spinners' Association* passed a resolution urging that in view of the present trade depression the Association should restrict output by 30 per cent. in order to prevent a collapse of prices. Some of the members present are reported to have argued in favour of a partial, if not complete, abolition of night work.

This movement in favour of abolition of night work is said to be gaining ground even in the larger cotton-spinning companies. Among those in favour of it is Mr. Wada, president of one of the chief cotton-spinning firms in Japan. Mr. Wada strongly disapproves of the curtailment of operations for the purpose of keeping up prices at a time when the country as a whole is struggling to reduce prices, but is quite prepared to support the abolition of night work and "to take advantage of the present situation to settle certain labour problems in accordance with the decisions of the First International Labour Conference". In his opinion, the abolition of work between 10 p. m. and 5 a. m. should be a permanent measure, and not a temporary provision for maintaining prices. He considers also that it should be accompanied by the reduction of working hours from the present 10-hour or 11-hour day to an 8-hour day.

An informal meeting of the committee of the Cotton Spinners' Association held on 21 October replied to the representatives of the smaller

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(<sup>4</sup>) The application of this Decree to workers' organisations will be discussed in the next issue of the *Review*.

companies, dissenting from their proposal to restrict output on the grounds that the profits of the cotton-spinning industry are even now larger than those obtaining in any other industry. A further meeting of the small companies held on 27 October decided to ask the committee of the Association to consider measures likely to meet the difficulties of the smaller companies.

At a recent meeting of the *Commission of Investigation into Industry and Foreign Trade of the Osaka Chambers of Commerce* it was decided to undertake a propaganda campaign with the object of increasing the efficiency of labour. A number of specific measures were agreed upon, particularly that some 30,000 posters calculated to encourage efficiency should be distributed to factories, schools, unions, public bodies, and the larger shops in the city; that lecture courses on increased efficiency should be given to the public and in a number of factories; and that the Department of Education and other public bodies concerned should be asked to include in the text books of primary schools chapters on efficiency and general knowledge of industrial machinery.

### Poland

Mr. Jastrzebowski, Technical Adviser to the Employers' Delegate for Poland at the Fourth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva, 18 October to 3 November 1922, has supplied the International Labour Office with some details concerning the organisation of employers in Poland.

Before the war there were a number of employers' associations in Poland of a local character, but since the foundation of the Polish Republic in 1918 all the associations set up have been national in scope. All the industrial, commercial, and financial associations, to the number of 55, are affiliated to a central organisation, known as the Central Association of Industry, Mines, Commerce, and Finance (*Centralny Związek Polskiego Przemysłu Górnictwa, Handlu i Finansów*). Each association has a special section to deal with labour questions in the branch of industry which it represents; some of the associations also have special commissions dealing with labour questions. The functions of these sections and commissions include the fixing of wage rates in agreement with representatives of the workers' unions and the giving of legal advice concerning collective agreements. The Central Association also has a Labour Commission, which corresponds to the commissions for labour questions in the affiliated organisations, and there is a special Labour Section in the central office. The purpose in both cases is to co-ordinate the work of the various associations and to settle general labour questions, such as co-operation in the preparation of legislation, relations with international employers' organisations and with the International Labour Office, the collection of statistics, the provision of legal advice, and the elaboration of general principles to guide the activities of the affiliated organisations. Special employers' organisations dealing exclusively with labour questions exist only in the districts which were formerly subject to Prussia and Austria. At Poznań and Bydgoszcz, for example, there are employers' associations embracing all branches of industry in the province of Posen. There are also a number of chambers of employers in the mineral oil industry; all these organisations are in close touch with the Polish Central Association. The agricultural employers have their own organisation, the Association of Organisations of Landowners, being the central

body of a number of local associations. The purpose of this organisation is similar to that of the industrial organisations, except that the collective agreements drawn up are national in scope.

### **Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom**

A Conference convened by the Central Organisation of Jugo-Slav Employers (*Glavni Savez Industrijalaca Jugoslavije*) was held at Belgrade on 18 September 1922 to consider the effects of recent social legislation on industry. Almost all associations of employers in industry, commerce, and handicrafts throughout the country were represented. The conference expressed its disapproval of the recent social policy of the Government, and particularly protested against the practice of drafting laws affecting the interests of industry and commerce without consulting the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, the Ministry of Forests and Mines, and the industrial organisations affected. The conference considered that, in not consulting the competent industrial organisations, the Government had not conformed to the provisions of the Serbian Industrial Code and the law concerning chambers of commerce applicable to the Provinces previously part of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. They demanded that in future the drafting of laws concerning industry and commerce should be entrusted to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, which would collaborate with other Ministries, where necessary, and the competent employers' and workers' organisations. The conference also demanded that the Act for the Protection of Labour, the Labour Inspection Act, and part of the Lodgings Act should be suspended until they could be replaced by new legislation, and that the Insurance of Workers Act should be revised. It was stipulated that in the drafting of new measures the international obligations of the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom should be observed in so far as these could be reconciled with the undeveloped conditions of industry in the country.

Mr. Yovanovitch, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Employers' Delegate at the Fourth Session of the International Labour Conference held at Geneva, 18 October to 3 November 1922, has supplied the International Labour Office with some details concerning the organisation of employers in his country.

On the termination of the world war, when a single state was formed by the union of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, the need for a strong organisation of employers was felt in many directions. In particular, questions closely affecting industrial interests were settled by the Government without the collaboration or assistance of representatives of industry. On the initiative of the employers' federations of Ljubljana and Zagreb and the Chamber of Industry of Belgrade, meetings were held and a federation formed, comprising all employers throughout the country, under the title of the Central Organisation of Jugo-Slav Employers, referred to above. It is proposed to hold conferences at least three times a year, the delegates to which will be nominated by the employers' federations and the federations of chambers of commerce. An executive committee and a secretariat will also be constituted. This organisation will deal with all questions affecting Serb-Croat-Slovene industry, in particular, the organisation of employers' associations by industries and by districts and financial, commercial, and others matters affecting employers. The headquarters of the secretariat will be at Belgrade. The formation of this central



organisation is regarded as the first step towards the centralisation of industry in the country for purposes of self-defence and development, but it is argued that this centralisation cannot be complete until uniform legislation has been introduced throughout the Kingdom, thus eliminating the present difficulties arising from a diversity of systems and methods.

### United States

On 6 November Mr. Julius H. Barnes, president of the *Chamber of Commerce of the United States*, addressed a letter to the Coal Commission appointed by President Harding asking that the Chamber be given an opportunity to present the views of organised business and industry in the event of the Commission seriously considering any proposal for the nationalisation of the coal industry. The portion of the letter relevant to this request is as follows.

The Chamber of Commerce of the United States sincerely desires to be helpful in the investigation carried on by the Commission. We assume that your direct contact with representatives of the mine workers and of the coal operators will provide you with accurate and comprehensive information on the practical phases of coal production and distribution. I feel, however, that in the progress of this investigation there may develop some phases in which the Commission will wish some method of communication or contact with large industrial users and consumers of coal and that at that point the Chamber, with its large underlying membership in general industry, may be of service to you, and I now offer the facilities of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States in the service of your investigation, at any time and in any manner you may indicate.

I do desire at this time to ask you that, if in the course of your investigation your Commission proposes to give serious consideration to any project or plan of nationalisation of the industry or of government operation in any form in connection with it, the Chamber may be given an opportunity to present the views of organised business and industry. We recognise the fact that the disastrous consequences of the nationalisation of various industries in Russia and other countries in Europe, the drain upon national revenues of government-operated services in Europe, such as railroads, telegraph, and telephone, have discredited properly these phases of the relation of government and industry to such an extent that serious consideration of any recommendation tending in that direction may not be given by your Commission. We have no desire to burden your record needlessly, and therefore content ourselves with thus expressing the clear conviction of business and industry that deterioration and disaster follow the injection of government into industry, and ask to be allowed to present the evidence and the argument, at the proper time, before your Commission, if serious consideration is given to any phase of this relation.

The convention of the *American Gear Manufacturers' Association*, held in Chicago from 9 to 11 October 1922, devoted considerable attention to the subject of apprenticeship. In a report prepared by the Industrial Relations Committee it was pointed out that there is an acute shortage of general all-round mechanics; it was noted that young men are usually assigned to specialised tasks and shops are either too busy to train new men or have given up teaching apprentices for the reason that, once trained or partly trained, they leave for other shops offering slightly higher wages. It was stated that a real need existed for a practicable system of training apprentices, and co-operation between shops for the purpose of such training was suggested. Similar co-operation to prevent apprentices breaking their contracts and going to other shops was also indicated as a necessary part of the plan.

Mr. P. C. Molter, Superintendent of the Department of Industrial Education of the National Metal Trades Association, enumerated various plans for training apprentices. He mentioned training within an individual plant; the pooling of supervision or instruction by a group of employers; training in trade preparatory, trade continuation, and trade training schools, supported by Federal, State, and local funds; and the plan whereby apprentices alternately attend school and work in shops. Mr. Molter also outlined the scheme which has been worked out by the Metal Trades Association under which a curriculum has been provided, rates of pay have been fixed, periodical examinations held, and certificates issued. In fixing the rates of pay the aim has been to discourage apprentices from breaking their contracts. In the first year the apprentice receives 33½ per cent. of the journeyman's wages. This percentage is steadily increased until the last year, when a wage of 85 per cent. of that of the journeyman is paid. Certificates are issued on the satisfactory termination of the apprenticeship, as a means of identifying apprentices who have completed their training and so preventing those who have broken their contracts from obtaining employment as journeymen. Two other methods which have been successfully employed by a number of manufacturers to ensure apprentices completing their training are to supply the apprentice with tools as he progresses with his work, so that by the time he has completed his course he is in possession of a complete set, and the other is to give the apprentice a bonus when he finishes his training.

A discussion of the subject by various members of the society showed a consensus of opinion that there was no way of holding apprentices to their contracts except through moral suasion.

The *Chicago Citizens' Committee to enforce the Landis Award* <sup>(\*)</sup> has now been incorporated as a permanent organisation. It is announced that it will follow the policy of supporting those employers and unions which accept the terms and conditions of the Landis award, but that in those trades where the unions do not accept the terms of this award "work shall continue by workmen who are willing to work regardless of their union affiliations. These men will be protected and these trades will be permanently established on the basis of the open shop". Contractors who refuse to operate under the Landis award are considered to have forfeited all claim to the encouragement or support of the public. The Citizens' Committee is also pledged to the policy that "the sale and use of material going into building operations shall be free from arbitrary restrictions".

The Citizens' Committee has, in addition, drawn up a number of "principles established by the Landis award" which it will uphold. These include the peaceful adjustment of disputes by arbitration without stoppage of work either individually or collectively; the removal of restrictions on output, including such concrete examples as the following — "any journeyman may use in his work the tools of any other trade", and "small tasks of 30 minutes' duration in any one day belonging to any one trade may be performed by any other trade

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(\*) The Landis award provided for wage reductions and ruled against practices hindering construction work. *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 280.

at the discretion of the employer " ; payment for overtime at one and a half times rates for the first 2½ hours beyond the regular working day and at double rate for overtime work beyond this and on Saturday afternoons, Sundays, and holidays ; arrangements whereby in the case of scarcity of labour non-union men may work with union men until such times as union men may be obtained, and whereby employers may employ or discharge whomsoever of the union they please and employees may work for whomsoever they see fit ; recognition of the foreman as the agent of the employer.

According to a handbook issued by the Committee, 1,286 contractors, 417 architects, and about 100 engineers are supporting this campaign to bring all construction work in Chicago under the Landis award.

The *Open Shop Conference of Connecticut* is the name of an organisation recently formed for the purpose of "educating employers, employees, legislative bodies, and the public to a better understanding of industrial problems, of the economic and social issues of the closed and open shop, and of the inherent justice of the American plan of individual liberty", and to promote "closer and mutual understanding between employers and employees and to protect the rights of individuals and firms in contracts of employment as guaranteed by the Federal and State constitutions and laws". Other objects of the Conference are :

- To show that the burden of uneconomic working conditions must be borne by the consumers.

- To provide means of educating the employees of the members as to the problems of business and thereby to assist them in understanding the dangers of destructive radicalism.

- To study and advise members as to plans and experiments that are being tried out to secure and maintain better employment relations.

- To uphold fair wages and fair opportunity for the advancement of each man according to his merits.

- To study the subject of all kinds of industrial betterments and to provide for such improvements in directions which are desirable and practicable.

- To assist in securing and maintaining proper apprenticeship systems.

- To support appropriate legislation for the betterment of industrial relations and open shop principles.

- To insure everyone in his right to earn a living regardless of his membership or non-membership in any organisation.

- To protect sound employment relations established by members from the disrupting influences of outsiders.

- To assist members in defending themselves against unjust attacks upon the rights of themselves or their employees, and to that end to conduct appropriate legal proceedings for their protection.

- To aid members in maintaining or rehabilitating their working organisations.

- To protect the markets of members against unlawful attacks.

The *Industrial Association of San Francisco*, which has as its object the introduction of the American or open shop plan of labour relations in that city, has announced that the lithographic industry has now adopted the open shop system. The Association has previously been successful in introducing 'the American plan' throughout the San Francisco building industry, metal trades (including shipyards and foundries), chemical manufactures, the candy industry, and the principal taxi-cab companies.

The American plan, it is stated, involves the employment of each worker as an individual, without regard to any organisation to which he may belong. It is understood that his belonging to such an organisation does not impair his position in any respect. The Association undertakes to see that the wages and working conditions of men so employed are maintained on a satisfactory basis. All workers, either union or non-union, are invited to bring to the attention of the Association any complaints concerning the enforcement of working rules established by the Association or concerning unfair treatment by employers. It is stated that hundreds of such complaints have been filed by individual workers, as well as by representatives of various craft unions, and that so far every case has been adjusted to the satisfaction of all concerned. It is further reported that a number of contractors who have taken advantage of the new conditions by paying their workers below scale, working them overtime without proper pay, or otherwise mistreating them, have been dealt with firmly by the Association, and the awards of the impartial wage board and working rules established by the Association have been rigorously enforced.

According to the Annual Report of the *Philadelphia Textile Manufacturers' Association*, one of the most valuable activities of the Association during the past year had been the work of the Textile Workers' Free Employment Bureau, supported entirely from the treasury of the Manufacturers' Association. More than 82,000 individual records of textile workers had been obtained and filed for permanent reference; 3,051 workers had been placed in permanent positions, 8,850 applicants for employment had been interviewed, and 784 incompetent and undesirable persons prevented from interfering with the peace, development, and prosperity of the industry. In all, 324 different textile plants had been served by this department during the year, and 71 per cent. of all requisitions for labour had been met. According to the report, the Association has been successful in convincing the workers that it is not a strike-breaking organisation, and that its employment department is primarily concerned "in placing the right man in the right job regardless of affiliations, nationality, or creed".

Another department of the Association conducts investigations at the request of manufacturers, thus obviating "the employment of expensive and many times unreliable detective agencies". Approximately \$110,000 in merchandise and mill equipment have been recovered in cash or its equivalent, and it is estimated that the prompt application of corrective measures through this department has probably prevented thefts to an amount at least five times as great as the total recovered. A total of 54 criminal cases have been handled, resulting in 49 arrests by the manager of the department. Out of the 38 prosecutions 32 convictions were secured, and 5 cases are still pending. The report continues :

This department has been most effective in handling labour disagreements and difficulties in such a manner as to prevent the development of serious and widespread trouble. A total of 182 such situations at almost as many different plants have been effectively dealt with. This department has issued a total of 1,468 special reports dealing with situations of the utmost importance to manufacturers, and a total of 1,641 individual investigations on applicants for employment at various mills have been supplied to manufacturers requesting them.

In a statement recently issued by the same Association, the labour shortage in and about Philadelphia in the textile industry is ascribed to a number of specific causes. It is stated that employees are entering other lines of industry that offer steady employment, and, in particular, women and girls are attracted to hotel and household work by the higher wages offered. Many of the workers also are said to be seeking employment under open shop conditions because they are unwilling to be subjected to trade union obligations. The high cost of living in the city, moreover, had driven workers to employment in mills located in small towns, while some who had received large wages during the war had purchased small farms out of their savings and had practically retired. It was further pointed out that 58 new textile plants had been established in Philadelphia in the nine months ending 1 August 1922, and that 61 of the plants already established had enlarged their works. The new employees required as a result of these enlargements had not been forthcoming and, according to the statement of the Association, the only way to cope with the situation was to start regularly a number of "learners" so that the ranks of the workers might be constantly replenished.

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# PRODUCTION AND PRICES <sup>(1)</sup>

## Cost of Living and Retail Prices

**A** GÉNÉRAL view of the course of cost of living index numbers makes it obvious that the tendency towards a stabilisation of prices which has been noted for several months past is continuing, with the sole exception of countries where the instability of the currency is bound to bring fluctuations in prices. The course of retail prices, however, only follows the course of wholesale prices with some uncertainty ; a temporary lowering of wholesale prices in Germany at the beginning of December, for example, was not followed by a corresponding movement in the index figures of retail prices.

Prices are tending to rise in Germany, Belgium, France, and Poland. In Austria prices had risen continuously up to September 1922, but since October there has been an uninterrupted sinking due to the stabilisation of the currency. In other countries such sinking of prices can also be observed and began at an earlier date, tending apparently to decrease in intensity and to yield finally by degrees to a tendency to stabilisation ; such stabilisation has already taken place in most countries where the currency is sound.

The usual tables corresponding to those published in previous numbers of the *Review* are given below. A brief account of the different methods of compilation of the index numbers employed by the different countries was given in the last number of the *Review* <sup>(2)</sup>. The only cases in which there have been slight alterations of method are the United Kingdom, where the area covered is now different, and South Africa.

### **South Africa :** *Quarterly Summary of Union Statistics.*

The index numbers for the Union of South Africa as given in table 1 have been altered. Those running from 1914 to 1922 now include the following groups : food, heating and lighting, rent, and "sundries", instead of, as formerly, only the three first. "Sundries" includes clothing, boots and shoes, household articles, etc. ; the figures under this head are those given in table III for "clothing".

### **United Kingdom :** *Labour Gazette.*

From July 1914 to December 1922 index numbers of retail prices were computed from information as to the cost of food, lighting and heating over an area including certain districts now in the Free State of Ireland. It has recently been decided that the Free State shall establish separate index numbers and that the index numbers for the United Kingdom shall in future include only Great Britain and Northern Ireland. A recalculation of the index numbers for December on this new basis gave exactly the same results as before.

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<sup>(1)</sup> 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.

<sup>(2)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, pp. 51 et seq.

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

TABLE I. COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (6 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (59 towns)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	United States		Finland (21 towns)
		(71 towns)	(Berlin)						(22 t.)	(Mass.)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
July											
1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1915	405	*	*	408	*	*	97	416	405	400	*
1916	412	*	*	416	*	*	102	436	418	408	*
1917	122	*	*	413	*	*	130	455	442	127	*
1918	431	*	*	418	*	*	146	482	474	152	*
1919	445	*	*	429	*	*	155	241	477	168	*
1920	479	935	1125	453	*	455	190	262	217	198	931
1921	162	1124	1125	149	*	379	155	237	180	158	1214
1922	435	4990	6122	439	264500	366	147	199	467	453	1142
1922											
Jan.	439	4825	4903	*	66900	387	149	*	*	—	1124
Feb.	438	2209	2177	*	77000	380	148	*	*	154	1120
Mar.	436	2639	2740	435	77800	371	146	*	167	152	1107
Apr.	437	3436(a)	3177	*	87200	367	145	*	*	152	1109
May	437	3803	3455	*	109300	365	145	*	*	152	1111
June	435	4147	4149	439	187100	366	146	199	167	152	1137
July	435	5392	6122	*	264500	366	147	*	*	153	1142
Aug.	435	7765	10271	*	593200	366	147	*	*	152	1159
Sept.	433	13319	16368	439	1130600	371	147	*	466	152	1160
Oct.	433	22066	26069	*	1036800	376	147	*	*	153	1178
Nov.	434	44610	56494	*	970100	384	148	*	*	154	1169
Dec.	432	68506	76925	—	937500	384	149	198	169	154	1158
1923											
Jan.	—	112027	—	—	946875	383	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE II. FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (30 towns)	Austria (Vienna)	Belgium (59 towns)	Bulgaria (4 towns) (b)	Canada (60 towns)	Denmark (100 towns)	Spain (Madrid) (b)	United States		Finland (21 towns)
		(71 towns)	(Berlin)								(51 towns)	(Mass.)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
July													
1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1915	407	*	*	431	*	*	149	405	428	106	98	97	*
1916	416	*	*	430	*	*	178	414	446	117	409	409	*
1917	428	*	*	426	*	*	321	457	466	121	413	438	*
1918	434	*	*	434	*	*	617	475	487	158	164	160	*
1919	439	*	*	447	*	*	1326	486	212	174	186	176	*
1920	497	1267	1377	494	*	459	1694	227	253	190	215	210	1013
1921	439	1491	1541	161	*	410	1612	154	236	184	145	135	1323
1922	416	6836	7143	448	328200	381	2444	444	484	479	439	133	1144
1922													
Jan.	421	2463	2622	442	74800	417	2259	443	*	179	439	—	1151
Feb.	419	3020	3051	440	87100	399	2365	442	*	179	439	431	1145
Mar.	419	3602	3580	441	90400	382	2379	438	*	181	436	429	1124
Apr.	421	4356	4235	443	104300	378	2455	438	*	190	436	431	1127
May	420	4680	4531	447	137400	379	2632	437	*	188	436	430	1132
June	418	5119	4755	446	242100	384	2379	438	184	183	438	430	1139
July	416	6836	7143	448	328200	381	2444	441	*	179	439	433	1144
Aug.	416	9746	11132	449	722400	377	2463	439	*	178	436	432	1165
Sept.	417	15417	17612	449	1353100	386	2470	438	*	179	437	432	1166
Oct.	419	26623	28775	446	1190700	406	2498	439	*	178	440	434	1157
Nov.	420	54982	60542	445	1114500	432	—	440	*	178	442	435	1140
Dec.	418	80702	—	446	1051900	429	—	442	480	177	444	435	1122
1923													
Jan.	—	136600	—	—	—	425	—	—	*	—	—	—	—

(a) New series.

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

The sign \* signifies "no figures published".

The sign — signifies "figures not available".

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

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

France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy (Rome) (Milan)		Luxem- burg	Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (15 towns)	Nether- lands (Amsterdam)	Poland (Warsaw)	United Kingdom (630 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Date
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)
400	400	400	400	400	400	400	(c)	400	400	400	July 1914
*	*	99	*	*	417	407	*	*	425	*	1915
*	*	446	*	*	446	441	*	*	448	439	1916
*	*	446	*	*	490	419	442	*	480	466	1917
*	*	497	286	*	253	427	483	*	203	249	1918
238	*	205	280	*	275	432	495	*	208	257	1919
344	489	343	441	*	302	449	217	*	255	270	1920
307	177	387	494	384	302	457	208	25709	222	236	1921
302	465	429	488	359	255	444	187	78798	181	190	1922
*	473	430	523	399	*	*	*	46883	488	*	1922 Jan.
*	465	426	522	396	*	*	*	48085	486	*	Feb.
291	465	445	503	377	266	145	192	52358	482	195	Mar.
*	462	420	490	364	*	*	*	58627	481	*	Apr.
*	463	427	492	361	*	*	*	63944	480	*	May
302	463	425	488	355	255	444	187	68407	484	190	June
*	465	429	488	359	*	*	*	78797	481	*	July
*	464	431	491	357	*	*	*	90823	479	*	Aug.
289	465	437	498	364	249	443	175	107661	478	190	Sept.
*	462	445	504	368	*	*	*	128408	480	*	Oct.
*	460	439	505	387	*	*	*	170965	480	*	Nov.
300	461	438	502	399	238	—	176	230930	478	483	Dec.
*	456	—	—	340	*	*	*	352643	477	*	1923 Jan.

TABLE II (cont.). FOOD INDEX NUMBERS

France		India	Italy		Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Date
(Paris) (b)	(320 L) (b)	(Bombay)	(Rome)	(Milan)	(31 towns)	(25 towns)	(Amsterdam)	(Warsaw)	(630 towns)	(49 towns)	(23 towns)	(b)	
(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)
400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	400	July 1914
420	423	*	95	*	423	442	444	*	432	424	419	*	1915
429	442	*	141	154	419	449	417	*	461	436	441	*	1916
483	484	*	137	210	203	427	446	*	204	471	479	*	1917
206	244	*	203	321	271	439	175	*	210	265	222	*	1918
264	289	*	206	304	290	444	496	*	209	312	250	*	1919
373	388	*	318	445	319	467	210	*	262	283	239	*	1920
306	363	474	402	506	295	164	480	45655	226	230	207	1551	1921
297	315	160	459	492	233	144	140	129811	175	179	153	1430	1922
319	*	469	469	558	257	447	448	73598	479	489	476	1467	1922 Jan.
307	*	460	463	562	245	145	449	75157	477	488	173	1464	Feb.
294	323	461	446	525	238	141	443	81269	473	484	462	1414	Mar.
304	*	457	455	499	234	144	137	94865	472	481	153	1445	Apr.
347	*	458	455	503	230	145	136	101458	470	477	152	1444	May
307	315	458	454	494	227	143	137	108069	480	478	153	1475	June
297	*	460	459	492	233	144	440	129811	475	479	153	1430	July
289	*	459	463	498	232	141	139	149512	472	480	153	1420	Aug.
291	312	461	472	508	223	139	441	157400	473	480	152	1405	Sept.
290	*	458	481	517	220	139	443	178300	476	478	155	1016	Oct.
297	*	455	477	516	216	139	436	227228	478	468	156	981	Nov.
305	314	457	475	—	215	138	—	—	475	466	156	962	Dec.
309	*	454	—	—	214	138	—	—	473	464	156	—	1923 Jan.

(a) New series.

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

(c) The base of these figures is the year 1911 = 100, no data having been published for 1914.

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	143
» 1918	159	*	*	*	198	260	205	198
» 1919	*	*	*	*	234	310	215	232
» 1920	239	*	1316	*	260	355	288	276
» 1921	209	*	1077	*	173	248	223	189
» 1922	164	6519	8855	451700	*	217	172	173
Mar. 1922	167	4829	3385	142800	*	*	176	174
June »	164	6519	5982	271200	*	217	172	174
Sept. »	158	26000	25247	1915900	*	*	171	175
Oct. »	*	38664	39418	1751600	*	*	*	175
Nov. »	*	74162	88017	1635200	*	*	*	176
Dec. »	—	116113	—	1582900	*	—	171	176
Jan. 1923	*	168200	—	—	*	*	—	—

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	99	*	*	*	97	130	108	101	99
» 1916	111	*	*	*	99	175	130	108	104
» 1917	115	*	*	*	126	220	125	124	118
» 1918	128	*	*	*	148	275	157	148	136
» 1919	131	*	*	*	156	292	174	146	150
» 1920	155	*	1158	*	193	563	180	172	177
» 1921	165	*	1316	*	193	401	196	182	181
» 1922	*	5939	6000	237300	182	301	188	174	177
Mar. 1922	150	2965	3263	86000	183	*	192	176	179
June »	*	4822	5053	167000	180	301	190	174	177
Sept. »	*	16112	20000	1265800	193	*	185	184	182
Oct. »	*	25175	27895	1386300	—	*	184	*	188
Nov. »	*	50830	56815	1288800	—	*	188	*	190
Dec. »	—	103891	—	1350300	—	—	—	186	190

TABLE V. RENT INDEX NUMBERS

Date	South Africa (9 towns)	Germany		Australia (6 towns)	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)	(10)
July 1914	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
» 1915	97 <sup>(a)</sup>	*	*	94	*	85	100	102	101
» 1916	96	*	*	94	*	84	102	102	102
» 1917	97	*	*	95	*	90	105	100	100
» 1918	103	*	*	99	*	100	108	109	105
» 1919	108	*	*	105	*	109	113	114	112
» 1920	116	*	164	115	*	132	130	135	135
» 1921	116	*	182	121	*	142	141	159	154
» 1922	120	343	255	129	2100	144	155	161	157
Mar. 1922	120	250	200	126	1400	145	*	160	157
June »	*	313	255	129	2100	144	155	161	157
Sept. »	*	417	291	—	3900	144	*	161	157
Oct. »	*	795	582	—	6300	—	*	*	157
Nov. »	—	1133	1309	—	11600	—	*	*	157
Dec. »	—	1652	—	—	16500	—	—	162	157

The sign \* signifies "no figures published".  
The sign — signifies "figures not available".  
(a) Figures obtained half-yearly up to March 1921 (average of March and August given in the table).  
Since then yearly in March.

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

TABLE III (cont.). CLOTHING INDEX NUMBERS

Finland (41 towns)	France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy (Rome) (Milan)	Norway (31 towns)	United Kingdom (97 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Date
(41)	(41)	(42)	(43) (44)	(45)	(46)	(47)	(48)
100	100	100	100 100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	*	119 *	107	125	*	» 1915
*	*	*	162 *	157	155	160	» 1916
*	*	*	211 *	205	200	210	» 1917
*	*	*	284	304	310	285	» 1918
*	296	*	261	388	360	310	» 1919
1049	485	299	466	336	430	390	» 1920
1038	353	263	495	292	280	270	» 1921
1098	315	511	512	249	240	210	» 1922
1098	312	260	596	260	240	225	Mar. 1922
1099	315	260	464	249	240	210	June »
1089	326	245	511	242	230	205	Sept. »
1094	*	234	629	*	230	*	Oct. »
1093	*	229	629	*	225	*	Nov. »
1090	—	222	—	237	225	203	Dec. »

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

Finland (41 towns)	France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy (Rome) (Milan)	Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (4 towns)	United Kingdom (30 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Switzerland (23 towns)	Date
(41)	(42)	(43)	(44) (45)	(46) (47)	(48)	(49)	(50)	(51)	(52)
100	100	100	100 100	100 100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	*	110 *	134 *	102	*	115	115	» 1915
*	*	*	139 *	204 *	108	*	157	129	» 1916
*	*	*	204 *	348 *	123	*	218	182	» 1917
*	*	*	180	476	136	*	293	302	» 1918
*	164	*	187	316	145	*	265	372	» 1919
1232	296	151	178	477	177	230	386	387	» 1920
1265	308	176	275	899	199	250	220	220	» 1921
1263	287	167	—	515	185	190	188	201	» 1922
1231	302	167	304	289	191	215	196	212	Mar. 1922
1261	287	167	268	515	185	190	188	203	June »
1238	291	167	515	242	178	185	183	202	Sept. »
1302	*	167	519	—	*	188	183	203	Oct. »
1330	*	167	—	—	*	188	186	203	Nov. »
1340	—	167	—	—	—	188	188	—	Dec. »

TABLE V (cont.). RENT INDEX NUMBERS

Finland (41 towns)	France (Paris)	India (Bombay)	Italy (Rome) (Milan)	Norway (31 towns)	New Zealand (35 towns)	United Kingdom (15 towns)	Sweden (49 towns)	Date
(41)	(42)	(43)	(44) (45)	(46)	(47)	(48)	(49)	(50)
100	100	100	100 100	100	100	100	100	July 1914
*	*	*	100 *	103	101	*	*	» 1915
*	*	*	100 *	106	100	*	108	» 1916
*	*	*	100 *	109	102	*	112	» 1917
*	*	*	100 *	110	104	*	112	» 1918
*	100	*	100 *	123	107	*	120	» 1919
935	100	165	100	147	116	118	130	» 1920
553	110	165	157	161	121	152	155	» 1921
767	160	165	208	168	132	153	163	» 1922
603	140	165	157	168	132	155	163	Mar. 1922
754	160	165	157	168	132	153	163	June »
810	175	165	208	173	136	152	163	Sept. »
787	*	165	208	*	*	150	*	Oct. »
795	*	165	—	*	*	150	*	Nov. »
795	—	165	—	173	—	150	163	Dec. »

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

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

TABLE VI. COST OF LIVING INDEX NUMBERS

Date	Italy		Netherlands		Poland		Switzerland (33 towns)
	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Lodz	Posen	
Dec. 1920	100	100	100	100	100(a)	100	*
Mar. 1921	108	106	95	95	98	122	100
June »	100	100	95	94	96	185	93
Sept. »	101	99	94	90	216	645	89
Dec. »	103	107	92	86	227	908	85
Jan. 1922	99	105	*	*	233	886	*
Feb. »	99	104	*	*	257	951	*
Mar. »	96	103	93	87	277	1093	77
Apr. »	94	101	*	*	295	1200	*
May »	95	102	*	*	326	1254	*
June »	95	101	88	84	337	1352	70
July »	96	101	*	*	409	1599	*
Aug. »	97	102	*	*	451	1503	*
Sept. »	98	103	80	79	—	—	69
Oct. »	98	104	*	*	—	—	*
Nov. »	—	104	*	*	—	—	*
Dec. »	—	103	79	79	—	—	69
Jan. 1923	—	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	122	112	110	98	95	126	97
June »	150	108	104	102	96	146	94
Sept. »	215	108	103	99	88	254	89
Dec. »	942	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	369	74
Apr. »	1619	98	105	*	*	418	70
May »	2028	99	106	*	*	448	67
June »	3431	98	105	90	80	473	67
July »	4830	101	106	*	*	566	69
Aug. »	11046	102	106	*	*	622	66
Sept. »	20090	103	109	72	70	706	66
Oct. »	18567	104	110	*	*	*	67
Nov. »	17684	—	111	*	*	—	68
Dec. »	17409	—	108	71	—	—	68
Jan. 1923	—	—	106	*	*	—	68

TABLE VIII. INDEX NUMBERS FOR OTHER GROUPS

Date	Clothing				Heating and lighting				Rent			
	Italy		Netherlands		Italy		Netherlands		Italy		Netherlands	
	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam	Milan	Florence	The Hague	Amsterdam
Dec. 1920	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100(a)	100	100	100
Mar. 1921	89	100	79	86	118	106	96	97	98	100	100	101
June »	68	79	73	79	101	88	83	87	84	100	100	109
Sept. »	68	79	71	77	101	88	88	86	80	100	110	113
Dec. »	73	78	72	71	93	94	84	75	75	100	110	114
Mar. 1922	76	79	69	70	58	93	82	76	73	102	109	116
June »	79	78	69	69	58	93	73	75	69	109	119	122
Sept. »	80	78	67	67	58	79	76	75	69	109	120	124
Oct. »	80	78	*	*	59	88	*	*	69	109	*	*
Nov. »	—	78	*	*	—	85	*	*	69	109	*	*
Dec. »	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	70	—	—	—

The sign \* signifies "no figures published".  
The sign — signifies "figures not available".  
(a) Base: beginning of 1921=100.

## Wholesale Prices in Various Countries

No change of importance is to be noted in the movements of wholesale prices during November and December 1922 as compared with movements of preceding months. In countries where the relation of the currency to a gold standard has not depreciated prices appear to have become stabilised at a level between 54 per cent. and 64 per cent. above pre-war prices, e.g. in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, the Netherlands, and Switzerland. In some other countries whose currency has remained good the level is higher, e.g. in Switzerland and Japan, where it is respectively 70 and 90 per cent. above the pre-war level.

Prices have not yet become stabilised in two groups of countries, namely, those where there is a marked and continuing tendency either towards a rise or a fall. The first group includes principally those of depreciated currency. It should, however, be noted that the rise in prices in Germany, which from the monthly figures would appear to have been continuous, was, as a matter of fact, interrupted during the first half of the month; the official index figure was 149500 on 5 December and 146800 on 15 December. This temporary fall coincided with a fall in the dollar exchange, but failed to make any impression on the month's figures as a whole. On the other hand, in spite of a rise of 3.8 per cent. in the French exchange in Switzerland during December, the French wholesale index number rose 2.8 per cent. during that month.

The general tendency towards a fall of prices in some countries is declining. In Czechoslovakia the rate of fall was 7.4 per cent. from September to October, but only 3.9 per cent. between October and November, and 0.8 per cent. in December. In India it was 1.7 in December as against 2.7 in November; and in Sweden 0.6 per cent. in November as against 1.8 per cent. in October.

With a view to making possible a direct comparison of wholesale prices in several countries the Federal Reserve Board of the United States publishes in its *Bulletin* the table which is reprinted below. The index numbers are reduced to dollar prices, that is a relation is established between the prices of the groups of commodities included in the indexes and of gold, in order to facilitate comparison. The

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICE BASED ON PRICES CONVERTED TO A GOLD BASIS (BASE : 1913=100)

Date	United States	United Kingdom	France	Italy	Germany
	Fed. Res. Board	Fed. Res. Board	Fed. Res. Board	Bachi	Statistisches Reichsmat
1922					
Jan.	142	148	121	131	80
Apr.	149	151	143	147	92
July	165	156	131	132	87
Aug.	165	154	123	133	76
Sept.	164	150	116	129	80
Oct.	165	148	112	130	79
Nov.	164	151	109	—	—
Dec.	164	157	—	—	—

**INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES <sup>(1)</sup>**  
*(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		France
		Official	Frankfurter Ztg.								B. of Lab. Stat.	Fed. Res. Bd.	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
<i>Annual average</i>													
1913	100	100	*	100	*	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100
1914	97	106	100	106	100	100	*	*	100	101	98	*	102
1915	107	142	*	147	*	109	*	138	102	119	101	*	140
1916	123	153	*	138	*	134	*	164	124	141	127	*	188
1917	144	179	*	153	*	175	*	228	169	166	177	*	262
1918	153	217	*	178	*	205	*	293	207	207	194	*	339
1919	165	445	*	189	*	216	133	294	226	204	206	214	356
1920	223	1486	1965 <sup>(1)</sup>	228	*	246	140	382	299	221	226	239	509
1921	160	1911	2130 <sup>(2)</sup>	175	*	182	145	236	180	190	147	148	345
1922	128	34483	49558	—	367	165	—	179	—	176	149	—	326
1922													
Jan.	138	3665	4599	154	366	168	149	177	168	180	138	142	314
Feb.	*	4103	5420	154	356	169	148	182	152	179	141	146	307
Mar.	*	5433	6703	153	350	167	152	178	153	177	142	147	308
Apr.	128	6355	7384	155	344	166	148	177	148	179	143	149	314
May	*	6458	7851	162	348	167	146	179	141	178	148	158	317
June	*	7030	9102	163	356	165	144	180	139	178	150	162	326
July	127	10059	13978	164	360	166	144	180	138	175	155	165	326
Aug.	*	19202	29116	163	360	164	142	178	139	175	155	165	331
Sept.	*	28698	43223	164	364	163	139	176	138	174	153	164	329
Oct.	129	56604	94492	166	385	162	142	180	140	172	154	165	338
Nov.	—	115100	167412	169	408	164	143	182	144	174	156	164	353
Dec.	—	147500	205417	—	407	165	143	181	144	172	156	164	363
1923													
Jan.	—	167000	715831	—	—	—	—	181	—	—	—	—	387

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

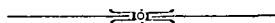
Date	India (Bombay)	Italy	Japan	Norway	New Zealand	Netherlands	Peru	Poland	United Kingdom			Sweden		Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
									Official	Economist	Statistician	G.H.T.	Official		
(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)	(28)	(29)	(30)
<i>Annual average</i>															
1913	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	*	*
1914	100	95	96	115	104	105	104	100	*	99	98	116	*	100	100
1915	*	133	97	159	123	145	120	*	*	123	127	145	*	*	*
1916	*	204	117	233	134	222	146	*	*	161	160	185	*	*	*
1917	*	299	149	341	151	286	176	*	*	204	206	244	*	*	*
1918	237	409	196	345	175	392	213	*	*	225	226	339	*	*	*
1919	222	366	240	322	178	297	220	*	*	235	242	330	*	*	*
1920	215	624	268	377	212	281	238	*	307	283	295	347	359	*	*
1921	196	578	201	269	201	181	205	*	197	181	188	211	222	190	*
1922	185	562	—	233	—	160	—	—	158	—	—	162	173	165	1302
1922															
Jan.	190	577	206	260	186	161	190	59231	164	159	156	170	180	171	1843
Feb.	186	563	204	253	181	162	191	63445	162	158	156	166	178	171	1632
Mar.	192	533	201	240	180	161	190	73729	160	160	157	164	178	163	1559
Apr.	188	527	198	236	180	161	187	75106	160	159	159	165	176	161	1505
May	189	524	194	231	177	165	186	78634	160	162	159	164	176	160	1466
June	190	537	197	230	175	167	—	87694	160	162	160	164	174	161	1437
July	188	558	204	232	177	162	—	101397	160	163	158	165	174	163	1438
Aug.	188	571	195	227	177	155	—	135786	156	158	152	163	174	163	1375
Sept.	181	582	193	225	174	153	—	152365	154	156	151	158	170	163	1233
Oct.	181	604	190	221	—	156	—	201326	155	158	153	155	169	169	1076
Nov.	176	596	188	221	—	158	—	275600	157	159	154	154	163	170	996
Dec.	173	580	189	220	—	158	—	346353	155	157	152	155	165	175	957
1923															
Jan.	—	—	—	230	—	—	—	—	157	—	153	155	—	—	949

(1) Figures supplied by the Economic Section of the Secretariat of the League of Nations and relating in general to the date nearest to the end of the month.  
 (2) Figures for January.

indexes of the United States, the United Kingdom, and France are immediately comparable, as they have been established by identical methods of computation by the Federal Reserve Board itself.

The figures in this table show that the purchasing power of a depreciated currency declines more slowly on the commodity market than on the money market.

The usual table of wholesale prices in various countries is given opposite, brought up to date; notes explanatory of the methods used in compiling the figures were given in the January number of the *Review*.



# EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

## Statistics of Unemployment

**T**HE general employment situation at the close of 1922 can be called favourable compared with the situation a year ago, when most countries were suffering from a very serious economic depression and when unemployment had reached proportions hitherto unknown. Though for many countries the latest unemployment figures show an increase as compared with previous months, chiefly on account of seasonal unemployment in open-air industries, a comparison with a year ago shows a very remarkable decline.

In France and Belgium unemployment is almost non-existent. The number of unemployed in receipt of benefit in France was at the end of January only 2,665, and in Belgium the situation has been unchanged since September, when the percentage of unemployment among trade union members was only 1.4.

In North America employment was exceedingly good towards the close of 1922 as compared with 1921, though in Canada figures for October and November show a contraction as compared with previous months. This increase of unemployment in Canada, the first recorded in 1922 except for a small temporary increase in May, was very much less extensive than that registered during the corresponding period of 1921 and the situation generally is decidedly more favourable than at that time. In the United States employment has been steadily increasing during the past year and business conditions continue to improve. Production was very good during January 1923, and apparently no one expected a year ago such a rapid recovery. All available statistics from important States show a large decrease of unemployment at the end of 1922. In New York State the number of workers in the establishments reporting to the State Department of Labour rose by 1 per cent. during December, the greatest gains being in the metal, wood, shoe, silk, and printing industries. In Massachusetts the percentage unemployed among trade union members for the third quarter of 1922 was only 3.8, as compared with 12.2 at the end of the previous quarter and 19.1 at the corresponding date in 1922.

In the United Kingdom the general unemployment index numbers show little change at the end of January 1923 as compared with December 1922. The activity in coal mining, in steel-sheet manufacture, and in the worsted industry was satisfactory. Most of the other principal industries are still under the spell of depression, though an improvement was reported at iron and steel works, as well as in shipbuilding and in certain other sections of the metal trade; however, the position is better than it was at the corresponding period of last year. In the Scandinavian countries and in the Netherlands the situation was not so bad at the end of 1922 as a year ago, though seasonal fluctuations have increased the unemployment figures. In Italy the great increase of the numbers unemployed which occurred towards the end of the year is chiefly due to unemployment in the mining and outdoor industries as well as in agriculture. In the metal industry a slight decrease has taken place. Polish industries have been comparatively active during the last three months of 1922. A slight increase

TABLE 1. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG TRADE UNIONISTS <sup>(1)</sup>

End of month	Germany	Australia	Belgium	Canada	Denmark	Massachusetts	Norway	Netherlands	United Kingdom		Sweden
									Trade unions	Compulsory insurance	
A. Number of Workers Covered by the Returns (in Thousands)											
1913										(3)	
Mar.	2004	237	78	*	110	171	29	62	908	2071	50
June	2010	243	79	*	109	172	29	64	922	2093	53
Sept.	1994	252	76	*	115	177	29	68	943	2218	54
Dec.	1980	251	74	*	118	178	29	70	965	2286	60
1919											
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.	4939	329	*	171	295	281	46	404	1567	3827	126
June	5600	343	*	194	306	248	46	407	1603	4160	126
Sept.	5442	345	118	189	308	255	46	407	1636	4197	151
Dec.	5664	351	546	208	311	297	45	399	1535	11900	146
1921											
Mar.	5779	344	668	207	294	237	49	394	1528	12000	165
June	5841	364	669	182	299	243	45	396	1279	12200	145
Sept.	5965	368	746	183	287	237	40	393	1433	12200	154
Dec.	6103	370	757	161	282	209	37	395	1432	11902	144
1922											
Mar.	6284	379	730	158	278	217	36	368	1353	12120	150
June	6239	374	711	152	269	216	35	355	1394	11881	128
Sept.	6339	381	690	161	266	229	34	344	1300	11881	139
Oct.	6455	*	691	—	256	*	34	—	1279	11750	125
Nov.	6407	—	696	—	257	*	34	—	1306	11750	126
Dec.	6455	—	—	—	257	—	—	—	1246	11750	128
1923											
Jan.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1205	11750	—
B. Percentage of above Workers Unemployed											
1913										(3)	
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	2.0	7.7	1.1	3.6	4.5
June	3.9	6.2	*	2.5	2.1	14.6	0.8	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	16.5	13.9	10.0	11.3	24.5
June	3.0	12.5	9.9	13.2	16.8	20.1	20.6	8.1	23.1	17.8	27.7
Sept.	1.4	11.4	9.6	8.5	16.6	19.1	17.3	6.8	14.8	12.2	27.3
Dec.	1.6	9.5	6.6	15.1	25.2	24.2	23.4	16.6	16.5	16.2	33.2
1922											
Mar.	1.1	9.2	5.2	9.6	27.9	18.8	25.4	14.1	16.3	14.4	30.6
June	0.6	9.6	2.6	5.3	13.2	12.2	15.6	9.1	15.7	12.7	21.5
Sept.	0.8	9.6	1.4	2.8	10.6	3.8	11.0	9.1	14.6	12.0	15.3
Oct.	1.4	*	1.4	4.0	11.3	*	11.3	9.5 <sup>2</sup>	14.0	12.0	15.0
Nov.	2.0	*	1.4	6.2	15.2	*	11.8	11.0 <sup>2</sup>	14.2	12.4	17.1
Dec.	2.8	8.6	—	—	20.3	—	—	14.4 <sup>2</sup>	14.0	12.2	21.7
1923											
Jan.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	13.7	12.7	—

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

(2) Provisional figures. (3) After March 1922 the Irish Free State is not included in these statistics. The sign \* signifies "no figures published". The sign — signifies "figures not yet received".



TABLE II. STATISTICS OF SHORT TIME

Date (end of month)	Belgium		Germany	Italy	United Kingdom		Switzerland
	Number	Percentage of insured workers	Percentage of trade unionists	Number	Number	Percentage of insured workers	Number
<b>1921</b>							
Apr.	118,041	17.7	—	69,270	1,077,317	9.0	95,374
June	86,823	13.0	—	238,940	832,340	6.8	76,116
Sept.	60,958	8.2	—	154,350	322,315	2.6	69,421
Dec.	36,232	4.8	1.3	178,662	315,760	2.7	53,970
<b>1922</b>							
Apr.	35,308	4.9	0.6	135,964	188,639	1.6	39,249
June	23,817	3.3	0.6	95,334	416,448	1.0	30,629
July	23,097	3.3	0.8	88,668	82,999	0.7	28,279
Aug.	16,801	2.4	0.9	89,399	74,669	0.6	25,338
Sept.	17,034	2.5	2.6	84,087	66,499	0.6	23,352
Oct.	17,041	2.5	4.7	86,427	56,862	0.5	21,585
Novem.	16,439	2.4	7.5	43,140	58,372	0.5	21,900
Decem.	—	—	8.7	42,558	60,871	0.5	20,429
<b>1923</b>							
Jan.	—	—	—	—	60,147	0.5	19,868

TABLE III. OTHER STATISTICS RELATING TO UNEMPLOYMENT

Date (end of month)	Austria	France		Italy			Switzerland			Czechoslovakia		Poland
	Vienna	Number of appli- cants for work ( <sup>1</sup> )	Number of per- sons in receipt of benefit	Number of wholly unemployed			Number of workers registered			Number of per- sons un- employed	Number of per- sons in receipt of benefit	Number of per- sons unem- ployed
	Number of appli- cants for work			Agricul- ture	Indus- tries	Total ( <sup>2</sup> )	Employed on Public Works	Wholly unem- ployed	Total			
<b>1921</b>												
Mar.	24,344	44,061	91,225	43,559	187,345	250,145	7,746	39,831	47,577	102,480	53,086	80,000
June	24,802	21,316	47,331	43,581	306,338	388,744	8,863	45,176	54,039	103,170	46,128	115,000
Sept.	24,236	17,718	21,797	84,693	356,266	473,216	13,166	53,480	66,646	70,780	26,802	70,000
Dec.	19,618	17,373	10,032	142,107	372,334	541,755	18,803	65,164	88,967	78,312	32,802	173,000
<b>1922</b>												
Mar.	37,482	16,605	8,474	137,484	332,428	498,606	27,343	61,756	89,099	128,336	69,719	173,000
June	33,772	9,896	4,488	65,012	280,963	372,001	22,356	37,400	59,456	106,175	55,072	105,000
July	33,427	11,388	6,027	49,104	230,847	304,242	18,785	33,395	52,180	—	—	87,000
Aug.	35,911	10,526	4,063	58,631	232,872	317,866	19,900	31,889	51,789	—	—	—
Sept.	42,848	10,258	2,880	54,699	229,430	312,714	17,499	32,013	49,512	—	—	—
Oct.	59,156	11,445	2,052	66,026	226,761	321,011	16,457	31,761	48,218	—	—	61,000
Nov.	67,183	11,732	2,628	99,363	226,846	354,238	13,860	37,268	51,128	—	—	62,000
Dec.	81,431	8,898	2,644	100,467	252,107	381,968	14,057	39,406	53,463	—	—	75,000
<b>1923</b>												
Jan.	—	13,408	2,665	—	—	—	12,264	44,131	56,275	—	—	—

(1) These figures give the number of workers remaining on the live register.

(2) Including miscellaneous occupations.

TABLE IV. VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

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)
<b>1921</b>			
Mar.	1,588,000	— 1.50	97.5
June	1,527,000	— 2.90	93.8
Sept.	1,545,000	+ 1.20	94.9
Dec.	1,493,000	— 4.70	91.7
<b>1922</b>			
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	1,721,000	+ 3.20	105.7
July	1,728,000	+ 0.46	106.2
Aug.	1,727,000	— 0.12	106.1
Sept.	1,756,000	+ 1.60	107.9
Oct.	1,809,000	+ 2.92	111.1
Nov.	1,854,000	+ 2.47	113.9

of unemployment has been reported during December, but a comparison with the corresponding month of last year shows that unemployment has greatly diminished. In Switzerland the continuous decrease in unemployment which occurred throughout the year 1922 was arrested in November 1922, though in several branches of Swiss industry unemployment is still declining. This has been mainly brought about by means of government subsidies to various industries.

Austria and Germany are the only two countries for which unemployment figures show a substantial increase at the end of 1922 as compared with 1921. An enormous increase of unemployment has taken place in Austria since August 1922; at the end of December 119,000 were receiving unemployment benefit, the comparative figure for October was 58,000. Thus the figure has more than doubled in the course of two months, and it has been estimated that Austrian industries were only working at 40 per cent. of their capacity at the end of 1922. In Germany exports have fallen off, as well as orders to German industries, and seasonal unemployment in the building industry is specially acute this year. Though the percentage unemployed among trade unionists was not very high at the end of December (2.8), it has, however, increased at a very rapid rate during the last three months; at the end of September the percentage unemployed was only 0.8. Employment in the metal, electrical, and chemical industries is still good, the decline being chiefly in the printing, food, and building trades. It is estimated, however, that, in addition to the 2.8 per cent. unemployed, 8.7 per cent. were on short time.

#### NOTE 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 January number of the *Review* (1).

Though the figures themselves are not comparable, the rate of fluctuation in unemployment can be deduced from them and compared as between one country and another.

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# Notes on Unemployment Problems

The publication of these *Notes*, which it is intended shall take place quarterly, is an attempt to carry out as regards unemployment problems part of the general work of information assigned to the International Labour Office by the Treaties of Peace and, in particular, to give effect to a resolution adopted by the International Economic Conference at Genoa, which urged the usefulness of supplying the governments with regular information on the remedies adopted by them against unemployment. This work of information is obviously of interest not only to governments but also to district or local administrative authorities, employers' and workers' organisations, and public opinion in general. It was, therefore considered advisable to publish it in this *Review*.

The first attempt at the collection of information was made a few months ago by the International Labour Office, and published as a special booklet under the title of *Remedies for Unemployment*. This study summarises the state of the question in different countries and must be considered as the starting-point for the periodical notes, which will bring the information contained in the booklet up to date.

## PAYMENTS TO THE UNEMPLOYED

### *Extension of Insurance*

UNEMPLOYMENT insurance continues both to extend to fresh countries and to develop its organisation in those where it has already been introduced. The most important progress made during the last few months was that realised in Australia by the adoption in the State of *Queensland* of the Act of 23 October 1922 introducing compulsory unemployment insurance <sup>(1)</sup>. Under the terms of this Act the costs of insurance are borne equally by employers, workers, and the state. The rate of benefit cannot exceed half the rate of wages, varying from 15s. to 20s. weekly for single men and from 25s. to 35s. for married men, according to the cost of living in the district; an allowance of 4s. to 5s. weekly is provided for each child. The benefit is payable after a waiting period of a fortnight and ceases after 15 weeks of payment.

In *Austria* the compulsory insurance Act of 24 March 1920 was extended by an amendment of 27 August 1922 to home workers <sup>(2)</sup>. By the same amendment the conditions on which unemployment benefit are granted were extended, the district industrial committees, which are the bodies instituted for carrying the Act into effect, being empowered to pay benefit to persons employed for 20 weeks during the previous 24 months, although previously benefit could only be paid after employment for the same number of weeks within a year. The period for which the benefit is payable during the course of the year is extended from 12 to 30 weeks in order to make allowance for the

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<sup>(1)</sup> *The Queensland Industrial Gazette*, Oct. 1922. Brisbane.

<sup>(2)</sup> This Act and its various amendments were codified by an Order of 11 October 1922 (*Amtliche Nachrichten*, 31 Oct. 1922. Vienna).

very serious situation. The number of unemployed rose rapidly at the end of 1922, and a further amendment of 17 December 1922 <sup>(3)</sup> again altered the Act by making provision that all unemployed workers of Austrian nationality who had already exhausted their right to benefit, in other words, those who had received relief for the legal 30 weeks, should continue to receive benefit until 30 April 1923. The costs of insurance, which were hitherto borne equally by employers, workers, and the state, are to be defrayed as from 1 January 1923 in the proportion of one-fifth by the state and two-fifths each by the employers and workers.

The rapid depreciation of the Austrian krone necessitated continual increases in rates of benefit paid as also in rates of contribution; thus in December 1922 the benefit payable to an unemployed worker with dependents was 10,080 kronen a day, nominally a large sum, but inadequate if the price of a loaf of bread (6,670 kronen) <sup>(4)</sup> is taken into account. Yet at this time, according to a statement made in Parliament by Mr. Schmitz, Minister of Social Welfare, government expenditure on unemployment insurance was 3,000,000,000 kronen per week, but instead of recovering two-thirds of this sum, or 2,000,000,000 kronen from employers and workers, the state could only collect 400,000,000 kronen per week <sup>(5)</sup>.

In the *Czechoslovak Republic* the Act of 19 July 1921, allocating state grants to unemployment insurance funds in respect of benefits paid by them, was to come into force on 1 January 1923, at which date the Act of 12 August 1921 on direct state unemployment relief would cease to apply. The latter Act, however, has been prolonged until the end of 1923; the application of the unemployment insurance Act, therefore, remains suspended, although the question has recently arisen of applying it in the near future in respect of unemployment benefit paid by printers' unions, while the budget for 1923 makes provision for a credit of 5,000,000 kronen for bringing it into operation.

In *Belgium* a Bill for compulsory unemployment insurance was introduced in Parliament on 11 July 1922 <sup>(6)</sup> by Mr. Léon Troclet, Deputy for Liège and President of the Belgian section of the International Association on Unemployment. Under the terms of this Bill all workers between 16 and 65 years of age earning not more than 12,000 francs a year, who are not already voluntarily insured in a fund managed by an independent group of workers, would be compelled to join a public unemployment fund managed by the local authorities acting separately or in combination. Insurance would still be optional for agricultural workers and domestic servants. All unemployment insurance funds would continue to receive grants made by the state, the provincial and local authorities. Local grants, at present optional, would be made compulsory. A Reserve Fund would be formed by means of employers' contributions (which would be equal in amount to three-quarters of the workers' contributions), state grants, and the sums paid by local insurance societies (*caisses primaires*) and local unemployment funds. As the majority of existing unemployment funds were formed by national trade unions, the scheme now proposed would have a very pronounced tendency in the direction of insurance by industries. The Reserve Fund, however, would secure a certain co-ordination between the various industries.

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<sup>(3)</sup> VI. *Novelle zum Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetz.*

<sup>(4)</sup> *Arbeiterzeitung*, 12 Jan. 1923. Vienna.

<sup>(5)</sup> *Ibid.* 3 Dec. 1922.

<sup>(6)</sup> CHAMBRE DES REPRÉSENTANTS : *Documents parlementaires*, No 403.

Another feature of the proposed scheme is that unemployment due to a lock-out is considered to be involuntary unemployment and workers unemployed as a result of a lock-out would be entitled to benefit from the Reserve Fund from the time when the local fund concerned reported that the employers had refused to submit to conciliation or arbitration before declaring a lock-out.

In *Sweden* the Social Insurance Committee, instructed to investigate the question of unemployment insurance, came to a conclusion in favour of the system of public grants to unemployment funds formed by those concerned (<sup>7</sup>). The King's Speech on 10 January 1923 announced that a Bill embodying this proposal would be introduced, but it is not certain whether it will be submitted to Parliament this year.

In *Japan* a meeting of the unemployed held at Osaka on 2 November 1922 demanded that the Government should immediately draft an unemployment insurance scheme to be submitted to the trade unions for consideration (<sup>8</sup>).

In *Spain* a Congress of the Federation of Trade Unions (18-24 November 1922) decided to demand of the Government its recognition of the obligation of the state to relieve the unemployed.

### *Unemployment Insurance by Industries*

During the last few months much attention has been given in *Great Britain* to the possibilities of unemployment insurance by industries. As far back as February 1922 the Minister of Labour, following out a recommendation of the Geddes Committee appointed to devise means of reducing government expenditure, addressed a letter to a large number of representative associations of employers and employed, asking their views on this subject. The immediate response was meagre, but on the basis of replies received, together with suggestions from other quarters, the Minister of Labour on 28 November addressed a memorandum to the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations and to the Trades Union Congress General Council, directing attention to "certain methods of approaching the problem that might profitably receive consideration". The suggestions, it was explained, were intended "only for the purpose of inviting discussion and do not represent any conclusion reached by the Minister on the points raised".

Three possible schemes are outlined in this memorandum, framed with the double object of linking up as closely as possible the financial responsibility for paying benefit with the responsibility of finding employment, so as to give the greatest possible incentive for the reduction of unemployment, and of giving a full opportunity to industries or smaller units of providing for their own unemployment, with the hope that in the case of industries with less than average risks it would be possible to secure additional advantages for the worker.

The first of these schemes, designated in the memorandum as Method A, is based on the principle that responsibility for unemployment, and hence for insurance against unemployment, should be placed upon industry and not as at present upon the state. The means of putting

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(<sup>7</sup>) The report of this Committee was recently published in *Sociala Meddelanden*, 1923. No. 1. B. Stockholm. This important statement will be dealt with later.

(<sup>8</sup>) *Osaka Mainichi*, 4 Nov. 1922. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Industrial Labour Information*, 5 Jan. 1923.

this principle into effect would be along the following general lines : statutory liability would be placed upon every employer to devise, in association with his workers, an approved scheme of unemployment insurance ; by such a scheme workers becoming unemployed would receive from their employer (or from such joint agency as the employer and the workers might have set up) unemployment benefit at a prescribed rate for a prescribed period.

Method B takes into consideration a number of practical difficulties, namely, that there is a continual movement of labour from one industry to another ; that in most trades there is a fringe of labour exposed to more than normal risk of unemployment ; and that in many instances small employers might not be able to set up a self-contained scheme. To meet these difficulties it is proposed that the state unemployment insurance scheme should be continued, but that industries should be allowed to set up special insurance schemes and contribute to the state scheme only to the extent sufficient to provide a "basic rate" of benefit, the balance of the contribution being retained by the industry for the purpose of providing other benefits suited to its own conditions.

Method C represents a compromise between the first two methods. By it every encouragement would be given to employers and workers to set up self-contained schemes for an industry or part of an industry, including special arrangements to make it worth while for industries with a high unemployment risk to adopt such measures. The state scheme would be continued for two purposes : to provide for employers and workers not covered by special schemes ; to provide for those insured under a special scheme when the benefits paid by that scheme had been exhausted. Special schemes would contribute to the state fund to defray their proportion of the general burden of unemployment in the country, together with the estimated cost of the benefits payable from the state insurance fund when payment under the special scheme ceased.

The attitudes taken up by employers, workers, and social insurance experts with regard to these or other proposals for unemployment insurance by industries are not yet clearly defined. The Federation of British Industries, on the receipt of the Minister of Labour's questionnaire in February 1922, appointed a committee to consider the whole subject. This committee has completed its report, but publication has been deferred until a discussion between the Federation of British Industries and the Confederation of Employers' Organisations has taken place.

The National Joint Council, representing the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, the Executive Committee of the Labour Party, and the Parliamentary Labour Party, has reported that, as a result of enquiry, 43 unions, representing 1,252,600 members, declared in favour of unemployment insurance by industries, 21 unions representing 2,670,900 members declared against it, and 17 unions, representing 978,900 members, made non-committal answers. The supposition that a majority of organised labour in Great Britain would pronounce against any proposal for unemployment insurance by industries has been strengthened by the debate on unemployment which took place in the House of Commons on 30 November and 1 December. In this debate Mr. Philip Snowden expressed the opinion that the arguments against unemployment insurance by industries altogether outweighed the arguments in its favour. He pointed out

that all industries and trades are interdependent and a great many trades are subject to depression through no fault of their own. This he regarded as a very strong argument against placing the whole of the burden of maintaining the unemployed on the industry which might at the time being be affected by an exceptional amount of unemployment. He further argued that, if the obligation to maintain the unemployed were placed wholly upon a trade, it certainly would have the effect of limiting the activity of that trade and preventing its expansion. Mr. Snowden continued: "I think — and I believe I am expressing the general opinion of our own Party when I say — that we are not in favour of insurance by trades, but rather in favour of placing the burden on industry as a whole".

Certain expert opinion would go to show that the administrative difficulties in the way of organising unemployment insurance by industries are very considerable and, consequently, only the most conclusive evidence of its very real advantage over the present scheme would justify effort to overcome the difficulties. It is suggested, in any case, that the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1920, with some slight amendments, should at least be tried for the period of a complete business cycle before any fundamental revision is attempted (\*).

These discussions of the possibilities of unemployment insurance by industries give considerable interest to the "special schemes" provided for under the Unemployment Insurance Act at present in force. There is at present one industry only which has "contracted out" of the Unemployment Insurance Act of 1920, and possesses its own special scheme, namely, the insurance industry. Under this scheme unemployment insurance is controlled jointly by the employers and employed. The employees' contribution has been abolished, the employers' contributions having proved sufficient to provide for the very small amount of unemployment existing in the industry. With these reduced contributions, it has been found possible to pay benefits superior to those paid under the state scheme. Since the conditions in no two industries are the same, the rates of contribution and benefit under this scheme cannot necessarily be applied to any other, but it is considered that the administrative machinery used is, in many ways, more efficient than that provided under the Act. The cumbersome process of the weekly stamping of cards is done away with; the employers pay their contributions quarterly, these contributions being based upon the numbers employed at the beginning of each quarterly period. This simplification of one of the most difficult problems raised by unemployment insurance has been found to save enormously both in time and in expense.

In *Italy*, where, as in Great Britain, unemployment insurance is compulsory, the problem of organising insurance by industries also arises. Like the British Act, the Italian Legislative Decree of 19 October 1919 provides for the establishment of special insurance funds for a given industry or trade, in addition to provincial unemployment funds without reference to industry.

The first compulsory industrial insurance fund against unemployment was approved for the printing and paper industries by a Min-

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(\*) Joseph L. COHEN: *The Future of Unemployment*; paper read to the British Association, 8 Sept. 1922.

isterial Decree of 25 July 1921 concerning the rules of the social insurance fund for the Graphical Federation. Under this Decree all workers in the printing or paper industries must belong to the fund, to which employers must likewise pay the contributions laid down in the Insurance Act, on pain of fine. According to the first annual report of this fund, covering 11 July 1921 to 20 June 1922<sup>(10)</sup>, the number of persons insured in the fund is 62,124, employed in 2,695 undertakings. The rates of contribution and unemployment benefit are those fixed by the Legislative Decree of 19 October 1919 for general unemployment funds, i.e. 0.35, 0.70, 1.05 lire weekly for contributions, and 1.25, 2.50, 3.75 lire daily for benefit. The total amount received in contributions during the year was 2,870,000 lire, and the sum paid in benefit 1,740,000 lire.

The statutory contribution was paid into the National Reserve Fund which is common to all the funds, amounting to 10 per cent. of the contributions received, or 287,000 lire<sup>(11)</sup>. On the other hand, the sum of 181,000 lire was received from the Reserve Fund. The managers of the fund complain of this compulsory participation in the Reserve Fund. A marked improvement from their point of view was introduced, however, by the Royal Decree of 29 June 1922, under the terms of which the rate of contribution may be reduced for funds which make less use of grants from the Reserve Fund; by the same Decree the Minister of Labour has power to compel industrial funds which make greater use of the Reserve Fund to raise the contributions payable by their members. It also provides for the intervention of the Reserve Fund whenever during the previous six months the number of days for which unemployment allowances are paid by a fund exceeds  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. of the number of days which could have been worked by all the members of that fund if fully employed. The regulation is thus a compromise between the principle of insurance by industry and that of solidarity of risk between industries.

The administrative expenses of the Graphical Federation mounted to 392,000 lire, or 22 per cent. of the total sum paid in benefit. The financial report explains this excessive proportion by the difficulties met with in collecting contributions, paying benefit, and supervising the unemployed when membership is scattered over about 500 different localities. The experience of this fund suggests that, if management costs are to be reduced, unemployment insurance by industries should at least make provision for certain administrative bodies common to more than one industry.

Another question raised by the organisation of unemployment insurance by industries is that involved in the transference of an insured person from one fund to another. This question is dealt with in the Italian Decree of 29 June 1922, which lays down that unemployment benefit payable to an insured member who has changed his fund less than a year ago must be met by the fund to which he previously belonged on condition that he was a member for at least a year. In the case of transference to another fund after membership of less than a year, the contributions paid into the first fund must be transferred to the second.

(10) CASSA CONFEDERALE GRAFICA ASSICURAZIONI SOCIALE: *Resoconto finanziario* 1921-1922; Bologna, 1922; 89 pp.

(11) The reserve fund also receives an annual amount from the state, which was fixed at 40,000,000 lire for the first three years, 1920-1922. The grant was withdrawn for the financial year 1923. (*La Stampa*, 2 Dec. 1922, Turin).



### *Supplementary Measures*

In most countries the unemployment crisis has been so serious that the conditions on which unemployment benefit is granted under systems of insurance have proved inadequate. Supplementary measures have therefore been adopted.

In *Great Britain* the conditions for the payment of benefit were extended on several occasions during 1921-1922, particularly as regards the period of unemployment for which benefit is payable. Under the present system periods for which benefit is payable alternate with periods without benefit during which the unemployed may have recourse to relief under the Poor Law. Such relief may also be obtained by unemployed persons who for other reasons have exhausted their right to insurance benefit. According to a statement made in the House of Commons by the Minister of Labour <sup>(12)</sup>, insurance benefits paid during the first eleven months of 1922 amounted in all to £44,000,000, of which sum almost all, or £42,000,000, was covered by normal insurance revenue, namely £16,750,000 paid by employers, £14,500,000 by workers, and £11,350,000 by the state. In 1921 the deficit exceeded the considerable sum of £18,000,000 on a total of £58,500,000 paid in benefit. Part of the deficit is met out of the unemployment insurance fund which was accumulated during previous years, and part by advances from the Treasury to be repaid when the normal insurance revenue again exceeds expenditure.

The cost of relief paid by the boards of guardians under the Poor Law are, on the other hand, defrayed entirely by the public authorities. From November 1920 until the end of the second half of 1922 the expenditure of the boards of guardians was £60,000,000, the greater part of which was paid to unemployed persons who had exhausted their right to insurance benefit. Of the 1,560,000 persons in receipt of outdoor relief 1,150,000 were workers out of employment and their families, and out of these, 1,090,000 or 94.5 per cent. belonged to families whose heads were insured against unemployment.

The payment of insurance benefits or other relief has done much to relieve the distress due to unemployment. It may be of interest in this connection to quote the results of an enquiry conducted in one of the poorest quarters of London <sup>(13)</sup>, which came to the conclusion that

although unemployment on an unprecedented scale has continued for nearly two years, the personal distress arising from it in East London is less than would have been caused before the war by a strike or lock-out. The absence of distress is accounted for by the savings which men and women accumulated out of the generous wages of the war period, the liberalised scale of allowances adopted by the boards of guardians and the benefits derivable from unemployment insurance.

This comparatively optimistic view may be contrasted with that of a manifesto published by the General Council of the Trades Union Congress on the occasion of the unemployment demonstration which took place on 7 January 1923 :

Chronic unemployment has reduced thousands of working-class homes in the country to a state of absolute destitution. The cottages of the

<sup>(12)</sup> Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Commons), 13 Dec. 1922, pp. 2985 and 2986. London.

<sup>(13)</sup> *Unemployment in East London : the Report of a Survey made from Toynbee Hall*. London, King.

workers have been stripped of domestic comforts, and even the elementary requirements of a decent existence have been sold in order to provide the necessary food to stave off starvation... Where unemployment is most severe co-operative societies and small traders have been brought to a state perilously near bankruptcy, and the long continued drain on social resources has produced a state almost of social bankruptcy in certain areas.

In other countries, instead of referring insured unemployed persons during periods in which they are unable to obtain benefit to a general institution for the relief of the distressed, a supplementary institution within the insurance system itself has been established. The Italian Reserve Fund referred to above is of this type, as also the Danish Central Unemployment Fund and the Belgian Emergency Fund.

In *Denmark* the intervention of the Central Fund is applied to each industry by the Minister of the Interior according to circumstances. Thus, by the decision of 20 December 1922 <sup>(14)</sup>, grants from the Central Fund were withdrawn from fourteen trades where unemployment had resumed normal proportions, while they were authorised for six other trades which had hitherto been excluded.

In *Belgium* the emergency fund is managed as an independent institution by an Administrative Council with far-reaching powers. By a Royal Decree of 4 December 1922 the number of daily allowances payable by this fund was limited to thirty in the course of the year, but it is also provided that by decision of the Administrative Council this number may be increased for specified industries in the event of a prolonged period of depression.

In the *Netherlands* the Government decided to assist unemployment funds to continue the payment of relief to unemployed members by increasing the state subsidy to these funds in 1923 from 100 per cent. on members' contributions to 150 per cent., and in certain exceptional cases to 200 per cent.

In *Sweden* and in *Switzerland* special systems of relief for the unemployed have been introduced side by side with unemployment insurance funds. Such relief applies in principle to all industries, but in both countries the Government has power to suspend grants or restore them to certain groups of trades if the position of the labour market appears to justify such a measure.

### *Payment during Strikes*

It is often very difficult to draw an exact distinction between unemployment caused by a strike and unemployment due to lack of work. The point is dealt with in *Belgium* in an important decision adopted in October 1922 <sup>(15)</sup> by the Minister of Industry and Labour on the question of the intervention of the National Emergency Fund in the case of workers compelled to cease work on account of a strike of their fellow workmen. This decision lays down that they cannot be considered as involuntarily unemployed if it is proved that the workers on strike have stopped work not only in their own interests but also in the direct interest of workers who have remained at work and in agreement with them. The same rule applies if it is established that the strike has been declared to support demands of a political,

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<sup>(14)</sup> *Dagens Nyheder*, 21 Dec. 1922. Copenhagen.

<sup>(15)</sup> *Revue du travail*, Nov. 1922, p. 1698. Brussels.

social, or economic character not arising from the immediate relations of the employers and workers in the establishment concerned, and to which the non-strikers give their moral or material support.

### *Employers' Participation*

The participation of employers in the costs of unemployment relief is a serious burden from which some of them have attempted to free themselves. In *Switzerland* in particular several employers' organisations have demanded the abolition of financial contributions from employers. The Federal Council has in some measure satisfied their demands by reducing the employers' contribution by one-half and completely exempting employers in respect of workers engaged after 19 September 1922 or even of workers engaged after 1 January 1922 who became unemployed after 19 September of that year <sup>(16)</sup>.

On the other hand, in *Austria* <sup>(17)</sup> the employers' share, like that of the workers, which was formerly only one-third of the cost of insurance, has been increased to two-fifths, while the share of the state has been reduced to one-fifth.

In *Queensland* under the new compulsory Insurance Act <sup>(18)</sup> employers, workers, and the state each bear one-third of the cost.

In the *Netherlands* employers do not participate in the costs of unemployment insurance, which are met, on the one hand, by the establishment of mutual insurance funds by the workers and, on the other, by government grants to the funds. Nevertheless, the Federation of Catholic Employers' Associations (*R. K. Verbond van Werkgevers Vereenigingen*) has submitted a manifesto to Parliament <sup>(19)</sup> on the subject of unemployment, drawing attention to the close connection between rates of wages and the payment of unemployment benefit, and maintaining that the economic situation of the country would suffer if unemployment funds were subsidised in industries where rates of wages and hours of work are such as to hinder economic working. In particular, the Federation considers that the payment of unemployment relief to agricultural workers often makes it possible for them to abstain from looking for remunerative employment.

In the *United States* the National Industrial Council, an important organisation of employers, at a meeting held on 18 November 1922 to consider the legislative programme for the next six months, decided to oppose proposals for the introduction of unemployment insurance legislation <sup>(20)</sup>. On the other hand, a certain number of employers have introduced a system of unemployment relief in their own undertakings. A proposal of this kind was recently made for the railways by Major Henry T. Hunt <sup>(21)</sup>, former member of the Railroad Labour Board, who pointed out that the risk of unemployment on the railroads might be estimated at 5 per cent. <sup>(22)</sup> and that therefore if the companies guaranteed their unemployed workers a rate of benefit equal to half their wages this would only involve an increase of 2.5 per cent. on the total wages bill.

<sup>(16)</sup> *Le Marché suisse du travail*, 14 Oct. 1922. Berne.

<sup>(17)</sup> See above, under *Extension of Insurance*.

<sup>(18)</sup> See *ibid.*

<sup>(19)</sup> *Nieuwe Rotterdamse Courant*, 14 Nov. 1922. Rotterdam.

<sup>(20)</sup> *Daily News Record*, 18 Nov. 1922. New York. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 24, p. 11.

<sup>(21)</sup> *American Labour Legislation Review*, Dec. 1922. New York.

In *Great Britain* the number of employers who, in addition to paying compulsory unemployment insurance contributions, grant special unemployment relief to their workers now includes the company of Lever Brothers (Port Sunlight). Unemployed 'co-partners' of this firm receive since 1 October 1922, in addition to benefit under state insurance, a supplementary allowance which brings the total benefit paid to an amount equal to half their wages.

### *Administrative Problems*

In *Northern Ireland*, where the British Unemployment Insurance Act remains in force, as also in the Free State, a few modifications of an administrative nature have been introduced. One of these has resulted in the amalgamation of the administrative machinery of sickness and unemployment insurance. It is stated that this has already led to considerable economies <sup>(23)</sup>.

In *Italy* the Council of Ministers with a similar purpose of economy has decided to abolish as soon as possible the National Office for Employment and Unemployment, an independent institution which dealt with the administration of unemployment insurance. This work would be transferred to the National Social Insurance Board and its district offices <sup>(24)</sup>.

### ENGAGEMENT AND DISCHARGE OF WORKERS

A Bill for regulating the conditions under which industrial undertakings may close down and workers be discharged <sup>(25)</sup> was recently drafted in *Germany* for submission to the Reichstag. The object of the Bill is to co-ordinate and make permanent the provisions contained in the temporary Orders of 12 February and 8 November 1920. The first of these Orders, which applies to industrial undertakings employing regularly at least twenty workers, lays down that the heads of such undertakings must notify the authorities one month in advance of their intention to close the works either partly or entirely, whenever such a step involves the unemployment of a specified proportion of the workers. The second Order goes further than requiring simple notice, and empowers the Federal Government, when the situation of the labour market calls for such a measure, to order that undertakings employing at least twenty workers shall not be allowed to discharge more than 5 per cent. of their staff without special authorisation. The notice to be given by employers intending to discharge over 5 per cent. of their staff is four weeks. The authorisation to discharge workers can only be granted when the economic character of the undertaking

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<sup>(23)</sup> In Europe this figure would seem altogether excessive for so stable an industry as that of the railways, but the ordinary percentage of unemployment in the United States is notoriously higher than in Europe.

<sup>(23)</sup> *Times*, 5 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(24)</sup> *La Stampa*, 31 Dec. 1922. Turin.

<sup>(25)</sup> *Entwurf eines Gesetzes über den Abbruch und die Stillegung gewerblicher Betriebe und über die Streckung der Arbeit*; *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 31 Oct. 1922. Berlin.

makes it impossible to introduce systematic short time, i.e. to distribute the available work among the workers by reducing the hours of each.

A measure of the same nature was introduced in the *Czechoslovak Republic* by the Decree of 21 October 1922<sup>(26)</sup>. Employers who propose to discharge their staff collectively must give at least a week's notice, collective discharge being defined as the discharge within a month of at least 10 per cent. of the staff on the pay-roll on the first working day of the month. The measure does not apply to seasonal workers or agricultural labourers.

In *Queensland* the Act of 18 October 1922 on unemployment insurance<sup>(27)</sup> also makes provision for intervention by the public authorities in questions of discharge and engagement of staff. It provides that, on the recommendation of the Council charged with the administration of unemployment insurance, the Governor-in-Council be empowered to order that a class of employers or individual employers are to increase their production or begin new work if circumstances so require.

In *Japan* the discharge of workers from military and naval arsenals due to the reduction in armaments gave rise to the Imperial Order of 7 October 1922 under which special grants are paid from the Treasury to the discharged workers. These grants vary with length of service from 75 days' wages for workers employed for less than a year up to 870 days' wages for those with over 40 years' service. The number of workers discharged in October 1922 was 5,960, the average grant being 500 yens; 17,500 are to be discharged in April 1923. Supplementary measures of the same kind were adopted in the Order of 3 November 1922 with respect to officers discharged for the same reason and civil servants and state employees discharged for reasons of economy<sup>(28)</sup>.

### *Engagement of Agricultural Workers in Italy*

The Minister of Agriculture addressed to various agricultural organisations a Circular in connection with the engagement of agricultural workers, pointing out the urgent need for carrying out work that had been neglected during the war. In reply to this Circular the Federation of Agricultural Unions of the Province of Bologna published an account of the interesting measures taken for the purpose in that Province by simple agreement between employers and workers. Committees consisting of representatives of agricultural employers and workers respectively have been set up to determine exactly, in agreement with landowners, the work which can be effected on each property and the number of additional workers who should be engaged. As regards estates leased on the share-tenant system, the committees also ascertain whether the tenant and his family are able to cultivate the whole of their land, with a view to procuring, if necessary, the employment of temporary workers for the surplus area. Such temporary workers are entitled to benefit by produce-sharing agreements.

<sup>(26)</sup> *Sammlung der Gesetze u. Verordnungen*, Nr. 110. An English translation will be published by the INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE as *Legislative Series* 1922 (Cz. 3).

<sup>(27)</sup> See above, under *Extension of Insurance*.

<sup>(28)</sup> INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 24, pp. 17-18; Vol. V, No. 3, p. 24.

*Stabilisation of Employment*

A number of schemes for stabilising employment, promoted by employers or associations of employers, are actually in working in the *United States*. The "Dennison" system, in force in the Dennison Manufacturing Company, Framingham, Massachusetts, is one of the best known examples. It is based upon methods of planning manufacture for stock well in advance, securing seasonal orders early, supplementing the manufacture of special items by the manufacture of stock items, developing subsidiary work to fill the gaps between seasonal production, and training operatives to perform supplementary work.

The "Cleveland" plan of unemployment compensation in force in the ladies' garment industry of Cleveland is also very well known. By this plan the employers guarantee 41 weeks' employment during the year or, in default, pay two-thirds of the minimum wages for any portion of the 41 weeks during which employment is not provided. According to the Cleveland Garment Manufacturers' Association "the result of the plan has without any doubt been an increase of work in the shops. It is true that the work has often been increased at a loss to the employer and it is a question whether some manufacturers would not rather take a loss through the employment fund<sup>(29)</sup>. However, the incentive is direct and appealing, and appears to be the only way in which the evil of unemployment can be eradicated or limited in this seasonal industry".

In the packing firm of Swift and Co., which has thirty factories and employs 55,000 persons, a system is in force for coping with sudden changes in the rate of production and reducing the disadvantages of irregularity in the delivery of raw materials. Since 1912 each worker on the pay-roll at the beginning of the week has been guaranteed a fixed minimum weekly wage equivalent to the remuneration of 40 hours' regular work, even though shorter hours may actually be worked. In order to avoid the losses resulting from irregularity in the delivery of raw materials, pressure has been brought to bear on transport undertakings with a view to their distributing the work over the week instead of concentrating it on two or three days.

The date-packing firm of Hills Brothers has succeeded in regularising production by an improvement in technical processes. By installing refrigerating plant for preserving the dates the firm has been able to spread its work over the whole year, and thus avoid seasonal fluctuations.

The methods of stabilisation outlined hitherto are limited to a single undertaking. In *South Africa*, however, a scheme covering an entire industry has been drawn up by the Cape Peninsular Building Trades Joint Board<sup>(30)</sup>. Compulsory contributions from workers, employers, and the state would be used to create an unemployment fund which, at times of industrial depression, would subsidise building, farming, railway work, etc. The weekly contribution would be 2s. 6d.

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<sup>(29)</sup> A reserve fund, separately constituted for each undertaking on the basis of a certain proportion of the pay-roll; payments made to unemployed workers eventually fall as a loss on the employer through this fund. See *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 749-750.

<sup>(30)</sup> *Cape Times*, 18 Oct. 1922. . Cape Town.

for skilled workers, 6d. for unskilled workers, and for employers 6d. per worker employed, whether skilled or unskilled. The state would contribute an amount equal to the total contribution of workers and employers. As the number of skilled workers is estimated at 20,000 and that of unskilled workers at 60,000, the fund, at the end of a year, would amount to £540,000. It would be managed by a committee of representatives of the state, the employers, and the workers.

In the *Netherlands* a memorandum dated 31 August 1922, addressed to the Minister of Labour by the Unemployment Commission (*Nederlandsche Werkloosheidsraad*), deals with the possibilities of stabilising employment by means of government action. It is stated that the Government ought to come to the assistance of industry in every possible way, especially by giving contracts to national industry, granting export credits, subsidising undertakings in difficulties and by other means. The memorandum argues that the Government should attempt to secure the systematic distribution of work over the whole year so as to avoid seasonal unemployment. State public works, it is suggested, should, as far as possible, be reserved for periods of depression. Works of drainage, dyke building, etc. if started at once, would largely contribute to the reduction of unemployment, and, while recognising the wisdom of reducing state expenditure as far as possible at the present time, the Commission considers that it would be a mistaken policy to economise on works of this kind. The development of agricultural settlements is also indicated as an effective means of combating unemployment.

## PLACEMENT AND RECRUITING

### *Public Employment Exchanges*

When the German Employment Exchange Act <sup>(31)</sup> came into force on 1 October 1922, certain of the Federal States set up the central employment exchanges (*Landesämter für Arbeitsvermittlung*) for which provision was made in the Act. Thus in *Prussia* instructions were issued on 2 November 1922 giving a list of twelve offices approved as central employment exchanges and determining the competence of the different authorities as regards employment exchange work. Similar provisions were adopted in *Bavaria*, while a central office for the whole of *Saxony* was established in Dresden by the Order of 27 September 1922. The Federal Ministry of Labour has also issued model regulations to be applied in working the exchanges. Thus each exchange must establish separate branches for the different industries, especially for agriculture, engineering and metal, clothing, buildings, hotels and restaurants, musicians, and domestic service.

The Employment Exchange Act in its present form is still incomplete. On a certain number of points, more especially the distribution of costs, further regulations will be introduced after practical experience has been gained.

In *Russia*, too, recent legislation contains provisions for the organisation of the labour market. The new code of labour laws which

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<sup>(31)</sup> *Reichsarbeitsnachweisgesetz*, 22 July 1922.

came into force on 16 November 1922 <sup>(32)</sup> lays down that the engagement of labour by all public or private undertakings and institutions must be carried out exclusively through the local organ of the Commissariat for Labour. In particular cases, where the proposed employment necessitates special political views or special knowledge, or where the Commissariat for Labour cannot supply the required labour within three days from the date of the demand, labour may be engaged without recourse to the Commissariat. All workers so engaged shall, however, be required subsequently to register with the appropriate organisation of the Commissariat in order to allow of strict control of the labour market.

The Act on Employment Exchanges promulgated in April 1921 by the Japanese Government in order to give effect to the Draft Convention on Unemployment adopted by the International Labour Conference (Washington 1919) came into force on 1 July 1921 <sup>(33)</sup>. Existing public employment exchanges were brought into conformity with the Act. The total number of such exchanges on 20 August 1922 was 102. The results of their activities for the year ended 30 June 1922 may be summarised as follows.

Applications for work	354,972
Vacancies notified	392,544
Vacancies filled	167,956

At a conference of representatives of public employment exchanges held at Tokio on 19 and 20 June 1922 resolutions were carried stating that the development of the employment exchange system was satisfactory, and recommending the establishment of a central office for the supervision of the exchanges and of the central and local committees provided for in the Act, and the introduction of legislation prohibiting the establishment of new fee-charging agencies and abolishing those already in existence <sup>(34)</sup>.

In the *Czechoslovak Republic* the work of the employment exchanges has grown considerably during the last few years. The following table, taken from the report of the Statistical Office for 1921, gives a summary of the work of the exchanges in that year <sup>(35)</sup>.

Applications for work	801,669
Vacancies notified	605,768
Vacancies filled	478,715

By an agreement between the Ministry for Social Welfare and the Ministry of Railways, transport facilities may be granted to unemployed workers. Thus workers who have found employment through a public exchange away from their place of residence receive their fare to the place of work; the grant applies also to the return journey if the employer fails to engage the worker. The cost is borne by the Ministry of Social Welfare.

<sup>(32)</sup> *Codex Zakonov O Troude* 1922; see INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE; *Industrial and Labour Information*, Russian Supplement, Vol. IV, No. 6, p. 10; an English translation will shortly appear as *Legislative Series* 1922, Rus. 1.

<sup>(33)</sup> Communication of the Japanese Government to the International Labour Office; *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 18, p. 22.

<sup>(34)</sup> *Tokio Asahi*, 20 and 21 June 1922 (*Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 18, p. 23).

<sup>(35)</sup> *Prager Press*, 15 Dec. 1922. Prague.



In the *Netherlands* the employment exchanges, although organised on very comprehensive lines, have not yet been given uniform legal standing. In a memorandum of 31 August 1922<sup>(36)</sup>, addressed to the Minister of Labour, the Dutch Unemployment Commission urges that the Employment Exchange Bill drafted some time ago should be submitted to the States-General at the earliest possible date.

A survey of the work of the employment exchanges in *Queensland* is given in the report of the Director of Labour of that State for 1921-1922<sup>(37)</sup>. During this period about 54,000 applications for work were received and 13,102 vacancies filled in public works. The Brisbane Women's Employment Agency reported a shortage of domestic servants in private employment, which it attributes to the lack of regulation of working conditions for this class of work.

### *Vocational Training of Unemployed Persons*

The war and the abnormal conditions which followed it have greatly increased the number of unskilled workers who clog the labour market and more than one government has been induced to take steps for the vocational training of unemployed persons. Attention may be drawn to the measures taken by *Great Britain* to relieve very acute unemployment among women workers. A grant of £100,000 has been assigned by the Government to the Central Committee on Women's Training; in spite of its large amount this grant is insufficient in view of the fact that it will only allow a three months' vocational training to be given to about 5,000 women, whereas the number of unemployed women is no less than 200,000<sup>(38)</sup>.

Enquiry having recently shown that there were in *Great Britain* 200,000 young persons from 14 to 18 years of age no longer at school but without having found an employment<sup>(39)</sup>, the Minister of Labour, with a view to dealing with this situation and protecting such young persons from the evil effects of idleness, has decided, in collaboration with the Board of Education, to establish education centres for young unemployed persons. Five half-days' instruction will be given per week, and will cover the simplest trades. An effort will also be made to find employments for those taking the courses. Compulsory attendance is under discussion for those over 15 years of age who are in receipt of unemployment benefit. For immediate purposes a grant of £18,000 is proposed; three-fourths of this will be advanced by the Treasury and the remaining fourth by the Local Education Authorities; instruction can be provided for 5,000 young persons<sup>(40)</sup>.

In an article appearing in the *Labour Magazine* for January Mr. W. T. Kelly recommends that the school leaving age should be raised from 14 to 16 with a view to combating unemployment among young workers.

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<sup>(36)</sup> *Tijdschrift van den Nederlandschen Werkloosheidsraad*, No. 9, 1922. Amsterdam.

<sup>(37)</sup> QUEENSLAND DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *Report of the Director of Labour and Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year ended 30 June 1922*. Brisbane, Govt. Printer. 1922.

<sup>(38)</sup> *Manchester Guardian*, 12 Dec. 1922. Manchester. *The Labour Magazine*, Jan. 1923, p. 399. London.

<sup>(39)</sup> *Observer*, 24 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(40)</sup> *Daily Telegraph*, 22 Jan. 1923. London.

In *Switzerland* the Federal Labour Office, in consideration of the annual entry of immigrant seasonal labour (to a number of 6,000 workers during April-July 1922), is enquiring into possibilities of starting vocational training for some classes of unemployed persons with a view to allowing them to take the place of such immigrant workers <sup>(41)</sup>. Further, Article 6 of the Federal Order of 15 November 1922 <sup>(42)</sup> expressly empowers the Federal authorities to assign grants towards the vocational training or advancement in training of unemployed persons.

In *Queensland* the unemployment insurance Act of which mention has already been made above <sup>(43)</sup> lays down that the unemployment fund, which is the financial nucleus of the insurance system, shall be subject to calls upon it for purposes of vocational training of the unemployed.

Mention has already been made in a previous number of the *Review* of the policy of the *Finnish Government* <sup>(44)</sup>.

## PROVISION OF WORK

### *Relief Works*

Owing to the seriousness of the present depression the system of relief works has been greatly extended beyond what was customary before the war, except perhaps in *Italy*, where it was always in favour <sup>(45)</sup>.

The measures adopted during the last few months show that this method of attacking the unemployment problem is still being actively pursued.

In *Australia* the Federal Government has made a grant of £250,000 for the construction of new roads, with a view to the assistance of the unemployed <sup>(46)</sup>.

In the *United States* an association has been formed, entitled "The National League against Unemployment", under the auspices of eminent personalities in religious, labour, social, legal, and political circles in New York and Washington. Its chief object is to carry on propaganda by the publication and distribution of literature urging public authorities (Federal, State, and municipal governments) to start public works, especially in periods of depression <sup>(47)</sup>.

In *Great Britain* Sir Montague Barlow, Minister of Labour, made a speech in Parliament indicating the importance of the relief work already undertaken or contemplated. During the last two years £19,000,000 have been spent on the construction of new roads and £20,000,000 on road repair work. The Ministry of Agriculture has spent £1,250,000 on drainage, afforestation, and other work. As regards the immediate future the Government contemplates the construction of new roads for which a grant of £15,000,000 is available, and impor-

<sup>(41)</sup> *Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, 18 Oct. 1922. Zurich.

<sup>(42)</sup> *Marché suisse du travail*, 15 Dec. 1922. Berne.

<sup>(43)</sup> See under *Extension of Insurance*.

<sup>(44)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 137.

<sup>(45)</sup> Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Enquiry into Unemployment; Remedies for Unemployment*, pp. 103 et seq.

<sup>(46)</sup> *Daily Telegraph*, 10 Oct. 1922. London.

<sup>(47)</sup> *Manchester Guardian*, 5 Jan. 1923. Manchester.

tant railway construction at the cost of £5,000,000 or £6,000,000. Mr. Ramsay McDonald pointed out, however, that only about one-tenth of the total number of unemployed would get any benefit from these schemes.

In *Italy* <sup>(48)</sup> the Ministry of Public Works has drawn up a programme of works involving a total expenditure of 13 milliard lire.

In the *Netherlands* <sup>(49)</sup> the Government has announced its intention of asking that in 1923 the grant for the promotion of relief works and other opportunities of employment should be raised from 2 to 4 million florins.

In *Roumania* Mr. Pistiner demanded in an interpellation in the Chamber on 30 December 1922 that the Government should start public works for the relief of the unemployed.

In *Sweden* the report of the Unemployment Commission <sup>(50)</sup> points out that the relief obtained by the unemployed from the state is more and more taking the form of relief works. It has been possible to reduce state intervention owing to the decline in unemployment, as is illustrated by the following figures.

	Number of unemployed	
	receiving money relief	employed on relief works
Winter 1921-1922	65,000 (maximum)	31,000
Summer 1922	2,000 to 2,500	20,000

Relief work has chiefly consisted in the construction and repair of roads, work in state forests, irrigation and drainage, etc., and has been organised so that it could be left unfinished if the number of unemployed decreases. With a view to fulfilling the latter condition a clause has been inserted in the contracts between the Commission and the contracting municipalities or other organisations exempting the Commission from any obligation to finish works which have been started. During 1921-1922 the amount spent by the Government on relief works was 41 million kronor, as compared with 11 million kronor in direct relief. The Commission states that the work effected represents, on the whole, an increase in the capital resources of the country corresponding to the cost and declares itself satisfied with the results obtained. It has drawn up a programme of work for the period from 1 January 1923 to 1 May 1924 involving an expenditure of about 29,400,000 kronor, on the estimate that there will be 21,000 unemployed workers in the first five months of 1923, the number being gradually reduced to about 6,000 in 1924. The labour members of the Commission consider this forecast too optimistic.

In *Switzerland* a Federal Decree of 14 November 1922 <sup>(51)</sup> provides for the starting of relief works by the Confederation itself, as also for Federal grants to the cantons for the same purpose. Grants may amount to as much as 10 per cent. of the cost in the case of house building or house improvement and 20 per cent. in the case of public works. It is determined separately in each case on the basis of the amount of actual employment provided by the undertaking in proportion to its total cost. The Federal Government also allows a special additional grant equal to 20 per cent. of the total wages paid to unem-

<sup>(48)</sup> *L'Economista d'Italia*, 22 Dec. 1922.

<sup>(49)</sup> *Nieuwe Rötterdamsche Courant*, 15 and 16 Nov. 1922. Rotterdam. *Telegraf*, 15 and 16 Nov. 1922. Amsterdam.

<sup>(50)</sup> *Sociala Meddelanden*, 1923, No. 1 A. Stockholm. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE : *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. V, No. 3, pp. 21-22.

<sup>(51)</sup> *Marché suisse du travail*, 15 Dec. 1922. Berne.

ployed persons employed on the work in question. These various grants are only made on condition that the cantons and communes concerned allot equal amounts. A Circular issued by the Department of National Economy on 16 November 1922 insists on strict observance of the condition that the subsidised work must be carried out exclusively with material, plant, machinery, and tools of Swiss origin, unless this is declared impossible. The same Decree also makes provision for relief work of an intellectual or artistic nature, such as collaboration in drafting plans and schemes for works of public interest, the artistic decoration of public buildings, squares, etc. The participation of the Federal Government in such work may be as much as half the cost. On 31 December 1922 about 34,000 out of a total of 53,000 unemployed were in receipt of relief, 21,000 of them obtaining direct assistance and 13,000 being employed on relief works.

### *Productive Relief*

In a large number of countries there is a growing attempt to base relief of the unemployed on the principle of productive work. Thus relief for which the worker renders no corresponding services is replaced as far as possible by the payment of wages in return for productive employment. The countries in which this system is in force, known in Germany as "productive relief", now include Austria, Italy, and Queensland.

In *Austria* the amendment of 19 July 1922<sup>(52)</sup> to the Act of 24 March 1920 on compulsory unemployment insurance includes a new clause under which loans or grants can be made to undertakings which are able to provide employment for persons who would otherwise be entitled to unemployment benefit. The loans or grants are based on the number of unemployed persons for whom work is provided, and must not exceed the amount payable in unemployment benefit per worker and per day. They are made in the first instance to local authorities and other public bodies. They may also be made during a crisis to private undertakings. The wages of workers employed in undertakings which are in receipt of grants must not be enough to attract workers in regular employment. The sum allocated in the form of loans and grants for productive unemployment relief are included under the heading of general unemployment insurance expenditure, and must not exceed one quarter of the total expenditure on unemployment insurance.

In *Italy* a Decree issued by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare on 29 November 1922<sup>(53)</sup> lays down that the present sums in the unemployment insurance Reserve Fund, which are made up of payments from the local funds together with an annual grant from the state, are to be used, up to a total amount of 35,000,000 lire, for the purpose of making loans to local authorities and associations organising public works which are likely to reduce unemployment. The loans must be repaid within two years at most, and bear interest at five per cent.

In *Queensland* the Unemployment Insurance Act recently passed<sup>(54)</sup> provides that, on the report of the Council responsible for the administration of the Act, the Governor-in-Council is empowered to order public works on which unemployed persons could be engaged to

<sup>(52)</sup> *Ämtliche Nachrichten*, 31 Aug. 1922. Vienna.

<sup>(53)</sup> *Gazzetta ufficiale*, 14 Dec. 1922. Rome.

<sup>(54)</sup> See above, under *Extension of Insurance*.

be carried out immediately. The Act also makes provision for the creation of government labour farms, on which a certain number of unemployed persons can be engaged. The workers on these farms would be paid by the state. A fund would be instituted by means of state credits.

### *Promotion of Export Trade and Assistance for Industry*

Among recent measures taken in various countries to meet the difficulties with which international trade has had to contend since the war, reference may be made to those adopted in Great Britain and in Switzerland for the purpose of encouraging exports and assisting industry by means of grants. In *Great Britain*, in the debate in the House of Commons on the Address in reply to the King's Speech, Sir Montague Barlow, Minister of Labour, drew attention to the two Acts which had been passed with a view to stimulating export trade. The Export Credits Scheme, for which a credit of £26,000,000 was available, had guaranteed traders' risks up to £22,000,000. Under the Trade Facilities Act eight hundred applications had been dealt with and capital issues of £22,500,000 had been guaranteed<sup>(55)</sup>. At the beginning of December 1922 Parliament passed an Act renewing the provisions of the Trade Facilities Act for a year, and raising the guarantee fund from £25,000,000 to £50,000,000<sup>(56)</sup>.

In *Switzerland* the Federal Chambers adopted a Decree on 13 October 1922, allocating to the embroidery industry grants similar to those already allocated to watchmaking<sup>(57)</sup>. It was decided to institute a trustee co-operative society for the embroidery industry. Federal assistance takes the form of (1) allowing embroidery factories to defer payment of obligations (*sursis concordataire et hypothécaire*); (2) taking 1,000,000 shares in the trustee society, the capital of which is to be not less than 1,500,000 francs; (3) allocating a grant of 5,000,000 francs to the trustee society, the chief function of which will be to assist undertakings in the embroidery and allied industries by promoting the regulation and improvement of conditions and encouraging export by opening credits or allowing some other form of subsidy<sup>(58)</sup>.

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<sup>(55)</sup> Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Commons) 30 Nov. and 1 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(56)</sup> Ibid. 8 Dec. 1922.

<sup>(57)</sup> INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Industrial and Labour Information*, Vol. IV, No. 2, p. 25. Berne.

<sup>(58)</sup> *Recueil des lois fédérales*, 25 Oct. and 22 Nov. 1922. Berne.

# WAGES AND HOURS

## The Results of the Eight-Hour Day in Sweden <sup>(1)</sup>

ON 22 June 1921 the Swedish Government at the request of Parliament directed the Office of Labour and Social Affairs to draw up, in conjunction with the Board of Trade and the Swedish Delegation for International Collaboration in Social Questions, a general report on the results of the provisional legislation enacted in 1920 on the limitation of hours of work. According to the plan approved by the Government the enquiry included:

(1) an investigation into opinions prevailing in various centres as to the advantages or disadvantages resulting from the application of the Act;

(2) an enquiry into the consequences of the limitation of working hours in different industries;

(3) a special study of the economic consequences of the Act in certain specified undertakings.

The first two enquiries were entrusted to the Office of Labour and Social Affairs, the third to the Board of Trade.

The Office of Social Affairs had suggested postponing their investigations in view of the exceptional economic situation prevailing since the 8-hour day Act became operative, but this proposal did not meet with the approval of the Government. The report was finally submitted to the Government together with a letter dated 29 September 1922 and a Bill containing certain proposed modifications to the Act actually in force.

### *Attitude of Employers and Workers*

The Office of Social Affairs states in the report that the value of the results obtained is limited. The information supplied gives, however, a very definite idea of the various opinions prevalent concerning the importance, the necessity, the advantages and disadvantages of the 8-hour day. Employers, biased often by the belief that the Act has been imposed on them, adhere in a large majority to the views expressed by the Federation of Swedish Employers that the institution of a legal working day has been a great misfortune for the whole country. It has imposed a heavy burden on industry and has confined

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<sup>(1)</sup> SOCIALDEPARTEMENTET, KUNGLIGA SOCIALSTYRELSEN. *Förslag till reviderad lag om arbetstidens begränsning jämte utredningar rörande arbetstidslagstiftningens verkningar och arbetstids förhållandena inom vissa yrken. Statens offentliga utredningar 1922, No. 33.* (Ministry of Social Affairs, Office of Social Affairs. Proposal for a revised Act concerning Limitation of Hours of Work together with Enquiries into (a) the Effects of Legislation relating to Hours of Work, and (b) Hours of Work in certain Industries. Government Enquiries 1922, No. 33), Stockholm, 29 Sept. 1922. Summary communicated by Mr. Bertil NYSTRÖM, Chief of the Bureau for Special Enquiries in Social Statistics in the Office of Social Affairs.

the economic life of the country in a 'straight-jacket' precluding the liberty of movement essential to prosperity. It has contributed to the present serious, almost desperate, economic position of the country. The happy results anticipated in the social sphere have not been achieved.

The workers, even those belonging to groups to which the Act has brought but a negligible shortening of the former working day, consider it as a victory gained in the struggle of contending interests and, without exception, support every clause, demanding the strictest interpretation and enforcement of the Act and the extension of its field of operation. In every reply received from the workers a similar enthusiasm for this Act is noticeable and a determination to use every possible means for its maintenance. For instance, a provincial union declares this to be "the best Act obtained by the working classes". The Secretariat of the General Confederation of Labour emphasises the fact that the enactment of the 8-hour day Act has largely contributed towards strengthening the faith of the workers in the efficacy of successive social improvements and the ultimate attainment of a better social order through peaceful reforms.

There exist, therefore, two distinct groups of opinion, each, however, less homogeneous than the result of the enquiry would lead one to suppose. The reports furnished by public Departments and communal authorities and certain organisations of a social character have often been but the echo of one or the other, and have failed to present the desired objectivity except by avoiding delicate points or cloaking these under a general summary. Indeed, in few instances has an objective and detailed examination of the social and economic consequences of the 8-hour day Act been attempted.

In these circumstances, and in view of the shortness of the period since the Act came into force and the abrupt transition in the economic sphere from a febrile activity to a marked depression so peculiar to the time, it can hardly be expected that the enquiry would lead to an unbiased conclusion impervious to a general critical examination. The time is not yet ripe for an enquiry of this nature, states the report; perhaps it will never be in view of the circumstances already referred to. Under present conditions the main result of the enquiry has been to bring to light certain well-established facts which may help in circumscribing the discussion of this burning question and so contribute to the solution of this important problem.

### *Influence of the Act*

It would appear that the burden and restrictions which the 8-hour day Act has brought to bear upon the various branches of economic activity are unequally distributed. If the number of hours formerly authorised in different industries is taken into consideration, it is plain that the reduction in the length of the working day varies considerably; moreover, the restrictions imposed react to the disadvantage of the different trades and industries; finally — a circumstance overlooked in a superficial study — the interdependence of the many branches of human activity, which is one of the conditions necessary for the development and the prosperity of modern economic life, does not exist in the same degree in every sphere. The first important result of the enquiry has been to show the enormous influence of a law of this nature on the economic life of the country and the number of special cases which arise when it is put into operation.

In the manufacturing industry it has been possible, in a certain measure, to counteract any loss due to the limitation of working hours by centralising the work and increasing output by means of technical improvements and re-organisation. The 8-hour day Act has been in certain industries a strong determining factor for progress.

The drawbacks occasioned by the 8-hour day have been chiefly noticeable in continuous industries. If, however, the application of the Act in these industries has frequently given rise to legitimate anxiety from the technical and economic point of view, it must, on the other hand, be remembered that the men in these industries engaged for long hours on tedious work and in periodical night shifts are precisely those in respect of whom the limitation of the working day has been amply justified.

### *The Limitation of Overtime*

A further consequence of the regulation of hours of work which has undoubtedly occasioned serious inconvenience is the limitation of overtime, formerly restricted only, in most cases, by the rate of overtime pay stipulated for in the collective agreements.

The provisions of the law appear to render production less elastic, and adaptation to circumstances possible only in a certain measure. They would seem, moreover, to preclude the establishment of a compact and permanent staff. Industry, therefore, demands that the path opened at the time of the revision of the Act in 1921 should be followed, and above all that the number of hours of overtime authorised per month be increased. The claims made emanate especially from seasonal industries, so numerous in Sweden by reason of the climatic conditions and other circumstances. These claims insist that, in a country where the summer nights are short and light and the winter days short and dark, it is both useless and irrational to enforce at all a statutory 8-hour day or a 48-hour week, or even to establish a maximum of 192 hours spread over a period of four weeks in manual trades and the building industry, which depend so greatly on weather conditions. The limit for these industries, they state, should be approximately 2,400 hours per year. It is pointed out that the law as it stands does not exclude the yearly average basis. The difficulties arise from the somewhat narrow interpretation given to the Act, an interpretation which seems to be in accordance with the demands of the working classes; moreover, these claims would still be brought up in the collective agreements, even if the judgement of the Labour Council, under whose authority the application of the Act comes, was modified on this point. In the connection the report points out that the clause, embodied in the revised Act of 1921, which excluded undertakings employing not more than four workers, has been rendered almost ineffective.

### *Auxiliary Services*

The difficulties caused by the application of the Act to such occupations as the distribution and transport of goods in or between factories and workshops, or from these establishments to the consumer, appear to be far greater than the difficulties caused by its application to manufacturing industries in general. The non-manufacturing services work to order and payment by results is not practicable. It is impossible to make any appreciable concentration in work and the application of the Act necessitates a large increase in staff. Even



though transition to new conditions has been relatively easy by reason of the economic depression, serious difficulties remain to be faced; they are chiefly noticeable in the export trade and in commerce, where inconvenience has been aggravated by the decrease in the hours of clerical workers in the railways and post office.

### *Increase in the Cost of Production*

If a general idea has been given in this study of the consequences of the 8-hour day Act in the different branches of industry, it has not been possible to furnish statistical data relating to the effect of the Act on industry from the economic point of view. It may, however, be pointed out that the estimate generally accepted by employers of the increase in the cost of production of from 15 to 20 per cent. appears to be excessive, since the real part played by wages in the total cost of production has frequently been overlooked.

To yield the desired results an enquiry of this nature into cost of production should be objective, exhaustive, and methodically conducted. Research on these lines has been carried out by the Board of Trade in connection with the special enquiry into the economic consequences of the 8-hour day Act in certain industries, referred to at the beginning of this article.

1. Taking as a basis the information derived from local investigations by experts in about forty industrial undertakings in different industries, this Department estimates the increase in the cost of production, calculated in relation to the cost of production for the year 1920, at 1.9 to 5.4 per cent. in undertakings able to increase their staff to the extent necessary to compensate for the reduction in working hours and, by this means, to maintain the level of output, and at 3.7 to 11.8 per cent. in undertakings where production is restricted owing to inability to increase the staff. These figures give, within the scope of the enquiry and for the different branches of industry, a general idea of the increase in costs resulting from the application of the Act compared with other costs incident to production. On the other hand, they are of little use in estimating the influence of the Act on the economic stability of commercial enterprises and their ability to continue working at a profit and withstand competition under the new conditions.

2. In this connection it would appear more justifiable to compare the increase in costs as estimated by the Board of Trade with the normal yield of the fixed capital of the undertakings (including real estate, fixtures, plant, etc.), calculated at the rate of interest which was current at the time of the investigation, namely 7 per cent. As a matter of fact, in normal times the difference between gross income and actual expenses ought to be such as to cover ordinary interest on capital invested.

Such a comparison shows that the increase in costs, as calculated by the Board of Trade, exceeds this interest in certain cases, in others is practically equivalent to it, while in the remainder the increase in costs absorbs a considerable part of the interest. However, when a concern is in a position to raise its sale prices in proportion to the increased cost of production, the profits, of course, remain the same. The effects of the Act, therefore are dependent on a large number of factors which are, as yet, not determined, notably the price level and cost of labour in the country, the rates of exchange, tariff and fiscal policy, and finally the evolution of the 8-hour day in other countries.

*Workers' Output*

The report of the Office of Social Affairs shows almost as much scepticism with regard to the workers' estimates of the effects of the limitation of working hours on output as it manifested in regard to the employers' estimates of increased cost of production. It would appear, in fact, states the report, that the workers' estimates are frequently inaccurate; they imply, indeed, in many cases, that output has been increased to such an extent that the amount produced in an 8-hour day is equivalent to that produced in the former 10-hour day. The fact has generally been overlooked that the advantage gained on piece work, on which these calculations are frequently based, do not represent the real increase in hourly output of the worker, but are also the result of technical improvements and more efficient organisation, which have largely compensated for the reduction in the length of the working day.

This source of error has been guarded against in the special enquiry relating to the variations in output between the years 1900 and 1921 in a state arms factory in Sweden, where, during this period, guns of the same type were manufactured with the same machinery and with a fairly homogeneous staff, in spite of considerable fluctuations in labour turnover. The figures of output, given in the appended table, show a continuous increase during that time. The figure for 1921 is two and a half times as great as that of 1900, but, as is usually the case in new undertakings, the output increased rapidly during the first few years in proportion to the increased efficiency gained by experience, but later showed gradually less and less progress. The relation between the increase in output and the decrease in piece-

HOURLY OUTPUT OF WORKERS IN A SWEDISH GUN FACTORY

Year	Number of workers (yearly average)	Average hourly earnings		Index number of cost per gun	Guns manufactured per 100 workers per hour		
		Amount (kronor)	Index number (1)		Actual number	Index number (2)	Chain index number (2)
1900	540	0.43	100	100	2.37	100	100
1901	497	0.45	105	95	2.65	112	112
1902	457	0.47	109	90	2.92	123	110
1903	429	0.47	109	90	2.92	123	100
1904	420	0.48	112	81	2.97	125	102
1905	416	0.48	112	78	3.41	144	115
1906	417	0.48	112	78	3.44	145	101
1907	417	0.50	116	78	3.56	150	103
1908	397	0.52	121	78	3.72	157	104
1909	329	0.54	126	78	3.87	163	104
1910	292	0.55	128	77	3.96	167	102
1911	277	0.57	133	77	4.12	174	104
1912	256	0.57	133	77	4.12	174	100
1913	256	0.60	140	77	4.33	183	105
1914	260	0.62	144	77	4.50	190	104
1915	511	0.62	144	77	4.49	189	100
1916	636	0.69	160	78	4.95	209	110
1917	590	0.77	179	81	5.27	222	106
1918	475	0.86	200	82	5.82	246	110
1919	380	1.00	233	95	5.87	248	101
1920	270	1.02	237	95	5.97	252	102
1921	203	1.04	243	94	6.17	260	103

(1) The base year is 1900 = 100.

(2) Number for each preceding year = 100.

work prices during the first part of this period is evident. Increased output generally follows on reduction in piece-work prices. The natural explanation of this lies in the fact that the workers make every effort to maintain their previous earnings. The evolution proceeded on somewhat different lines during the years of crisis. From 1915 production increased in a marked degree, and the staff more than doubled, while a rise occurred in piece-work rates. Nevertheless, the year 1915 was marked by a slight decline in output, followed in 1916 by an important increase, which continued up to 1918; this was mainly due to the fact that piece-work rates rose with less rapidity than the cost of living, although, in order to form a correct estimate from the figures shown in the appended table, the fact that workers engaged on piece-work received a cost-of-living bonus must be taken into consideration. After the war the manufacture of guns appreciably decreased and staff was reduced. In 1919 the 8-hour day was introduced and the wages for both piece-work and time-work were raised 15 per cent. to compensate for the reduction in the working day. Examination of the output figures during the years 1919-1921 shows that a continuous increase took place, which was much less rapid than during the years of crisis, and exactly resembled that of the pre-war period. The inference is that hourly output has risen.

If an attempt is made to establish the relation between increased output and decrease in the number of working hours, it will be evident that, calculated per week and per worker, yearly production from 1919 to 1921 was 7 per cent. lower than for 1918, in which year the average working week was one of 53.5 hours, while it was approximately 8 per cent. higher than the average output of 1913 to 1917 and 29 per cent. higher than that of 1908 to 1912, with an average working week of 56.5 hours during these two periods of five years.

### *Social Results*

As regards the social effects of the limitation of working hours, the report states that they are as difficult to estimate as the economic results, owing to the influence of the industrial depression on the outlook of the workers. Thus while cases of voluntary absence were more numerous during 1920, the year 1921 had shown a decrease. These facts would seem to strengthen the employers in their opinion that the cause of the decrease in absenteeism has not been the 8-hour law but the scarcity of work and the consequent fear of dismissal; permission to take leave is now applied for, or reasons of health are pleaded for non-attendance.

It must be admitted that there is some truth in the workers' replies to the enquiry regarding the economic results of the shorter working day; they state that increases in wages originally granted have been nullified by reductions subsequently made in 1921 and 1922. In consequence of this greater economic burden on the working classes, the workers seem more inclined to do extra work during their leisure hours; this tendency is specially noticeable in trades where machinery is not required or where the tools and machines used are easily procurable, such as the bricklayers', the carpenters', the painters', the tailors', the shoemakers' trade, etc.

It is stated, however, that work in leisure hours is often done either for the worker himself or his family. Here one touches the question of the influence of the limitation of working hours on family life. The shorter working day has been particularly useful to the worker owning

a house, a small garden or an allotment, where the work done has the double advantage of providing useful recreation for the worker and food for his family.

The use made of leisure hours by youthful workers is a still more important question. There is the danger that, left to their own devices, they may contract habits of idleness, or devote their spare time to pursuits of an undesirable nature, such as gambling, drink, etc. Many people, among whom are numbered not merely employers but those interested in educational work among young people, assert that forebodings in this connection have unfortunately been justified in numerous cases. On the other hand, there is a general recognition of the increased responsibility devolving on parents, teachers, and societies for young people, the 8-hour day enabling them to form a nobler, healthier and better educated generation of workers. To attain this end it is necessary to improve methods of physical and general education and to extend vocational training. Among the organisations which appear to have realised the great opportunity for improved workers' education offered by the new division of working and leisure hours, must be mentioned the Church of Sweden's social service work, certain temperance societies, and the Swedish Association for Workers' Education.

The report, on the whole, shows that the Act on the limitation of the working day has undoubtedly occasioned an increase in the cost of production, but, at the same time, has conferred on the workers benefits which they highly appreciate. In the opinion of the Office of Labour and Social Affairs the enquiry has failed to show any adequate reason for the abrogation of the Act or sufficient data on which to base definite legislation. For this reason the Office of Labour and Social Affairs has recommended to the Government an extension of the existing regulations for a further provisional period, i.e. 1924 to 1926<sup>(2)</sup>. In favour of this provisional arrangement they point to the possibility of an international revision of the whole question of the limitation of working hours.



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<sup>(2)</sup> According to a Swedish press report a Bill was introduced into Parliament on 14 February of this year to extend the hours of work Act for three years from 31 December 1923.

# The New Regulation of Hours of Work on the French Railways

By a Decree dated 15 September 1922 <sup>(1)</sup> new regulations regarding hours of work on the French railways were issued <sup>(2)</sup>. Previous to this the provisions of the Act of 23 April 1919 <sup>(3)</sup> limiting hours of work to 8 per day had been applied to railway workers according to the decisions made between 6 May and 24 November 1919 by a Joint Committee of representatives of the companies and the staff, set up by a Ministerial Order of 24 April 1919.

## REGULATION BY JOINT DECISIONS

Disregarding for the moment the detailed regulations for the various grades of railway staff, the main provisions of the joint decisions may be noted. The daily 8-hour maximum applied to all non-train staff (rolling stock, permanent way, and traffic departments). The 8 working hours had to be either continuous or divided into two turns of duty (in exceptional cases three). The spreadover was generally limited to 10 hours, but in some cases it might be extended to 12, 14, or even 15 hours. For workers employed away from home the average 8-hour day had to be preceded and followed by long unbroken rests, but might in exceptional cases be calculated over a fortnight or month. The joint decisions thus regulated the application of the Act to the various grades of workers in accordance with the necessities of the service.

### *Criticisms of the System by Employers*

These provisions were subject to a good deal of criticism. On 2 February 1921 the Finance Commission of the Senate adopted a resolution to the effect that special measures should be taken to cover the deficit in the railways, to allow extensive exceptions, and to authorise overtime in some departments, pending a return to normal conditions. On 15 February 1921 the Minister of Finance complained in the Chamber that the Eight-Hour Day Act was applied in an altogether unreasonable way. He said that in certain small stations, where there was only one train morning and evening, the Act had had the effect of doubling the staff on the ground that the twelve hours which elapsed between the passage of the two trains exceeded the legal duration of the working day. The *Peuple* replied on 3 March that in such cases the companies had applied Clause 3 of Joint Decision No. 14 of 2 June 1919 and increased the spreadover to 12½ hours.

On 26 March 1921 the Minister of Public Works explained the financial position of the railways to the Senate, and declared that the

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<sup>(1)</sup> English translation in INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Legislative Series*, 1923, Fr. 4.

<sup>(2)</sup> This Decree does not affect train staff (*personnel roulant*). The Ministerial Orders of 8 November 1919 regulating working hours for drivers, firemen, and guards remain in force.

<sup>(3)</sup> English translation in INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE (Basle): *Bulletin*, Vol. XIV, 1919, p. 48.

Eight-Hour Day Act had been applied on the railways in an abnormal manner. On 7 July 1921 he made a similar statement, adding that he had refused to transmit to the Council of State the draft Administrative Regulations embodying the rules for the working of the railways, and that he had asked the companies to formulate further proposals so that he might submit a new draft to the Council of State. On 23 February 1922 he declared again, in a speech to the Senate: "I have myself drafted Administrative Regulations in which I have endeavoured to apply the true spirit of the Act". On 10 March 1922, in presenting his new draft to the Labour Commission of the Chamber, he laid especial emphasis on the distinction between 'actual work' and 'time on duty'.

The *Temps* of 12 March, commenting on these statements, pointed out that the Act, in limiting the working day, explicitly referred to actual work, and that it was impossible to consider as such "the work of a level-crossing keeper where a very small number of trains passed during the day". To this the *Humanité* replied on 13 April that under the joint decisions themselves level-crossing keepers worked from 12 to 15 hours, according to the importance of the crossing.

On 30 June 1922 a Deputy speaking in the Chamber stated that the railway companies estimated that the rigid application of the Act had in effect reduced the average day's work to 6 hours, and he asked for liberal exemptions from the existing regulations. In his reply the Minister of Public Works said:

Without any idea of weakening the Act of 1919 but rather of observing both its spirit and its form, the question of the advisability of revising the arrangement of hours at present in force on the railways has nevertheless arisen.

### *Influence on Efficiency*

Since the beginning of 1921 the effect of the Eight-Hour Day Act has been the subject of many articles and speeches, based on the reports of the managing boards of the railway companies. Most of the figures quoted are taken from the report presented to the Railway Council in April 1922.

According to this report, the staff employed by the six great railway companies in 1913 amounted to 352,045 persons. What may be termed the corresponding output can best be measured by the number of train-kilometres and the number of traffic units, that is to say the total passenger-kilometres plus the total metric ton-kilometres (\*). During 1913 403,561,616 train-kilometres were covered and the number of traffic units amounted to 44,540,873,549. The ratio of staff to output was 0.88 per 1,000 train-kilometres and 0.79 per 100,000 traffic units. In 1920 the figures were 1.86 workers per 1,000 train-kilometres and 1 worker per 100,000 traffic units, representing increases, as the reporter pointed out, of 112 per cent. and 28 per cent. respectively; in 1921 the corresponding increases were 84 per cent. and 19 per cent. For 1922 the reporter estimated the increases at 80 per cent. and 17 per cent. respectively, and the railway deficit at 1,200 million francs. He concluded that, in view of the very high level of rates and fares already charged, the necessary economies could only be effected by revising the methods of application of the Eight-Hour Day Act.

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(\*) The metric equivalents of train-miles, passenger-miles, and ton-miles.

Finally, in the report presenting the Decree of 15 September 1922 for the approval of the President of the Republic<sup>(5)</sup>, the Minister of Public Works laid emphasis on the following consideration.

The chief aim kept in view in drafting the Decree was to increase efficiency on the French railways by every means compatible with the Act of 23 April 1919. It is entirely in accordance with the spirit of this Act to draw a sharp distinction between actual work and time on duty. This was not done by the Joint Committee of 1919.

## THE NEW DECREE

### *Historical Summary*

On 6 December 1921 the first draft of a Decree was presented to the companies and the workers' organisations for consideration. On 16 January 1922 the companies addressed a letter to the Minister of Public Works stating that they considered the draft inadequate, and on 1 March they requested the Minister either to suspend or amend the Act for a given period. On 22 March the Minister of Public Works sent to the Council of State a new draft Decree drawn up in agreement with the Minister of Labour. On 22 April the companies sent a further letter to the Minister of Public Works stating that they would withdraw their request for amendment of the Act if they could gain their object by a sufficiently elastic interpretation of it, and especially if they were allowed to put its provisions into force gradually. They protested against the terms of the second draft, and finally requested that their proposal of 1 March be retained in its entirety, with the addition of an annual margin of 300 working hours without overtime pay for a period of seven years as a basis for gradual adjustment. The Council of State, after considering this request, suggested that the Minister should submit the second draft to the Railway Council, which decided to adopt a new text prescribing the introduction of the 8-hour day by stages, as requested by the companies. As a temporary measure, working hours would for seven years be limited, not to 2,504 per year, which is the equivalent of 8 hours a day for 313 working days, but to 2,804 hours. A margin of 300 hours was thus established, covering the transition required by the Act of 23 April 1919, but nevertheless effecting a reduction of 952 hours per annum on the former legal working hours.

The Minister of Public Works had then to consult the workers' organisations<sup>(6)</sup>. On receipt of their replies a new draft was made, taking into consideration the various observations submitted in so far as they appeared to be justified. This draft was approved by the Council of State, with certain modifications intended to define certain provisions more clearly, and became the Decree of 15 September, which came into force on 16 October 1922, a month after its publication in the *Journal Officiel*.

### *Terms of the Decree*

The most important provisions of the Decree are summarised below.

*Hours of Work.* The duration of actual work from 1 January to 31 December may not exceed 2,504 hours. The hours of duty of workers

<sup>(5)</sup> *Journal officiel*, 15 Sept. 1922. Paris.

<sup>(6)</sup> Announcement in *Journal officiel*, 25 June 1922. Paris.

engaged in actual work throughout their period of duty may not exceed this total limit, and in addition may not exceed a maximum of 10 hours a day.

The hours on duty of workers whose work is of an intermittent nature may not exceed the following limits :

(a) 12 hours a day on duty for workers on watch duty, those engaged in the distributive services, paying out, or cash taking, officials at fifth and sixth class stations and at halts, workers employed in services on an irregular time-table, those whose main activities depend on the requirements of trains at stations, and those specially engaged on signals or as pointsmen where the number of trains passing hourly is less than four on a monthly average ;

(b) 15 hours a day on duty for level-crossing keepers who are free to leave their gates or boxes and return to the keeper's house, and for workers living on the spot who are engaged for not less than 6 hours a day exclusively at level crossings.

*Calculation of Time on Duty.* Time on duty is to include the interval between the actual beginning and cessation of duties assigned to the worker. It does not include the total duration of breaks, time spent in taking a "snack", the time required to wash and change clothes, to reach the actual work-place and return from it, and for the worker to hand over duties to another relieving him.

For workers employed away from home, time on duty includes the entire duration of journeys undertaken compulsorily on an engine or in a breakdown van, or those made on foot or by train when the worker is actually employed throughout the journey.

For workers employed on the maintenance of the permanent way, time on duty includes times spent in examining the permanent way, reckoned at the rate of one hour for every three kilometres, and the duration of journeys made on foot in excess of five kilometres in order to reach or return from the work-place, reckoned at the rate of 12 minutes a kilometre. For workers employed in working a train, the time actually so spent is reckoned at one-half its duration.

*Night Duty at Level Crossings.* When a woman crossing-keeper is employed on day duty, a railway worker who is a member of her family and household may be required to undertake night duty at the crossing, provided that he is not required to get up between 9 p. m. and 5 a. m. more than sixty times a month.

*Rest Periods.* If the day's duty includes two or three rest intervals (breaks), the longest must be at least  $1\frac{1}{2}$  hours and the other or each of the two others at least one hour.

*Spreadover.* The duration of actual work or period of duty, as the case may be, together with the breaks, constitutes the spreadover of the day's duties. This spreadover may not exceed 15 hours for workers provided with a dwelling on the spot free of charge, and 14 hours for all other workers.

*Night Turns.* Where work is organised in shifts, the working lists may not provide for more than ten consecutive night turns.

*Exceptions.* The hours on duty of workers employed in workshops, sheds, stores, and electricity works and sub-stations may be extended beyond the limits prescribed above for preparatory or supplementary



work. The hours of work may be temporarily extended beyond the limits fixed by the Decree in cases of urgent work or work done in the interests of national defence under a government order. In cases of exceptional pressure of work an increase of 450 hours a year may be allowed. This increase may not be used to extend the hours of work by more than 2 hours in excess of the daily maxima fixed, or by a number of such periods of 2 hours greater than the actual number of days on duty in the month. The spreadover may not exceed 15 hours. The railway labour supervision service must be notified of the nature and causes of exceptions.

*Lost Time.* If the working of an establishment or service is interrupted by accident or *force majeure*, the daily and monthly maximum hours of work may be increased for the purpose of making up the time thus lost. The spreadover may not exceed 15 hours. If the interruption is due to bad weather usual at the season, time lost during the winter may be made up during the summer, provided that the number of hours made up does not exceed 180 a year.

*Miscellaneous Provisions.* The Decree will be applied to persons employed in the large workshops under the national railway managements on conditions to be laid down in a further Decree (?).

The conditions for the application of the Act of 23 April 1919 to engine drivers, firemen, and guards are to be laid down subsequently by Administrative Regulations.

#### THE RAILWAYMEN AND THE NEW REGULATIONS

The railwaymen protested against the new regulations, and their protests were voiced in Parliament. On 12 October 1922, in the course of an interpellation, a Deputy declared :

The two expressions 'actual work' and 'time on duty' are played upon to such an extent that the total of 2,504 hours prescribed in the Decree is exceeded ; the orders given regarding some lines and some services, by clever arrangement between the companies, are such that they require the staff to work 2,979 hours, instead of 2,504 hours as laid down in the Decree — an increase of 475 hours.

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(?) This Decree was published in the *Journal officiel* of 13 Jan. 1923. The introductory report points out that, in the application of the Act, workers in the large railway workshops should be entitled to treatment similar to that of other railway employees. These workers enjoy all the benefits granted to other railwaymen and, in particular, they have a guarantee of security of tenure. On the other hand, from the technical point of view, their working conditions are very different from those of other railway employees. Accordingly while maintaining the principle of similarity of treatment, it was necessary to adapt the provisions of the Decree of 15 September 1922 to the labour conditions of workers in railway workshops.

Clause 1 of the new Decree provides that schedules of working hours similar to those customary in other industrial undertakings shall be drawn up for railway workshops. These schedules must indicate for every grade of worker and for every day of the year the hours of beginning and ending work, and rest periods.

Clause 2 provides that a certain number of the provisions of the Decree of 15 September shall not be applicable to railway workshops. These provisions are of a general character and apply to railway workers in general, but cannot be extended to workers in the large railway workshops owing to their special labour conditions (Sections 7, 8, 10 and 17 of the September Decree).

(\*) *Tribune des cheminots*, 15 Aug., 1 Sept. 1922. Paris.

The speaker proceeded to point out that any decrease in efficiency was due to lack of modern equipment in the shops and ineffective use of material. Repairs entrusted to private concerns were extremely costly. Retrenchment in staff had been carried out in minor posts, whereas the number of high officials had been increased. The deficit was not, therefore, due to the 8-hour day.

On 13 September 1922 another Deputy addressed a letter to the Premier, protesting against the publication of the Decree without the Minister of Public Works having first referred the matter to the Chamber, and drawing attention to "the bad effect which would result from the hasty application of a measure adopted without reference to the responsible representatives of the country".

The National Federation of Railwaymen (*Fédération nationale des travailleurs des chemins de fer*) sent a report to the Minister of Public Works on 15 August 1922, urging that before any amendment was made the employers' and workers' organisations should meet to discuss the subject <sup>(9)</sup>.

The Federation considers that the increase in staff so constantly referred to is the inevitable result of the dislocation of the railways after the war. Any diminution in efficiency is due to the changes which took place after the Armistice and the strikes of 1920 . . . It is possible that in certain places there is a surplus of staff, but that is the fault of the companies . . . It may be pointed out that according to a document read before the Railway Council the number of high officials has been doubled and in some instances trebled. As for efficiency, the introduction of the 8-hour day necessarily requires that equipment be overhauled and modernised.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the Federation on 26 September a resolution <sup>(9)</sup> was passed declaring that the Minister of Public Works, by disregarding the joint decisions mentioned in Section 7 of the Act of 23 April 1919, had released the Federation from the pledges which they had given on behalf of the workers, recognising that more efficient working of the railways could only be achieved by the combined efforts of the staff and the management. The Federation therefore decided to combine immediately with all existing associations of railway workers in order to organise mass meetings exclusively on the subject of the 8-hour day. A number of meetings were held both in Paris and in the provinces.

The French Federation of Railwaymen's Trade Unions (*Fédération des syndicats professionnels des cheminots de France*, the Catholic organisation) also protested against the new regulations <sup>(10)</sup>. The United Federation of Railwaymen (*Fédération unitaire des cheminots*, Communist) declares that 50,000 or 55,000 workers are to be discharged. With the 35,000 or 40,000 already discharged, this would mean the dismissal of 100,000 workers, which is equal to the number of additional workers engaged on account of the introduction of the 8-hour day <sup>(11)</sup>.

The principal arguments of the railwaymen against the new regulations are summarised in the journal of the Federation of Trade Unions on the P.L.M. system <sup>(12)</sup>. The Decree of 15 September is described as illegal and involving abuse of authority. This is based on the assertion that the Decree misinterprets the provisions of the Act of 23 April 1919

<sup>(9)</sup> *Peuple*, 28 Sept. 1922, Paris.

<sup>(10)</sup> *Le Cheminot de France*, 1 Sept. 1922, Paris.

<sup>(11)</sup> *L'Humanité*, 9 Sept. 1922, Paris.

<sup>(12)</sup> *Le Cheminot syndicaliste*, 15 Oct. 1922, Paris.

on the 8-hour day, substituting for the regulation of the working day — which was the object of the law — that of the working year. Further, the joint agreements signed by representatives of the government, employers, and workers had not been denounced by the interested parties. The Decree is stated to be contrary to the staff regulations, which were approved by the Minister, in suppressing the fortnight's annual holiday, which must be made up as overtime, while by permitting a lower rate of hourly wages without revising the wage scale agreed upon by arbitration the Decree violates Section 2 of the Act of 23 April 1919, which provides that: "In no case shall the reduction of the hours of labour serve as a determining reason for a reduction in wages". The *Cheminot syndicaliste* considers that the Decree will enable the companies to consider the work of their employees simply as 'time on duty' for almost all the staff will be classed as doing intermittent work. It adds:

If, putting ourselves in the position of the Minister and companies, we acknowledged that a revision of the joint decisions was necessitated by the circumstances, we could still object, on the basis of the agreements signed by the companies themselves, that we had always agreed to a second discussion of the joint decisions, but that the Minister and the companies had rejected this procedure.

The Executive Committee of the General Confederation of Labour, allying itself with the railwaymen's unions, published a manifesto on 9 September 1922 protesting against the attacks on the 8-hour day. Representations were made by the organisations concerned to the Premier and to the Minister of Public Works; the latter informed the deputation that in his opinion workers ought to be paid for the 120 hours overtime worked to make up the annual fortnight's holiday.

At the beginning of November correspondence exchanged between the National Federation of Railwaymen and the Minister of Public Works was published in the press. The following extracts from a letter of 10 November, addressed to the Minister by the Federation of Railwaymen, show that the points of disagreement remain quite unsettled.

To our last specific request for discussion by the companies and the trade unions of methods of introducing the 8-hour day on the railways you reply by indicating a procedure only suited to special cases to be examined by the staff delegation or the labour supervision service of the Ministry of Public Works. We are unable to agree with this procedure. Individual cases cannot provide a basis for the final arrangement of hours of work on the railways. What is needed is a general discussion between all the companies of the new regulations, which they at present apply in the most unequal and arbitrary fashion. The workers do not accept these regulations; they submit to them under protest. . .

You seem, moreover, to believe that our abstention from further discussion of the form of your Decree indicates that we accept the principles on which it is based . . . On the contrary we uphold our protests in full, and assert that our reason for not discussing the Decree is that agreement must first be reached on its principles . . .

If this condition of things continues and the Ministries and companies persist in the enforcement of the Decree — which we continue to declare illegal — we can assure you that our Federation will oppose this disastrous measure with all its force, we shall fight unrelentingly until we obtain complete satisfaction, that is to say, a return to methods of application based on joint decisions.

The National Federation of Railwaymen has also addressed a petition to the Council of State asking it to rescind the Decree of 15 September 1922.

# MIGRATION

## Notes on Migration

### INTERNATIONAL ACTION

#### *Uniform Identity Cards For Russian Refugees*

**I**N connection with the question of standardising migration statistics, the last session of the International Labour Conference discussed uniform identity certificates for migrants of different countries. The first attempt to introduce international certificates has already been made in connection with Russian refugees.

On the proposal of the French Government an international conference was held at Geneva on 3 July 1922 to examine under what conditions Russian refugees could be granted identity papers to replace passports with which, as a rule, they were not provided. The Governments of Austria, Bulgaria, the Czechoslovak Republic, Finland, France, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Japan, Poland, Roumania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland, which were represented, agreed unanimously on the certificate-form submitted to them. This form makes provision for information, among other matters, as to the surname, Christian name, date and place of birth, occupation, names of parents, former address in Russia, present address, description, photograph, and signature of the person concerned and for the signature and seal of the authorities issuing the certificate (<sup>1</sup>).

In a report to the Council of the League of Nations at its session held in January 1923, Dr. Nansen, the High Commissioner for Russian Refugees, stated that the uniform identity certificate, as agreed upon at this conference, had been adopted by twenty countries: Albania, Germany, Austria, Bolivia, Bulgaria, Spain, Finland, France, Guatemala, Great Britain, Greece, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Roumania, Netherlands, Switzerland, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. Three other countries have accepted the certificate with modifications, namely, South Africa, Siam, and Czechoslovakia; Belgium, Canada, and Esthonia have rejected the proposal.

Dr. Nansen at the same time informed the Council of the League that the British, French, and Italian High Commissioners at Constantinople had agreed to deliver to Russian refugees in that city identity certificates similar in form to the model adopted at the conference of July 1922; these would be prepared by the Constantinople Office of the High Commissariat for Russian Refugees. The issue of these certificates will give these refugees a definite legal status and will make it possible for them to proceed, if they so wish, to countries whose governments

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(<sup>1</sup>) See also *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, pp. 592-593.

have accepted the system of identity certificates. Negotiations have been opened with the Angora Government with a view to securing its collaboration <sup>(2)</sup>.

### *International Danube Convention*

The international Convention which forms the final instrument regulating the Danube question was signed at Paris on 23 January 1921 between Belgium, France, Great Britain, Greece, Italy, Roumania, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and Czechoslovakia, in the presence and with the concurrence of Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, and Hungary. It received ratification at Paris on 30 July 1922, and was communicated to the governments interested; subsequently it has formed the object of confirmatory legislation in various countries, more especially in Belgium by an Act of 25 November 1922.

The regulations of the Convention on the transit of emigrants are interesting. Article 22 states that passenger traffic is free as between the ports of the various riparian states and is open to the flags of all nations on conditions of absolute equality throughout the international zone; Article 23 states that passage across the international zone is free from and to all points, whether of vessels or of passengers, whether direct or involving transshipment.

The clause *judicatum solvi*, which imposed the giving of a bond before any proceedings could be taken against shipping companies, is abolished in legal actions arising out of the Convention <sup>(3)</sup>.

### *Proposed Belgian Labour Treaties*

A statement published both in the French and the Belgian press announces that the Belgian Ministry of Industry and Labour is at present considering the drafting of a labour treaty with France. The object of the treaty is to allow workers of either country freely to take up work in the other country and to enjoy all the rights to which nationals of that country are entitled, especially as regards legal protection of living and labour conditions and the acquisition, possession, and transference of small rural and urban property. The draft lays down that the wages of immigrant workers cannot be below those paid for the same work in the same undertaking to national workers of an equal grade <sup>(4)</sup>.

In the course of the debate on the items in the budget allocated to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and also in reply to several questions Mr. Jaspar, Minister of Foreign Affairs, stated on 27 December in the Belgian Senate that the proposed treaty had now been drafted and was in process of being communicated to the French Government. Enquiry had been extended beyond the sphere of labour legislation to that of the acquisition of small rural property and of exemption of wages from taxation, further to questions of elementary and vocational education for workers and workers' families, and to the status and wages of workers in the fishery industry and the mercantile marine. Finally, the possibility of applying the proposed treaty to the Belgian Congo had been considered.

Mr. Jaspar informed the Senate that he had obtained from the

<sup>(2)</sup> *Documents of the League of Nations*, C. 61; M. 23. 1923. Geneva.

<sup>(3)</sup> *Moniteur belge*, 30 Dec. 1922. Brussels.

<sup>(4)</sup> *La Journée industrielle*, 29 Nov. 1922. Paris.

French Government assurances to the effect that Belgian nationals in France would not be affected by the application of the Bill which law, would compel aliens seeking to acquire real estate in France to law, would compel aliens seeking to acquire real estate in France to obtain a licence from the French authorities (\*).

Turning to Luxemburg, Mr. Jaspar announced that the Belgian Government had obtained from the Luxemburg Government on behalf of Belgian workers exemption from the Luxemburg Decree of 20 April 1920 regulating the employment of aliens. Mr. Jaspar stated that his Government proposed shortly to negotiate a labour treaty with Luxemburg (\*).

### *Franco-Belgian Agreements*

#### *Relief*

The French Government introduced into the Chamber of Deputies a Bill dated 17 July 1922 for the application of the Convention as to relief for workers, signed by France and Belgium on 30 November 1921. This Convention was drawn up on the same grounds and in almost the same terms as the Articles referring to relief contained in the labour treaties concluded by France and Italy. The object of the Bill is not only to ratify the Convention, but to impose on local bodies and public philanthropic institutions the duty of sharing in the resulting obligations, so that, if need be, the indispensable funds required may be automatically included in the budget.

In Article 1 of the Convention a national of either of the two countries in need of relief, medical or other assistance against sickness, will be treated on the territory of the other contracting state, and, in so far as legislation as to relief applies, on the same footing as nationals of the latter state, either at home or in a hospital. A national of one of the two countries will further, on condition that his family resides with him, be entitled in the other to family allowances granted for the simple purpose of relief, though not to those granted for the direct encouragement of a high birth rate.

The state of residence will continue to support the burden of relief without compensation as regards (1) maintenance of old men, disabled, and incurable persons who have resided for at least fifteen consecutive years in the country, (2) sick persons, the insane and others in receipt of relief, together with persons who have been disabled as a result of occupational diseases and who have been resident for five consecutive years in the country. When it is a case of treatment for illness, the worker concerned who has resided for five consecutive months in each of five successive years will be considered as fulfilling the required conditions of residence. In the case of children under 16 years of age, the fulfilment by their father, mother, or guardian of the above conditions of residence will be sufficient.

After the expiry of a period of 45 days, the country of origin will be required, notice being given by the country of residence, either to repatriate the person in receipt of relief who fails to satisfy the conditions as to residence, provided that the person concerned is in a fit state to travel, or to compensate the state of residence for the cost of treatment.

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(\*) See below, *The Holding of Real Estate by Aliens in France*, in the Section *Government Policy and Legislation*.

(\*) *Moniteur belge* (Senate), session of 27 Dec. 1922, pp. 242-243. Brussels.

The two Governments undertake to observe that, where communities include a considerable number of workers of either nationality, there shall be no lack of access to hospital treatment for sick or injured workers or their families. The contributions which may be demanded of employers or agreed to by them for this purpose shall not take the form of special taxes on foreign labour such as are prohibited on account of the employment of nationals.

Article 8 finally stipulates that charitable associations of Belgians in France or of French in Belgium and joint associations established and working in accordance with the law of the country in which they are set up shall be entitled to the rights and privileges enjoyed by Belgian or French associations of the same kind.

The detailed measures for the application of the Convention and the cases in which the competent services of the two Governments are to enter into direct correspondence will be determined by mutual agreement by the competent French and Belgian authorities. All difficulties connected with the Convention will be settled through diplomatic channels and, if need be, by arbitration, the advice of the competent international offices being obtained if necessary. The Convention was concluded for the period of one year and is renewable by tacit consent unless notice to cancel it is given three months before the expiry of each period (7).

#### *Miners' Pensions*

In accordance with Article 6 of the Agreement concluded on 14 February 1921 and ratified on 15 June 1922 by France and Belgium (8), the French and Belgian authorities adopted an arrangement on 7 November 1922 laying down in detail the procedure to be followed by the competent services in paying pensions to Belgian miners employed in France and French miners employed in Belgium. It was decided, in particular, that the independent Miners' Pension Fund for France and the National Miners' Pension Fund for Belgium should correspond directly on all matters connected with the operation of the arrangement (9).

#### *Brazilian-Portuguese Treaty on Dual Nationality*

Simultaneously with the Migration and Labour Treaty signed on 27 September 1922 between Brazil and Portugal (10) a second treaty was concluded between these two countries regulating questions of dual nationality. It lays down that Brazilian nationals who, having been born in Portugal are thereby in possession of Portuguese nationality, or by other means hold these two nationalities, shall be released from the obligation to serve in the Portuguese army provided that they shall have served in the Brazilian army. The treaty is reciprocal and applies also to Portuguese who are in possession of Brazilian nationality and have served in the Portuguese army. In the application of this treaty it is laid down that the production of a certificate of nationality signed by the competent authorities of Brazil or Portugal shall be accepted as equivalent to naturalisation papers, and therefore shall discharge the holder of one of his nationalities.

(7) *Journal officiel* (Chamber of Deputies), Appendix 4890. 1922. Paris.

(8) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, pp. 81-82.

(9) Cf. *Journal officiel*, 26 Nov. 1922, p. 11294; and Royal Decree of 1 Dec. 1922, published in the *Moniteur belge*, 14 Dec. 1922, Brussels.

(10) *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, January 1923, p. 100.

A further provision lays down that nationals of either country residing in the other country shall, on attaining the age of 21 years, be permitted to renounce their nationality in the country with which they are connected by blood and shall then be reckoned automatically to have acquired nationality in the country in which they are residing.

The treaty will be submitted for the approval of the Brazilian and Portuguese parliaments and Administrative Regulations will be issued in order to carry it out <sup>(11)</sup>.

#### MIGRATION MOVEMENTS

##### *Naturalisation of Aliens in France and the French Colonies and Protectorates* <sup>(12)</sup>

The number of aliens (men, women, and children) who had acquired French nationality or had renounced the power to discard it on reaching their majority is given as 2,087, 5,774, and 10,887 persons respectively for each of the three years 1919, 1920, and 1921. These figures, however, are not entirely complete, as naturalisation by *jus soli*, i.e. birth within a country, taking place in France under the terms of Article 8, paragraphs 3 and 4, of the Civil Code and naturalisations of Algerian natives under the Act of 4 February 1919 are not recorded.

The figures for 1921 included naturalisation of 4,964 adults (2,280 men and 2,684 women) and 5,923 minors. The former can be classified as follows.

Description	Number of naturalisations		
	Men	Women	Total (2)
Persons — acquiring French nationality under laws applying in France (1)	1,764	996	2,760 (4,805)
Resuming French nationality	34	1,487	1,521 (1,148)
Assuming or confirming French nationality by declaration	—	—	235 (3)
Acquiring Algerian nationality	187	177	364 (728)
In French colonies or protectorates (except Algeria)			
(a) persons of foreign birth naturalised	29	18	47 (49)
(b) natives granted the advantages of French citizenship	31	6	37 (16)
Total			4,964

(1) Civil Code and Act of 5 August 1914.

(2) The total number of children attached to the persons naturalised is given between brackets.

(3) The number of declarations made was 3,530, which granted or maintained the French nationality of 5,856 persons (of all ages and both sexes), including 5,631 minors.

The most numerous naturalisations were those of Belgians (3,644 in all, including 108 men, 852 women, and 2,184 minors); then come

(11) *Rivista coloniale*, Aug.-Sept. 1922, São Paulo.

(12) Report to the Minister of Justice, dated 31 May 1922, (on the application during 1921 of the provisions of the Civil Code and of the Act of 5 August 1914 relating to naturalisation in France and of the Decrees on naturalisation in force in the French colonies and protectorates); *Journal officiel*, 3 June 1922, p. 5814. Paris.



in the order named Italians (3,043, including 52 men, 709 women, and 1,813 minors), Spaniards (1,301, including 249 men, 344 women, and 718 minors), Swiss (570), Russians (420), Germans (367), Luxemburgers, Austrians, Turks, Poles, and other nationalities.

On the other hand, 1,217 persons lost their French nationality in 1921, 739 by repudiation, 18 by naturalisation abroad which had been authorised by the French Government, 417 by foreign option, and 43 by forfeiture. Among the 739 persons who lost their French nationality by repudiation there were 569 Belgians, and of these 309 took advantage of the terms of the Franco-Belgian Convention of 24 January 1921. Among the 417 persons who lost it by foreign option there were 249 who took advantage of the Franco-Swiss Convention of 23 July 1879, and 168 who took advantage of the Franco-Belgian Convention of 30 July 1891.

The number of persons naturalised during the year thus exceeded the number of persons who lost French nationality by 9,670.

### *Labour Problems and Migration in Belgium*

According to an enquiry conducted in September 1922 by the Belgian Administration of Mines, 4,320 of the 144,388 workers employed in coal mines in that country, or 3 per cent. of the total, are foreigners. The largest section is that of the French (1,690). Next come the Italians (694), Poles (198), and Dutch (184). There are also small groups from Germany, Russia, Luxemburg, Spain, Portugal, England, and the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom. The colonies are represented by Algerians (577), Moroccans (446), and a few Congolese.

In metal works there were 1,143 foreign workers out of a total of 35,000. The chief European groups were the French (391), and the Italians (240), and there were small groups of workers from the Netherlands, Russia, Luxemburg, Poland, Spain, Germany, and England <sup>(13)</sup>.

In the Belgian press attention is drawn to the importance of these figures in relation to the labour scarcity prevailing in many Belgian industries. It is stated that the entry of foreign labour is not in any way on a scale to compensate for the exodus of native labour, as proved to have taken place in recent months; more labour has left the country than has entered it <sup>(14)</sup>. The labour scarcity has made itself felt above all in the mining industry; a great many labourers and other workers belonging to mining districts leave Belgium for France during the summer and obtain employment there in the devastated regions <sup>(15)</sup>. In the opinion of trade union leaders the movement is due to the disparity between the miner's hard life and trying conditions of labour and the wages offered him in Belgium; short time and wage reductions were the order of the day during the 1921-1922 crisis in the Belgian coal industry <sup>(16)</sup>. The Belgian employers point to the effects of the exemptions from the 8-hour day regulations which are allowed in reconstruction work in the north of France, exemptions which make it possible for the Belgian worker to earn more than he would in his own country <sup>(17)</sup>.

<sup>(13)</sup> *Revue du travail*, Nov. 1922. Brussels.

<sup>(14)</sup> *Indépendance belge*, 5 Dec. 1922. Brussels.

<sup>(15)</sup> *La Nation belge*, 19 Dec. 1922. Brussels.

<sup>(16)</sup> *Le Peuple*, 26 and 27 Dec. 1922. Brussels.

<sup>(17)</sup> *Le Matin*, 17 Dec. 1922. Paris.

A great many workers from the building and textile trades in Belgium have also emigrated. Information received by the Belgian *Revue du travail* <sup>(18)</sup> as to the numbers of workers from western Flanders employed in the Departments of northern France would seem to show a revival of this movement during 1921. The movement is strongest along the frontier. Apart from the natural effects of the difference between the French and Belgian exchanges, an explanation may be sought in the superior conditions of work which the French employers offer. For instance, workers in the textile industry of the Roubaix-Tourcoing district benefit by family allowances and other advantages which do not exist in Belgium.

Belgian nationals are engaged through the instrumentality of agents who travel through the Belgian villages; they receive a commission on every worker engaged. The number of workers, men and women, of Belgian nationality employed in the Roubaix-Tourcoing district was estimated to be 15,000 to 20,000 in November 1922.

### *Italian Labour in the Devastated Regions of France*

The number of Italian workers employed in the devastated regions of France on reconstruction work is estimated at 130,000 in round figures by Commander Silvio Coletti, Emigration Councillor attached to the Italian Embassy at Paris, in a report issued by him in September 1922. Of these about 50,000 have found permanent employment as skilled workmen, i.e. as masons, plasterers, carpenters, etc., and about another 40,000 as semi-skilled workers. The skilled workers earn high wages when in permanent employ on reconstruction and working at piece-work rates; Mr. Coletti computes the total amount of money saved during the past year by all Italians working in the devastated regions at 400 millions of French francs.

Mr. Coletti is of opinion that the number of industrial workers in these districts could be greatly increased, but he does not recommend emigration either of agricultural workers or of non-skilled industrial labourers from Italy; the first would find the conditions offered to them unsatisfactory, and the second would suffer from the competition of unskilled general workers from other countries, of whom there are already too many in this part of France <sup>(19)</sup>.

### *Foreign Population in Switzerland*

The final results of the census taken at the end of 1920, which have now been published, give the total population of Switzerland as 3,880,320. This, however, includes about 400,000 persons of foreign nationality, or 10.4 per cent. of the total population. The proportion of foreigners is highest in the border cantons with predominantly urban population (Geneva 30.7 per cent., Basle 27.2 per cent., Ticino 21.9 per cent., Schaffhausen 16.2 per cent., Zurich 13.8 per cent.).

During the preceding ten years the number of foreigners resident in Switzerland had fallen considerably, the proportion in 1910 being 14.7 per cent. (as against 10.4 per cent. in 1920). But compared with the total population, the proportion of foreigners still remains much higher in Switzerland than in any other west or central European country (2.7 per cent. in France and 3.1 per cent. in Belgium) except Luxemburg <sup>(20)</sup>.

<sup>(18)</sup> *Rev. du travail*, Dec. 1922. Brussels.

<sup>(19)</sup> *Bollettino della Emigrazione*, Sept. 1922. Rome.

<sup>(20)</sup> *Feuille fédérale*, 22 Nov. 1922, pp. 683 and 685. Berne.

*Swiss Emigration in 1922*

The first national emigration statistics available in any country for the past year are those of the Swiss Federal Emigration Office. The total number of emigrants is given as 5,787; contrasted with the corresponding total for 1921, which was 7,129, it would seem to indicate a considerable falling off in the volume of emigration. These figures, however, refer to emigration to countries outside Europe only, and are computed only from the returns sent in by licensed emigration agents<sup>(21)</sup>, nor do they give any classification by sex, age, etc. They therefore cannot be considered to be complete<sup>(22)</sup>.

*Alien Labour and the Exchange Problem in the Netherlands*

There has recently been considerable comment in the Dutch press on the influx of alien labour into the Netherlands from adjacent countries; the cause would seem to lie in the relative depreciation of the currencies of these countries by comparison with the Dutch currency. Workers in the Netherlands, it is stated, complain that German labour is invading the mining, the fishing, the building industries, and the mercantile marine; many of the German workers engaged continue to live in Germany where the cost of living is much lower, and are therefore able to accept wages much below those of the Dutch workers; the consequence is that Dutch workers fail to find employment. This immigrant labour is particularly plentiful in the province of Limburg and it is in that province that dissatisfaction is greatest. A large number of German workers were found to have entered without regular papers and were repatriated across the frontier. A similar movement, though not on quite so large a scale, is found along the Belgian frontier; a great many Belgian workers are employed on Zeeland farms and in the Zeeland sugar refineries<sup>(23)</sup>.

The contrary disadvantage is suffered by Dutch nationals. They suffer from the progressive depreciation of the German exchange because they live in the Netherlands and work in Germany. The allowances made by the Netherlands Government to Dutch women workers employed in the German textile industry on account of the exchange situation<sup>(24)</sup> were cut down by one half from 1 November 1922.

Comprehensive measures have been demanded on many sides<sup>(25)</sup> and the Netherlands Government has ordered an enquiry. The Dutch workers are asking that the frontier should be closed to German labour in respect of those trades where unemployment is known to exist in the Netherlands<sup>(26)</sup>. German employers are also strongly protesting against this exodus of their workers and state that, as it is, the German coal mining industry is unable to organise its output so as to meet the demand for coal. They too are asking that German

(21) Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE: *Methods of Compiling Emigration and Immigration Statistics*, pp. 36-38. Geneva. 1922.

(22) *Feuille fédérale*, 17 Jan. 1923. Berne.

(23) *Tydschrift van den Nederlandsche Werkloosheidsraad*, 1922, pp. 486-493.

(24) See *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6 Dec. 1922, p. 982.

(25) Cf. especially *De Telegraaf*, 3, 8, 9, and 24 Nov. 1922. Amsterdam.

(26) *Het Volk*, 15 Dec. 1922. The Hague.

labour should be prohibited from emigrating<sup>(27)</sup>. Meanwhile the German workers themselves are protesting against any restriction on their freedom of movement.

Conferences were held at Berlin between German government representatives, employers, and workers, and other discussions took place at Aix-la-Chapelle between Dutch and German trade unions. The points of view of the parties, however, were so different that it proved impossible to come to any practical conclusion.

Exactly the same phenomenon is to be observed along any frontier where a depreciated currency in one country meets a higher currency in another, and especially along the German-Czechoslovak frontier.

### *Emigration of Germans from Poland*

The *Frankfurter Zeitung* (27) publishes an article urging German residents in Polish territory which was formerly part of Prussia not to emigrate, on the plea that that territory seems likely otherwise to lose its German character altogether. The following figures, based on Polish statistics issued on 30 September 1922, show the present distribution of the population in Posen and Pomerellen compared with the distribution in 1910, the latter being determined from the German statistics of that year. The total population in 1910 was 882,004 and in 1922 was 912,621.

#### *Percentage Distribution of Population in Posen and Pomerellen*

	1910	1922
Poles	50.1	84.6
Germans	47.9	15.0
Other nationalities	2.0	0.4

In the period 1 December 1918 to 30 June 1921 729,698 Germans emigrated from Posen and Pomerellen, and 902,098 Poles immigrated.

### *Danzig*

The statistics for the year 1922<sup>(28)</sup>, which contain a classification according to nationality, sex, religion, steamship tickets (ordinary or prepaid) and shipping companies, show that the great majority of emigrants passing through the port of Danzig are of Polish and Russian nationality, but that there are also an appreciable number of Americans proceeding from Eastern Europe. It may be noted that the total figures are much larger for the second half of the year than for the first half; this would appear to be due to the fact that the quotas of admissible immigrants into the United States were nearly exhausted during the latter part of the fiscal year, which ends on 30 June, and that from 1 July onwards there was a rush to take advantage of the new quotas for the year 1922-1923. The total number of persons passing through the port in 1922 was 24,885.

(27) *Frankfurter Zeitung*, 15 Dec. 1922. Frankfurt.

(28) Communicated to the International Labour Office by the High Commissioner for Danzig. The figures are reproduced here as communicated. For the statistics of 1921, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 775.

*Emigration through the Port of Danzig for 1922**Nationality*

Danzig	13	Finnish	2
German	99	Russian	2,953
Polish	20,089	Ukrainian	21
Lithuanian	146	Czechoslovak	41
Latvian	22	Roumanian	123
Esthonian	1	American	1,375

*Sex*

Men	9,094
Women	10,077
Children	4,724

*Religion*

Christians	15,818
Jews	9,167

*Kind of Ticket*

Ordinary	11,450
Prepaid	13,233

*Migrations of Refugees**Russian Refugees*

Since 1 August 1921 the following Russian refugees have been evacuated from Constantinople <sup>(29)</sup> for various destinations by the High Commissariat of the League of Nations for Russian Refugees.

*Convoys**From 1 Aug. to 31 Dec. 1921*

Destination	Number of emigrants
Germany	150
Esthonia	20
Latvia	140
Lithuania	60
Poland	120
Czechoslovakia	4,350
<b>Total</b>	<b>4,840</b>

*From 1 Jan. to 1 Dec. 1922*

Destination	Number of emigrants
Germany	170
Austria	89
Belgium	13
Bulgaria	4,934
France	207
Hungary	181
Syria	20
<b>Total</b>	<b>5,614</b>

*Individual Departures*

1 Mar. 1921 — 1 Dec. 1922, for all destinations      3,979

*Near East Refugees*

Since October Dr. Nansen, in pursuance of the powers conferred upon him by the Assembly of the League of Nations <sup>(30)</sup>, has arranged for the transport to Greece from Asia Minor of 80,000 Greek refugees and 10,000 Musulmans to Asia Minor from Black Sea ports. Hospitals and camps have been provided for upwards of 10,000 refugees in

<sup>(29)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 771-772.

<sup>(30)</sup> Ibid. Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 96.

Western Thrace, and the distribution of one million rations with supplies and equipment for three months has been arranged. An agricultural scheme is being undertaken in conjunction with these camps and the establishment of four villages and camps has already been started <sup>(21)</sup>.

### *Statistics of Armenian Population*

According to information submitted to the League of Nations in an appendix to a Memorandum of the Armenian Delegation at the Peace Conference of Lausanne <sup>(22)</sup>, the total Armenian population on 1 November 1922 was about 3,400,000 persons, of whom 281,000 were resident on Turkish territory and 2,723,000 elsewhere. The latter are made up of the following groups.

#### *Russia*

Republic of Erivan	1,200,000
Georgia	400,000
Azerbaijan	340,000
Transcaspia	30,000
Other parts of Russia	225,000

Total 2,195,000

#### *Europe*

Greece and Cyprus	79,000
Bulgaria	46,000
Roumania, Transylvania, Bessarabia	43,000
Other European countries (France, England, Italy, Hungary, Germany, Belgium, etc.)	38,000

Total 206,000

#### *Asia and Africa*

Syria, Palestine, Mesopotamia	104,000
Egypt, Soudan, and Abyssinia	28,000
India, Java, and Australia	12,000
Persia	50,000

Total 194,000

#### *America*

North America	125,000
South America	3,000

Total 128,000

### *Migration to and from Uruguay*

The International Labour Office has received from the Uruguayan Government statistics of emigration and immigration in 1920 and 1921. It should be stated, however, that the figures for 1921 are incomplete, covering only the first ten months of the year <sup>(23)</sup>. These figures show that the emigration and immigration movements roughly balance, the surplus of emigrants being 1,081 in 1920 and 43 in 1921. The figures may be summarised as follows.

<sup>(21)</sup> From information received from the League of Nations High Commissariat for Russian Refugees.

<sup>(22)</sup> League of Nations Document C. 757 (a) M. 458 (a) 1922 VII, 12 Dec. 1922, Geneva.

<sup>(23)</sup> The records for the last two months of the year were destroyed by fire.

## MIGRATION STATISTICS FOR URUGUAY

Items	Immigration		Emigration	
	1921 (first ten months)	1920	1921 (first ten months)	1920
Total	11,045	14,901	11,002	13,820
<i>Sex</i>				
Men	10,335	14,814	10,749	13,790
Women	710	87	253	30
<i>Age</i>				
Under 15 years	33	399	89	313
From 15 to 21 years	586	1,823	871	2,003
From 22 to 50 years	5,690	11,614	6,466	9,980
51 years and over	694	694	650	1,212
Not specified	4,042	371	2,926	312
<i>Civil status</i>				
Single	3,630	5,893	5,368	5,477
Married	2,791	4,162	3,183	3,954
Widowed	169	151	72	188
Not specified	4,455	4,695	2,379	4,201

The striking feature of these figures is the extremely low proportion of women and children, probably due to the definition of migrants used, which may cover only workers, especially *peones* or day labourers.

Classified by occupation, the figures are as follows.

Occupation	Immigration		Emigration	
	1921 (first ten months)	1920	1921 (first ten months)	1920
Day labourers ( <i>peones</i> )	7,033	13,031	8,195	12,743
Skilled workers ( <i>practicos</i> )	928	285	327	399
Agricultural workers ( <i>labradores</i> )	547	421	47	10
Domestic servants ( <i>sirvientes</i> )	977	231	123	29
Non-manual workers	212	294	181	20
Seamen	127	219	216	291
Carpenters	26	36	425	17
Other trades	1,195	384	1,488	311
Total	11,045	14,901	11,002	13,820

The great majority come or leave by indirect routes as follows.

Route	Immigration		Emigration	
	1921 (first ten months)	1920	1921 (first ten months)	1920
By Argentine ports	6,642	11,739	8,180	11,946
Direct oversea voyage	4,403	1,879	2,822	1,071
Not specified	—	1,383	—	803
Total	11,045	15,001	11,002	13,820

As regards the countries of origin or destination, the figures show the importance of overland migration as follows.

Country of Origin or Destination (*)	Immigration		Emigration	
	1921 (first ten months)	1920	1921 (first ten months)	1920
<i>America</i>				
Uruguayans	3,186	1,395	2,267	1,038
Argentiners	1,669	4,896	1,749	3,825
Brazilians	267	186	172	204
North Americans	72	—	57	—
<i>Europe</i>				
Spaniards	1,744	4,174	2,255	4,006
Italians	947	2,090	1,265	2,107
French	79	202	131	264
English	178	324	96	339
Germans	87	119	105	127
Portuguese	146	239	54	134
Austrians	19	49	52	79
Russians	152	305	217	414
Greeks	28	55	29	140
Turks	81	285	121	216
<i>Other continents</i>	2,390	582	2,432	927

(\*) It is not certain whether countries of origin and destination or nationality is indicated. The table is here reproduced as originally printed.

## GOVERNMENT POLICY AND LEGISLATION

### *British Empire*

#### *General Policy in Great Britain*

The question of emigration as a whole will be discussed by the Imperial Economic Conference, which the British Government has announced its intention of summoning at an early date.

On 19 December 1922 Sir Montague Barlow, Minister of Labour, spoke, in London, of what he called "associational emigration". His suggestion was that groups of settlers should go from the same city or district in Great Britain to a particular place in one of the Dominions, and that the ties and associations with the place of origin should be carefully fostered and renewed. This would give the emigrants a feeling of support from their country of origin. A similar idea might be developed, not only by towns and villages, but also by universities, public schools, friendly societies, and trade unions <sup>(34)</sup>.

### *Canada*

In view of a feared decrease in the flow of immigration to Canada the Minister of the Interior has made an official announcement, the main points in which were as follows <sup>(35)</sup>.

<sup>(34)</sup> *Daily Telegraph*, 20 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(35)</sup> *Labour Gazette* of Canada, Dec. 1923. Ottawa.



The Government has asked transportation companies to reduce their fares as far as possible, as high transportation rates are one of the principal obstacles to immigration at present. It has been decided to list desirable farms in the West which can be rented for a year or two, in order to assist farmers who have not the necessary funds to buy immediately. It is hoped, however, that the tenant farmers will purchase the farms after a short period.

The publicity and advertising work of the Government is to be greatly extended, efforts being concentrated in Great Britain, the Scandinavian countries, the Netherlands, Belgium, France, and the United States. The activities of the Government and other organisations in this direction are to be co-ordinated. In Great Britain and the United States educational work will be undertaken among boys and girls in the schools. Attempts will be made to secure the repatriation of some of the Canadians who have gone to the United States.

Increased efforts are to be made to secure a much larger number of women household workers, and special attention is to be directed to the immigration of orphan children from Great Britain. The Government believes that 5,000 to 6,000 of these children, between the ages of 8 and 14, could be placed annually in Canada. The British Government is to be asked to co-operate with the Dominion Government in paying the passages of these children.

It is the purpose of the Government to introduce a nominated scheme in connection with the movement of persons from Great Britain and other favoured countries, and it is hoped that all organisations interested in immigration will co-operate.

A conference was held early in January 1923, at the Dominion Emigration Office in London, at which transport companies were represented. The conference decided to recommend the Dominion Government to arrange co-ordination with regard to Great Britain and the European continent. Other proposals were that certain conditions be applied to the distribution of literature, that extensive news items be published, and a resolution was passed emphasising the advantages of motor-car propaganda. The travelling exhibition motor-car, to which reference is made in the resolution, is at present touring the British Isles and visiting schools. It contains specimens of Canada's agricultural and other products, and carries school atlases which are distributed to the children<sup>(36)</sup>.

### *The Ontario Scheme*

Further particulars are now available concerning the proposals made by the Agent-General of Ontario in London to the British Government<sup>(37)</sup>. These proposals have been embodied in an Agreement which has been sent to the Ontario Government for ratification. The Agreement provides for boys to be taken to Ontario and to be given four years' agricultural training at schools which are to be established there. The boys will then be placed on farms, and centres will be set up in each township to see to their welfare. In addition, single young men and women will also be taken to Ontario and placed in employment on farms. After they have gained experience they will be granted an advance in order to enable them to rent farms. Provision is also made for the building of farm cottages for married labourers who wish to emigrate to Ontario<sup>(38)</sup>.

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<sup>(36)</sup> *Canada*, 13 Jan. 1923. London.

<sup>(37)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 113.

<sup>(38)</sup> *Montreal Gazette*, 5 Dec. 1922. Montreal.

*Australia*

In a statement made in the House of Commons on 5 December 1922 Mr. Ormsby Gore, Under-Secretary for the Colonies, referring to the question of developing the Northern Territory of Australia, which has been considered by the Oversea Settlement Committee, said that the British Government accepted the view that it is best that migrants just arrived from the United Kingdom should settle in the southern parts of Australia, and that settlement in the northern parts of the continent should be undertaken by persons already acclimatised to the southern parts<sup>(39)</sup>.

The Deputy Director of Migration at Australia House, London, issued a statement in December with reference to complaints which had been made by a number of recent emigrants to the Commonwealth, mainly settled in New South Wales. "An investigation of the facts proves", he said, "that the men who complain are among those who proceeded to Australia not only without assistance but against the advice of this Department. These men, who number about 300, appear to have remained in Sydney, which would be contrary to the conditions upon which we send emigrants out. Those conditions provide, among other things, that each and every man who emigrates under the auspices of the Migration Department must sign a declaration to the effect that he will follow farm work, and farm work only, upon arrival in Australia".

During the past year, according to the same statement, 33,000 emigrants have been sent out by the Australian Migration authorities in London to the Commonwealth generally. These emigrants have settled in various parts of Australia, and the fact that the complaints received by the Department from them have been comparatively negligible in number would seem to indicate that as a whole these emigrants have not been unsuccessful<sup>(40)</sup>.

*The New South Wales Scheme*

Further particulars are now available concerning the Agreement signed by the Commonwealth and New South Wales Governments in November 1922<sup>(41)</sup>. The land available for settlers is situated on the Murrumbidgee irrigation area, the Murray River, and the North East Coast. Training farms and establishments for dealing with recruits before they find employment will be organised, and the immigrants will, on leaving those establishments, either be offered employment in country districts or have land allotted to them. The allotment of land will, however, be subject to the possession of a "qualification certificate", which is to be instituted for the purpose. The State agrees to provide a farm for every £1,000 of loan money available, and to settle migrants on the farms. Provision is made for instruction and supervision after the lands have been allocated. Advances will be made to settlers for equipment and stock, and also against improvements, including housing.

The Commonwealth Government agrees to raise loans up to a maximum of £6,000,000 in such instalments as may be required; two-

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<sup>(39)</sup> Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Commons), 5 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(40)</sup> *Morning Post*, 19 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(41)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, p. 978.

thirds of the interest will be paid by the State and one-third by the Commonwealth, the State having the right to ask the British Government to make a contribution towards its share of the interest. The cost of the passage for the emigrants from Great Britain will be defrayed without charge to the State Government<sup>(42)</sup>.

The Commonwealth undertakes to ask the British Government to make a loan of £300 to each migrant for whom a farm is provided and to contribute half the cost of training; the total cost of training is not to exceed £50 for boys and £100 for men. Payment for the land will be spread over thirty-six and a half years, and advances will be repayable over varying periods up to twenty years<sup>(43)</sup>. It is anticipated that 8,000 settlers (exclusive of wives and families) will be provided for under the scheme<sup>(44)</sup>.

### *South Africa*

The Prime Minister of the Union of South Africa explained the Government's policy on immigration in the House of Assembly in June last. Hundreds of persons, he said, are being taken to South Africa annually by different agencies; as long as they are persons who are able to buy farms they are not likely to be an incubus on the state. But persons who have land to sell are advertising South Africa in London and elsewhere and misrepresenting the facts. Mr. Boshoff has therefore been appointed to the High Commissioner's Office in London partly for propaganda purposes, and partly in order to warn prospective emigrants that unless they have capital there are no chances of success in South Africa<sup>(45)</sup>.

His activities extend not only to the British Isles but to the Netherlands as well, and at the request of the Dutch South African Society he gave a series of lectures in the principal towns of the Netherlands in December 1922. He advocated the settlement of Dutch agricultural workers in South Africa, formerly one of the principal countries of Dutch emigration, and one in which Dutch nationality had played an important part. The lecturer stated that South Africa was capable of receiving at least an additional twenty million settlers. Pasture land could be purchased at three florins the hectare. There were three essential conditions for success as a settler: energetic work, expert knowledge of the conditions of South African agriculture, and possession of sufficient capital, estimated by the lecturer at not less than £2,000<sup>(46)</sup>.

### *The Problem of Native Labour*

The Mining Industry Board, which was appointed after the Rand disturbances in the spring of 1922, to investigate the state of the mining industry on the Rand, refers in its report to the question of foreign labour. It considers that there is not a sufficient permanent

<sup>(42)</sup> Passage Agreement between Australia and British Government analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 604.

<sup>(43)</sup> *Daily Telegraph*, 6 Nov. 1922. Sydney. Also *Times Trade Supplement*, 6 Jan. 1922. London.

<sup>(44)</sup> The Commonwealth Government agrees, in view of the importance of marketing the produce of the country, to ask the British Government to secure preference for Australian-grown produce.

<sup>(45)</sup> Speech by Lieutenant-General J. C. Smuts, reported in the *Journal of the Parliaments of the Empire*, Vol. III, No. 4. London.

<sup>(46)</sup> *Nieuwe Rotterdamse Courant*, 3 Oct., 5 and 9 Dec. 1922. Rotterdam.

supply of native labour from present sources and it states, moreover, that the Portuguese authorities may at any time prohibit the natives of their territories from going to work in the Transvaal. It therefore endorses the recommendation of the Low-Grade Mines Commission that the prohibition of the importation of natives from north of latitude 22° South should be withdrawn. This prohibition is based on the belief that there would be excessive mortality among such natives, but the Board thinks that this is extremely unlikely. It proposes, however, that an initial experiment be made with about 5,000 natives. The report further recommends that the importation of all foreign labour should be controlled by government officials, who should satisfy themselves that the Union natives will not be prejudiced<sup>(47)</sup>.

### *Indians in the Union*

On 3 September 1914 the Government of India prescribed the procedure for entry into the Union of South Africa of wives and minor children of Indians. A Resolution of 12 January 1917 was passed by the Government of India, at the instance of the Government of the Union of South Africa, laying down a special privileged procedure for those wives and minor children of Indians who had left the Union on a visit to India before 3 September 1914. The Union Government is now of opinion that sufficient time has been allowed for all such Indians to have returned to South Africa, and, they have, therefore, requested the Government of India to cancel the Resolution of January 1917.

The procedure now again in force is, therefore, that laid down in the Resolution of 1914, and is as follows: the husband or father who is resident in the Union applies to the immigration authorities or the local magistrate for a certificate that he is at liberty to bring in his wife or children from India. He then transmits this certificate to his wife or children together with an application for a certificate of relationship to be produced before the principal local magistrate in India. If the claim is substantiated, the local magistrate issues this certificate in the prescribed form<sup>(48)</sup>.

The opinion of an individual expert on the Indian question is expressed in an article in the *Round Table*<sup>(49)</sup>. The writer, who is a South African, refers to the policy hitherto adopted with regard to natives in the Cape Province, and thinks that similar ideas may be developed for the large British Indian population in Natal. The importance of the problem, which, in fact, mainly affects Natal, may be seen from the following figures of population taken from the 1921 census.

Province	White	Asiatics	Native	Total
Cape	651,554	7,726	2,121,905	2,781,185
Natal	137,742	140,871	1,148,818	1,427,431
Transvaal	544,486	14,867	1,526,484	2,085,837
Orange Free State	189,142	220	438,998	628,360
Totals	1,522,924	163,684	5,236,205	6,922,813

<sup>(47)</sup> UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA: *Report of the Mining Industry Board*. 1922.

<sup>(48)</sup> *Indian Review*, Oct. 1922. Madras.

<sup>(49)</sup> *The Colour Question in Politics*, in the *Round Table*, Dec. 1922. London.

The Cape policy concerning natives is embodied in the Native Affairs Act 1920, which provides for local councils consisting solely of natives. These councils have considerable executive power in matters of local self-government (rates, education, hospitals, improvement in agricultural methods), and have power to levy rates up to £1 a year on native male adults resident in the area concerned. The taxes are abated to the extent of this special rate. Each council, moreover, acts as an advisory body to the Government and the Standing Native Affairs Commission.

It is pointed out that it would be difficult to adapt this system to the Indians, because the latter are not concentrated together in large areas; but it is suggested that representative bodies of Indians might be established with power to deal with such questions as Indian schools and hospitals and to serve as advisory bodies on questions specially affecting Indian interests. Their co-operation might in that way be secured in the settlement of some of the outstanding difficulties between Europeans and Indians. Ultimately it may be possible to give these bodies the right to send delegates to Parliament, where they would directly represent the Indian point of view.

### *Movements of Aliens within the British Empire*

A considerable number of Italians arrived in Australia during December. No advance arrangements for their reception were made, with the result that it was found difficult to place them in employment. The Commonwealth Government has decided that in future the number of Italians admitted to the country shall be regulated on the basis of the number which arrived during the preceding twelve months, and in proportion to the volume of emigration to other European countries. In the meanwhile British consuls have been asked not to issue passports to any persons of whatever nationality who may become a charge on the public<sup>(50)</sup>.

On the Italian side it is announced in the Italian press that the Minister of Foreign Affairs in Italy has instructed all public servants responsible to him in future not to issue passports to nationals wishing to proceed to Australia unless such persons can produce a proper contract of engagement visad by the Italian Consul-General in Melbourne<sup>(51)</sup>. Provision has also been made for the law to be rigorously enforced against those individuals who for motives of personal profit encourage Italian workers to emigrate to Australia at the present time<sup>(52)</sup>.

Clause 10 of the Aliens Restriction (Amendment) Act 1919, which provides that no former enemy alien is permitted to land in the United Kingdom without the permission of the Home Secretary, to be granted only on "special grounds", and that such permission shall be limited in duration to three months, expired on 23 December 1922 and is not to be re-enacted. It will still be necessary for former enemy aliens to obtain permission to land from the Home Secretary in accordance with Clause 2 of the Aliens Order 1920, but the need for special grounds, and the limitation in duration of the permission, no longer exist.

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<sup>(50)</sup> *Daily Telegraph*, 21 Dec. 1922. London, *The Times*, 16, 22, and 30 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(51)</sup> *La Giustizia*, 30 Jan. 1923. Milan.

<sup>(52)</sup> *Board of Trade Journal*, 18 Jan. 1923. London.

A question was put to the Government in the House of Commons on 30 November 1922, with a view to ascertaining whether it would consider the desirability of imposing a head tax on alien immigrants in order to restrict the influx of undesirable pauper immigrants. According to the reply of the Home Secretary, there is no such influx at present, the provisions of the Aliens Order 1920 being sufficient to prevent it. The Government is of the opinion that a head tax is unsuitable and impracticable in the United Kingdom <sup>(53)</sup>.

### *Immigration of Mennonites to Canada*

Reference has already been made to the fact that a large number of Mennonites <sup>(54)</sup> have within the last two years left Canada for the United States, Mexico, Paraguay, and other countries, owing to the fact that the special privileges which they enjoyed before the war have been taken away. There appears now, however, to be a movement to Canada on the part of Mennonites in Europe. It is announced by the Immigration Department in Ottawa that 3,000 Mennonites are on their way from the Odessa district in Russia, where they have been persecuted by the Soviet authorities. They will have no special rights guaranteed to them in Canada, but will be treated in the same way as other immigrants <sup>(55)</sup>.

### *Mandated Territory*

The Ex-Enemies Restriction Ordinance 1922 provides that no former enemy alien may enter Tanganyika Territory without permission from the Governor, who may impose certain conditions before granting it. These conditions may refer to the length of time for which the permission is granted, the place in which the alien proposes to stay, occupation, and other particulars. Every such alien must give an undertaking that he will be loyal to the Government and will not engage in propaganda against the Government, especially among the native population. Former enemy aliens who fail to comply with this Ordinance may be fined up to a maximum of £100, or may be deported <sup>(56)</sup>.

### *The Holding of Real Estate by Aliens in France*

The French Chamber of Deputies, at its sitting of 6 November 1922, adopted without discussion the text of a Government Bill laying down that, in order to acquire ownership or possession of real estate or to sign a lease for more than nine years, aliens and alien corporations must first obtain an authorisation from the Government given by Decree on the recommendation of the Ministry of the Interior. Such Decree must invariably mention the property and easements which are in question.

<sup>(53)</sup> Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Commons), 30 Nov. 1922. London.

<sup>(54)</sup> The Mennonites are a religious sect akin to the Baptists, and they claim exemption from all military service and from oath-taking. The particular Mennonites referred to here are presumably the descendants of the German Mennonite colonies brought to South Russia by Catherine II in 1786 to enable them to escape the hardships imposed by Prussian military law.

<sup>(55)</sup> *Toronto Daily Star*, 9 Nov. 1922. Toronto.

<sup>(56)</sup> *Nachrichtenbl. d. Reichswanderungsamts*, 1 Dec. 1922. Berlin.

Aliens to whom permission for temporary or permanent residence has been refused or from whom it has been withdrawn cannot receive authorisation to possess real estate. Corporations registered under the Civil or Commercial Code must apply for it unless the majority of their directors are of French nationality or the greater part of their capital is in French hands. In the event that authorisation is refused or that residence permission has been refused or withdrawn the person claiming real estate shall be permitted to alienate his rights, failing which they shall be adjudged forfeit and sold by order of the Office of Lands.

Aliens holding real estate rights on French territory must conform to the terms of the Act within six months of its coming into force. On coming into force the Act shall at once apply to the Departments of the Upper Rhine, the Lower Rhine, and the Moselle, to Algeria, and the colonies<sup>(57)</sup>.

The press both in France and in other countries has commented on the Bill from various points of view. There has been a good deal of criticism in France itself; the President of the Federation of French Manufacturers and Merchants (*Fédération des industriels et des commerçants français*) has sent the Premier a letter drawing the attention of the Government to the risks of reprisals to which the Bill may give rise. He suggests that the operation of the Bill should be limited to cover only districts which are of special importance from the point of view of national defence; further, nationals as well as aliens should come under its provisions, both in order to avoid interfering with rights secured in a very large number of commercial and other treaties at present in force and also to prevent a fraudulent holding of real estate by French nationals merely as agents for persons of alien status.

The Bill has not yet been introduced by the Government into the Senate and this delay is interpreted in some circles as a sign of the Government's intention to drop it. It may be noted that the original Bill as drafted by the Government was amended and made much more severe by the Committee which discussed it previous to the vote in the Chamber of Deputies<sup>(58)</sup>.

#### *Foreign Agricultural Labour for France*

The French Minister of Agriculture, speaking in the Chamber of Deputies on 17 November 1922, stated that the Government had opened negotiations with the Government of Algeria with a view to bringing over into France agricultural workers of the Kabyle race. Analogous negotiations had been opened with the Bulgarian Government. In addition, the Federation of Agricultural Associations in the Devastated Regions was considering the bringing over of Polish labour<sup>(59)</sup>.

#### *Foreign Agricultural Labour for Germany*

A Decree of the Federal Employment Office (*Reichsamt für Arbeitsvermittlung*) in Germany of 19 October 1922 prescribes that the recruiting and placing of foreign workers in agriculture may only be carried on through the intermediary of the German Central Office for Workers (*Deutsche Arbeiterzentrale*), with the approval of the Federal

<sup>(57)</sup> *Journal officiel*, 7 Nov. 1922. Paris.

<sup>(58)</sup> *La Journée industrielle*, 3 Jan. 1923. Paris. *Journal de la Marine marchande*, 8 Feb. 1923. Paris.

<sup>(59)</sup> *Journal officiel*, 18 Nov. 1922, p. 2335. Paris.

Employment Office. Employers who wish to engage in recruiting must state the number of workers required and the name of the place where they are to work, and they then receive an authorisation to undertake recruiting. This authorisation is not necessary for an employer who seeks to renew the contract of a worker already employed by him. A model contract is drawn up by the Agricultural Committee of the Federal Employment Office and must be adhered to.

Every foreign worker engaged in agriculture must have an identity card issued by the Central Office for Workers, and when he leaves his employment this card must be signed by the employer and visad by the local police. No foreign worker actually in Germany may be engaged by an employer unless his identity card has been duly signed and visad. This does not, however, apply to the recruiting or placing activity of the frontier offices of the Central Office.

The Federal Employment Office has the power to make exceptions in favour of certain districts, or groups of workers, after having consulted the Agricultural Committee.

Foreign workers who are employed in agriculture must not be placed in non-agricultural occupations, except with the special approval of the Federal Employment Office<sup>(60)</sup>.

#### *Eastern European Immigration into Germany*

The Prussian Minister of the Interior has addressed a Memorandum to the Federal Minister of Foreign Affairs, dealing with immigration from the East. He refers to the large number of Russians who have lost their original nationality and cannot return to Russia, former Russian prisoners of war in Germany, Polish deserters, and Jews. The problem raised by the presence of these people in Germany can, he says, only be solved internationally. He proposes that the League of Nations should deal with it, that investigation be made into the possibilities of further emigration to other countries, assisted if necessary by a reduction in the fares to overseas countries, that agreements should be concluded with Germany's eastern neighbours for the return of the immigrants as far as possible, and that the Reparations Commission should be informed of the situation, which may affect the fulfilment of Germany's obligations<sup>(61)</sup>.

#### *Home Settlement, Emigration, and Nationality Policy in Switzerland*

The Swiss Federal Council has decided, in order to assist intending emigrants, to appoint port commissioners at the principal ports of overseas countries; where a Swiss consulate exists the consul will be the port commissioner, or failing a consulate, special appointments will be made. The port commissioners will communicate direct with the Federal Emigration Office.

The Federal Council has further decided to accept the offer of the secretariat of the Swiss Association for Home Settlement and Agricul-

<sup>(60)</sup> *Reichsarbeitsblatt*, 31 Oct. 1922. Berlin.

<sup>(61)</sup> *Der Deutsche*, 6 Jan. 1923. *Berliner Tageblatt*, 5 Jan. 1923. Berlin. See also above, *Emigration of Germans from Poland*, in the section *Migration Movements*.



tural Science (*Association suisse pour la colonisation intérieure et l'agriculture industrielle*), and to empower it to act as a central emigration office in all cases where emigration is undertaken with a view to settlement on the land. The Association will first proceed to examine whether home settlement will not meet the requirements of any particular case. Otherwise it will be empowered to enquire into settlement opportunities both in Europe and beyond, and give verbal or written information on the subject; to find work for applicants in oversea countries (the finding of work in European countries will remain the function of the Federal Labour Bureau); to examine settlement schemes abroad, to submit them for the approval of the Federal authorities, with any necessary recommendation for financial assistance, to open negotiations with banking agents, other societies, or individuals with a view to putting such schemes into effect; to train future settlers for life abroad by placing them either in a home settlement scheme, or with farmers in Switzerland; finally, to supply future settlers with all necessary instructions and to follow their life and work in their countries of destination <sup>(62)</sup>.

The Swiss Federal Council on 14 November 1922 addressed a Message to the Federal Assembly laying down proposals tending to make the assimilation of aliens more effective. It proposes that Article 44 of the Constitution be revised. One of the amendments suggested provides that further Federal legislation may be enacted whereby children of alien parentage born in Switzerland shall *jure soli* become Swiss citizens. Particularly in the case of children born in Switzerland of an alien father but of a Swiss-born mother, such children shall *ipso facto* be reckoned to be Swiss.

The Bill also provides that part of the expenses actually incurred by the cantons as relief applied to children naturalised under its terms shall be borne by the Federal Government, provided that such children are under 18 years of age. An estimate places the annual increase of the national population from the naturalisation of these children of Swiss-born mothers at 5,000 persons.

The general policy of the Federal Council is to effect the naturalisation of those alien elements in the country which are likely to be easily assimilated, thus hoping to lower the high percentage of aliens among the population, a percentage which might endanger the national future <sup>(63)</sup>.

A vote of the Federal Assembly and a popular referendum will be taken on the suggested amendment <sup>(64)</sup>.

### *Policy of the Italian Government*

At a Council of Ministers held at Rome on 30 November 1922 Mr. Mussolini, the Premier, explained his policy on emigration. Mr. Mussolini's proposal was to transform the General Emigration Office into a Foreign Office Department, arguing that for a nation like Italy emigration was simply an aspect of foreign policy. Mr. Mussolini stated that great encouragement had already been given to emigration by the work of the General Emigration Office. He then proceeded to discuss several emigration projects. The text of a proposed

<sup>(62)</sup> From a communication of the Federal Emigration Office of the Swiss Government to the International Labour Office.

<sup>(63)</sup> See preceding note.

<sup>(64)</sup> *Feuille fédérale*, 22 Nov. 1922. Berne.

Agreement between the Office and the State of São Paulo had been forwarded by the Italian Ambassador in Brazil, Mr. Souza-Dantas, on 22 November 1922; this text would form the subject of a careful examination by the Government, which would consider whether it could be put into force; its terms allowed of the sending of 20,000 workers from Italy to São Paulo. Another Brazilian state, Parana, had also offered 200,000 hectares of land for Italian colonisation; Mr. Mussolini hoped that it would be possible eventually to convince the United States Government that the number of Italians admitted annually into the United States should be increased to 100,000<sup>(65)</sup>. There were also a number of new openings for emigrants in Canada. Finally, it was very possible that seasonal emigration of Italian workers to France would develop during the next few years.

The Premier's statements were unanimously approved after brief discussion<sup>(66)</sup>.

Subsequently the Italian press announced that the General Emigration Office has issued new regulations which can be summarised as follows.

(1) Provincial authorities are instructed to issue passports for journeys abroad to all persons asking for them.

(2) Workers wishing to proceed to France, Tunisia, Morocco, or Switzerland must, in order to obtain a passport, produce such documents as are required by the authorities of their country of destination, such as a promise or contract of employment.

(3) Workers proceeding to France, whether on an individual or whether on a collective contract, must have their contract of employment visad by the Italian consular authorities and by the emigration bureaux for purposes of identification and control.

(4) Voluntary emigration either of single individuals or of parties of persons to Brazil is henceforth made completely free; but emigration to that country of persons whose passages are prepaid by commercial companies or commercial undertakings continues to be prohibited. No relaxation of such prohibition by the General Emigration Office is permissible except on the basis of a contract signed by the employer pledging him to give satisfactory working conditions and, in case of complaint, to deposit a sum of caution money.

(5) Recruitment of labour for abroad<sup>(67)</sup> is supervised so as to ensure that it shall be in accordance with regulations in force. The General Emigration Office will, as far as possible, encourage such recruitment by applying to recognised institutions with a view to the finding of the required number of workers and to placement abroad<sup>(68)</sup>.

#### *Polish Agricultural Labour for Denmark*

The beet-sugar growers of the archipelago of Lolland-Falster have established a committee for obtaining labour from Poland which has entered into negotiations with the Danish Ministry of Justice for authorisation to pass in 2,000 Polish labourers for work in the beet fields. The Labour press protests against the application. It recalls the fact that the association of employers in Lolland-Falster successively refused two offers of labour made to them in the course of 1922 by the Union of Danish Agricultural Workers. The output of the Danish worker, it is maintained, is superior to that of the Polish worker, and

<sup>(65)</sup> But see below, under *United States* in this section.

<sup>(66)</sup> *Il Popolo d'Italia*, 1 Dec. 1922. Milan.

<sup>(67)</sup> Under Italian law all recruitment of more than five workers requires an authorisation from the Government.

<sup>(68)</sup> *La Stampa*, 15 Dec. 1922. Turin.

the union protests against any introduction of foreign labour at a moment when all the political parties are making efforts to organise the emigration of young Danish nationals <sup>(69)</sup>.

### *An Enquiry into Finnish Emigration*

In an article published in *Social Tidskrift* <sup>(70)</sup> Mr. Ilmari Teijula summarises the results of the enquiry into emigration made by the Statistical Service of the Central Finnish Council for Social Affairs on the request of the Emigration Commission <sup>(71)</sup>. The chief object of the enquiry was to examine into the causes of the emigration movement from Finland and to estimate the importance and results of that movement. A questionnaire which had been drawn up by the Commission was sent to the communes where the movement was known to be strong. Of the 163 communes to which the questionnaire was sent 145 or 89 per cent. answered. The number of those having emigrated from these communes was estimated at about 90,750 persons, of whom 87,400, or the vast majority, had gone to North America; 600 had gone to South America, 250 to South Africa, 400 to Australia, while the destinations of the remainder were unknown.

It is the general opinion that the emigration movement from Finland is tending to decrease. This decrease is attributed in some replies to the high cost of passages and the difficulties attending admission to foreign countries, and in others to the improvement in the economic and political situation at home since Finland became an independent country; forced service in the Russian army no longer exists, and various agricultural reforms have been carried out. On the other hand, there is the rise in the cost of living, the heavy increase in the birth rate, which entails ever increasing subdivision of estates, and the encouraging reports received from Finnish relatives and friends already settled abroad; these, together with the instinct for seeing the world, encourage emigration.

The majority of those emigrating have been young unmarried men with small resources, so that the effects on the economic life of the country have been comparatively small. Answers from 83 communes show that about 20 million Finnish marks have been sent home by emigrants; this figure, however, seems to be below the real total even for the communes in question.

Repatriation has taken place in the following proportions. The number of communes supplying details on this point was 106. In 2 communes four-fifths of those who had emigrated returned, in 10 two-thirds, in 21 one-half, in 23 one-third, in 17 one-quarter, in 6 one-fifth or one-sixth, in 15 one-tenth, and in 12 a number amounting to 8 per cent. or less. Information on the question of re-emigration gave the following results. The number of communes supplying details on this point was 102. In 10 communes the number of those emigrating for the second time was two-thirds or over of the total number of those who emigrated, in 23 it was about one-half, in 13 one-third, in 9 one-quarter, in 14 one-fifth, in 15 one-tenth, in 9 between 8 and 5 per cent., and in 8 less than 5 per cent. Most of those repatriated were in good health and over 75 per cent. of the answers indicated that

<sup>(69)</sup> *Social Demokraten*, 8 Dec 1922. Copenhagen.

<sup>(70)</sup> *Social Tidskrift*, No. 12, 1921, Helsingfors. The enquiry dealt with in this article was made in the spring of 1921. Information extending over a long period was made use of, the extreme dates being 1850 and 1920.

<sup>(71)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 638.

their material condition was distinctly above the average of the home population. They usually adapted themselves without too much difficulty to home conditions. A great many emigrants buy land on their return, which, as a rule, is beyond the means of the worker who stays in the country.

Opinions as to the usefulness of emigration differ widely, and still more widely as to the legislation which ought to be passed to deal with it. It seems, however, to be generally agreed that any prohibition of, or even direct interference with, emigration would be useless and injurious; there is, nevertheless, a considerable body of opinion in favour of regulating it. Many of the answers sent in by the communal authorities recommended that the emigrant should be compelled before departure to make provision for his dependent family, for the cultivation of his land, and the education of his children. Other suggestions were to forbid the emigration of married persons unless the consent of the conjugal partner had been obtained; to compel all emigrants to leave a power of attorney in the hands of some person at home; to compel all intending emigrants to attend educational courses and to attain a certain educational standard. In general, attention is drawn to the need for keeping up close relations between the authorities of the home country and emigrated persons both with a view to the proper registration and legalisation of marriages and births abroad, and also in order to protect the rights in Finland of those who have emigrated. To deal with these questions the suggestion is made that organisations might be established in connection with Finnish consulates abroad, specially charged with the general protection of emigrants' interests, with the transfer of savings etc., and further that lecturers might be despatched whose object it would be to keep up Finnish national sentiment among emigrants abroad.

Some suggestions are also made for influencing the movement. State action is called for to make the acquisition of land rather easier for nationals; this would tend to reduce the volume of emigration. A demand is also made for action to ensure that emigrants receive humane and satisfactory treatment from shipping companies; above all, measures are asked for to encourage the repatriation of emigrants, whether by means of a remission of taxation, or by offering them specially easy terms for the acquisition of land on their return.

### *The Hungarian Emigration Council*

The mandate of the Hungarian Emigration Council having expired, the usual three-yearly reconstitution has been undertaken for 1923 to 1925 under the terms of the Emigration Act of 1909. The Council, which is a body of twenty persons and includes representatives of the government, parliament, commerce, agriculture, and two workers' delegates, advises the Minister of the Interior on all questions concerning emigration. In opening the sixth session on 30 November 1922 the Minister of the Interior referred to the important problems with which the Council was called upon to deal and drew special attention to the emigration movement to the United States, Canada, and South America, the miners' migration movement, and the agricultural emigration movement. Considerable discussion took place on the question of prolonging the licences to carry emigrants at present held by shipping companies.

Another question which will probably come before the Council in the near future is that of trying to put some check on the large

numbers of industrial workers leaving the country for neighbouring states; applications on this subject have been received from various employers' organisations, e.g. from employers in the building trades.

Emigration to the United States has had to stop entirely from the middle of December 1922 and cannot be resumed until 1 July 1923 owing to the fact that the Hungarian quota has already been completely exhausted for the present fiscal year. The last groups of emigrants travelling to the States consisted chiefly of women and children, whose voyage seemed, from the humane point of view, of great urgency.

#### *Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom <sup>(72)</sup>*

The Serb-Croat-Slovene Government has recently established a General Emigration Office under the terms of the Emigration Act of December 1921.

The Regulations issued on the organisation of the Office supplement those issued in August 1922 in application of the Act <sup>(73)</sup>. The General Emigration Office is to be attached to the Ministry of Social Policy, to which it shall be responsible and from which it shall receive instructions. The official placed in charge of the Emigration Office shall have the rank of chief of department and shall keep up a close liaison with the Emigration Department in the Ministry and also with government and private emigration services abroad. The Emigration Office was established on 15 November 1922 with offices provisionally located at Zagreb.

#### *Bulgaria*

The Ministry of the Interior has appointed a Commission to study existing legislation on the subject of emigration and to draft the text of a Bill to codify and amend it <sup>(74)</sup>.

#### *United States*

##### *President Harding's Proposals*

President Harding, in his Message to Congress on 8 December, referred to the question of immigration in these terms <sup>(75)</sup>.

There are pending Bills for the registration of the alien who has come to our shores. I wish the passage of such an Act might be expedited. Life amid American opportunities is worth the cost of registration if it is worth the seeking, and the nation has the right to know who are citizens in the making or who live among us and share our advantages while seeking to undermine our cherished institutions. This provision will enable us to guard against the abuses in immigration, checking the undesirable whose irregular coming is his first violation of our laws. More, it will facilitate the needed Americanising of those who mean to enrol as fellow citizens.

Before enlarging the immigration quotas we had better provide registration for aliens, those now here or continually pressing for admission, and establish our examination boards abroad, to make sure of desirables only. By the examination abroad we could end the pathos at our ports, when men and women find our doors closed, after long voyages and

<sup>(72)</sup> Communication from the General Emigration Office, Zagreb.

<sup>(73)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6, June 1922, p. 978.

<sup>(74)</sup> *Pobeda*, 2 Dec. 1922. Sofia.

<sup>(75)</sup> *Congressional Record*, 8 Dec. 1922. Washington.

wasted savings, because they are unfit for admission. It would be kindlier and safer to tell them before they embark.

Our programme of admission and treatment of immigrants is very intimately related to the educational policy of the Republic. With illiteracy estimated at from two-tenths of 1 per cent. to less than 2 per cent. in ten of the foremost nations of Europe, it rivets our attention to a serious problem when we are reminded of a 6 per cent. illiteracy in the United States. The figures are based on the test which defines an illiterate as one having no schooling whatever. Remembering the wide freedom of our public schools, with compulsory attendance in many States in the Union, one is convinced that much of our excessive illiteracy comes to us from abroad, and the education of the immigrant becomes a requisite to his Americanisation. It must be done if he is fittingly to exercise the duties as well as enjoy the privileges of American citizenship. Here is revealed the special field for Federal co-operation in furthering education.

### *Report of the Secretary of Labour*

The United States Secretary of Labour in his annual report for the fiscal year ending 30 June 1922 also expresses himself in favour of the selection of immigrants being made by United States officials in countries of emigration. The Three per Cent. Act, he says, checked the stream of immigration arbitrarily, pending the framing of a policy under which only the best of those applying for admission will be allowed to enter. He recommends that a law be passed providing for the examination abroad of prospective emigrants by giving the following tests: blood (general condition of health); physical (strength, and conditions affecting ability to earn a living); mental; character (prevention of entry of criminals, anarchists and immoral persons). Legislation of this kind will ensure to the United States the right to choose her future residents, will prevent the breaking up of homes and families before admissibility is determined, and will give the United States a record of the individual made up at his own home.

On the question of Oriental immigration the Secretary of Labour states that the "schemes, plans and plots for circumventing the law are most astute and clever, and in numbers are beyond belief". Desertions of Oriental seamen at San Francisco amount to from 75 to 150 per month, and an investigation at New York in the summer of 1921 showed that there were no less than 2,500 Chinese seamen in that city at that time. In addition, there is a great deal of smuggling across the land frontiers. The Department of Labour made an investigation during the year, which showed that there were from 25,000 to 35,000 Chinese coolies in Cuba for the sole purpose of endeavouring to smuggle into the United States. Large numbers are also in the British West Indies, Canada, and Mexico. The subject of Oriental immigration, says the report, is worthy of careful consideration by Congress and a most thorough and comprehensive revision of the law. Moreover, more funds are required by the Government in order to deal with the existing unlawful entry of Orientals.

With reference to the immigration stations at the ports of entry, the Secretary of Labour says that the number of those detained at Ellis Island is usually 50 per cent., and sometimes 100 per cent., above the capacities of the accommodation provided. Criticisms are also made of all the other more important ports of entry, such as Boston, Seattle, San Francisco, etc., and in many cases it is stated, on the authority of Surgeon-General H. S. Cumming of the Public Health Service, that there is a lack of facilities for medical examinations for arriving aliens at these stations.

Another problem dealt with by the Secretary of Labour is that of education and naturalisation. He says that every alien should be required to enrol for the training which the United States Government should undertake to give. Citizenship is a Federal concern, and the Federal Government should, therefore, supervise the preparation for citizenship. The annual enrolment should be accompanied by fees sufficient to cover the expense which would be incurred in furnishing the education prescribed <sup>(76)</sup>.

#### *Proposals of the Commissioner-General of Immigration*

In an article in *The Nation's Business* the Commissioner-General of Immigration argues that a means should be found to let in the men who fill the industrial needs, and at the same time have the qualities which will make them desirable residents, of American communities. Under the contract labour law skilled labour may be admitted under contract if labour of like kind unemployed cannot be found in the United States. The Commissioner-General proposes the extension of this measure to unskilled labour or any other class of persons needed in the country provided that adequate, careful, and unprejudiced machinery is created for the purpose of carrying out the plan. He also suggests the establishment of a system under which the available supplies of labour of various kinds in foreign countries will be regularly communicated to the United States Government, so that, when there is a demand for labour in the United States, it will be known where the available labour is to be found <sup>(77)</sup>.

#### *Admission of Refugees*

Several Bills and Resolutions were introduced both in the Senate and in the House of Representatives during December 1922, with a view to making provision for the admission of immigrants from Turkish territory in excess of the quotas allowed by the Three per Cent. Act, on account of the distress created by the departure of large numbers of refugees from Asia Minor. At the same time petitions were presented to Congress from various individuals and societies in favour of such a measure <sup>(78)</sup>. It may be recalled that the Conference on Immigration Policy adopted a resolution on 2 November 1922 requesting Congress "to lift or otherwise modify the Turkish quota for the year 1922-1923 in order to relieve those fleeing from Asia Minor and Thrace".

#### *Conditions at Ellis Island*

According to a reply made by the British Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs to a question which was asked in the House of Commons on 6 December 1922, representations were made on two occasions during 1922 to the United States Government with regard to the treatment of British emigrants at Ellis Island and two visits of inspection were carried out by members of the British Embassy at Washington at the invitation of that Government. In the view of the British Under-Secretary the conditions and treatment at Ellis Island are primarily adapted to immigrants of a low standard of cleanliness and conduct, and for persons of any refinement the treatment constitutes a serious hardship <sup>(79)</sup>.

<sup>(76)</sup> *Tenth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labour for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1922*. Washington, 1922.

<sup>(77)</sup> *The Nation's Business*, Jan. 1923. Washington.

<sup>(78)</sup> *Congressional Record*, 5 Dec. 1922. Washington.

<sup>(79)</sup> Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Commons), 6 Dec. 1922. London.

Two days later, on 8 December, Mr. Davis, the United States Secretary of Labour, issued a public invitation to the British House of Commons to appoint a commission to come over to Ellis Island and inspect the conditions there. He added his conviction that these conditions were better than those of any other immigration station in the world.

The British Ambassador had an interview on 16 December with Mr. Davis, who replied that he had written to the Treasury asking that the supervising architect of that Department should investigate the matter, with a view to rebuilding the Ellis Island station so that the different races could be segregated<sup>(80)</sup>. He invited the Ambassador to visit Ellis Island and inspect the accommodation for immigrants. This invitation was accepted on 28 December 1922, but no further official statements have been made as yet<sup>(81)</sup>.

### *Legislation on Immigration into Cuba*

An Act promulgated on 18 May 1922 has replaced an earlier Act of 3 August 1917 on immigration into Cuba. The 1917 Act suspended for a period of two years after the determination of the state of war which was in force at the date of its coming into operation all restrictions on immigration into Cuba which were contained in older legislation. The principal restriction which had been in force was one prohibiting the entry of workers engaged by contract except with the previous consent of the Cuban authorities; also a general prohibition against the entry of Chinese nationals<sup>(82)</sup>.

The 1922 Act in effect repeals the whole of the 1917 Act except Section 5, which prohibits the engagement of male immigrants on work which can be suitably done by women.

The new legislation empowers the executive authorities at any moment to order the expulsion of an immigrant whose entry into Cuban territory originally took place in virtue of the older legislation now abrogated<sup>(83)</sup>.

### *Agricultural Settlement and Immigration in Brazil*

The Message communicated by Mr. Epitacio Pessoa on his retirement from the office of President of the United States of Brazil includes a statement on the Government's land settlement policy which supplements previous information on this subject<sup>(84)</sup>.

Of twenty settlement centres established by the Federal Government sixteen have already been pronounced autonomous, most of them in the State of Parana, four others are being organised. The total number of persons living in these settlements is 44,459, forming 8,029 families, and including 23,566 persons of male sex and 20,893 of female sex. The number of Brazilian nationals included is 18,708. The value of

<sup>(80)</sup> *New York Times*, 17 Dec. 1922. New York.

<sup>(81)</sup> *Manchester Guardian*, 29 Dec. 1922. Manchester.

<sup>(82)</sup> Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE. *Emigration and Immigration: Legislation and Treaties*, pp. 180, 201 and passim. Geneva, 1922.

<sup>(83)</sup> *Gaceta Oficial*, 23 May 1923. Havana. See also *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 145 (*Legislative Notes*) for further details as regards Section 5.

<sup>(84)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 1, July 1922, pp. 102-103.



the agricultural produce grown by these settlements rose in 1921 to 20,946 contos 846.159 milreis, and that of the live-stock owned to 9,668 contos 54.4 milreis<sup>(85)</sup>.

To supply these settlements with population the Government for the most part looks to immigrants who have paid their own passage out (*espontaneos*), who are, as a rule, more valuable settlers than other types of immigrants. With a view to making it easier for them to acquire land the Government credits their accounts with the amount of the passage money they have paid to come out<sup>(86)</sup>. The President of the Republic has authorised a credit of 300 contos to the Ministry of Agriculture, for the purpose both of encouraging home settlement on the land by nationals and of attracting agricultural settlers from Europe<sup>(87)</sup>.

A Bill has been laid before the Chamber of Deputies of the State of São Paulo, the object of which is to encourage agricultural wage earners — a class mostly composed of alien immigrants — to acquire small rural property.

The Bill empowers the Government to buy large coffee plantations up to an annual value of 2,000 contos. These are then to be resold in lots to settlers who have proved themselves satisfactory workers; one-third of the price of a lot to be paid in cash and the remaining two-thirds within a period of ten years<sup>(88)</sup>.

A statement from the Federal Minister of Agriculture is published in the Brazilian press which gives detailed information, derived from the results of the census of September 1920, on the economic situation at that date of alien immigrant settlers in Brazil. While nationals owned the largest number of farms (*fazendas*), other groups of owners were, by size of group in the order named, the Italians, Portuguese, Germans, Spanish, Russians, Austrians, Uruguayans, Japanese, and other nationalities. Reckoning by acreage, however, the Portuguese were ahead of the Italians. The latter owned a large number of farms, but these farms were small — on an average 76 hectares per property. At the same time the average value per hectare (including stock and plant) of the farms owned by Italians was \$170, which was a great deal higher than the average value of farms held throughout the country — \$60 per hectare.

The following figures are given for the three chief States :

In the State of São Paulo Italian settlers owned 11,825 farms, or 47.8 per cent. of the total acreage farmed by aliens in the State, and Portuguese settlers owned, 3,873 farms, or 22.8 per cent. of that total acreage.

In the State of Rio Grande do Sul Italian settlers owned 13,810 farms, or 35.0 per cent. of the total acreage farmed in that State by aliens.

In the State of Minas-Geraes Italian settlers owned 2,193 farms, or a total acreage less than that farmed by Portuguese settlers, but carrying a higher total value<sup>(89)</sup>.

<sup>(85)</sup> One conto=1,000 milreis.

<sup>(86)</sup> *Jornal de Comercio*, 16 Nov. 1922. Rio de Janeiro.

<sup>(87)</sup> *Diario Oficial*, 6 Dec. 1922. Rio de Janeiro.

<sup>(88)</sup> *O Paiz*, 20 Nov. 1922. Rio de Janeiro.

<sup>(89)</sup> *Ibid.* 2 Dec. 1922.

### *Chinese Immigration into Peru*

A considerable agitation is going on, especially among commercial circles in Peru, against Chinese immigration into that country. The Peruvian Parliament has appointed a Commission of Enquiry, and several Bills have been laid before the House. None of these, however, can become law on account of the existence of the Porras-Wiu-Ting-Fang Treaty which is in force between the Peruvian and the Chinese Governments and which binds the Peruvian Government to definite principles on the question of Chinese immigration. The first Article in the Treaty lays down that the entry of Chinese immigrants into Peru cannot be prohibited except with the consent of the Chinese Government. A movement has been started for denouncing the treaty and for the entire suppression of Chinese immigration <sup>(90)</sup>.

### *Unemployment Insurance and Accident Compensation*

#### *Austria*

Amended versions of the Unemployment Insurance Act of 24 March 1920, embodying the various amendments which have been made in the Act since that date, and of the Regulations for the application of that Act, were issued by the Ministry of Social Administration on 11 October and 7 November 1922 respectively <sup>(91)</sup>. Articles 63 and 64 deal with the position of aliens in respect to the Act. Aliens are, in principle, on an equality with nationals. Regulations may, however, be issued in the form of a Decree to the effect that citizens of a country which places Austrians in an inferior position compared with its own nationals in the matter of unemployment benefits may be excluded from the Austrian unemployment insurance scheme.

#### *Australia : Queensland*

The Queensland Unemployment Insurance Act of 23 October 1922 which provides for contributions from workers, employers, and the Government, and for benefits varying from 15s. to 20s. per week for a single man, and 25s. to 35s. for a married man, with additional sums for children under 16, includes all workers, whether native-born or alien, except aboriginal alien natives of Asia, Africa, and the Pacific Islands <sup>(92)</sup>.

#### *France*

Under the terms of an Act promulgated in France on 15 December 1922 extending workmen's accident compensation to agricultural labourers, workers of any nationality employed in agriculture in France will receive compensation for injury received as the result of an occupational accident. Workers of alien nationality are, however, excluded from the benefit of the clauses which provide for a daily allowance in cases of temporary incapacity for work arising out of an accident unless they shall be resident and continue to be resident in French territory. Nationals of countries which have concluded

<sup>(90)</sup> *El Comercio*, 22-24 Nov. 1922. Lima.

<sup>(91)</sup> *Ämtliche Nachrichten des Oesterreichischen Bundesministeriums für Soziale Verwaltung*; Special Number: *Arbeitslosenversicherungsgesetz mit Durchführungsbestimmungen*, 31 Oct. 1922.

<sup>(92)</sup> *Queensland Industrial Gazette*, Oct. 1922. Brisbane.

reciprocity treaties on the subject with France are not liable to this disqualification<sup>(93)</sup>.

By the insertion of this clause the Act of 15 December 1922 narrows the terms of the Act of 9 April 1898. The 1898 Act, which only applies to workers of any nationality employed in industry (in the narrow sense of that term) who are victims of an accident in the course of their employment, does not limit the rights of alien workers by any condition of residence on French territory except in regard to permanent incapacity for work (absolute or partial).

*Note : Immigration Ordinance in Japan*<sup>(94)</sup>

An Ordinance of the Department of Home Affairs, issued on 24 January 1918, regulates the entry into Japan of persons of foreign nationality. It provides that prefectural Governors may prohibit the landing of (1) persons who have no passport or certificate of nationality ; (2) persons who are suspected of acts inimical to the interests of Japan or of serving the cause of an enemy country ; (3) persons who are suspected of becoming a menace to public safety or to good morals ; (4) habitual beggars and vagrants ; (5) persons suffering from an infectious disease or a disease dangerous to public health ; (6) lunatics, imbeciles, paupers, and persons who are likely to become a public charge<sup>(95)</sup>.

## WELFARE AND PROTECTION WORK

### *British Empire*

#### *Emigration of Women from Great Britain*

The Society for the Oversea Settlement of British Women, while retaining an unofficial character, acts as the women's branch of the Oversea Settlement Committee, and in virtue of this position receives a subsidy from the British Government which amounted in the year 1921 to £7,500<sup>(96)</sup>.

The *Annual Report* for that year states that representatives of the Society have been appointed to serve on 242 sub-committees of employment exchanges for the purpose of interviewing women applicants for employment overseas. Arrangements are made for co-operation with

<sup>(93)</sup> *Journal officiel*, 16 Dec. 1922. Paris.

<sup>(94)</sup> This note, referring to an Ordinance of January 1918 is inserted in order to fill a gap in *Emigration and Immigration : Legislation and Treaties*, where no mention of it is made. Previous Ordinances issued on 8 and 28 July 1899 respectively declared that aliens who intend to reside in Japan for 90 days or more must report to the police station within ten days of their arrival. Aliens who are denied the freedom of residence by treaty or custom may enjoy freedom of residence, movement, and the right to carry on business outside the former settlement or place of mixed residence, but that stipulation does not apply to workers unless they have received special permission from the prefectural Governor.

<sup>(95)</sup> Ordinance No. 1 of the Department of Home Affairs, 24 Jan. 1918.

<sup>(96)</sup> The Articles of Association state that the secretary shall be responsible for advising the Oversea Settlement Committee of the Colonial Office upon broad questions of policy connected with the overseas settlement and emigration of women, as well as for carrying on selection of suitable women settlers and making proper provision for their transit, protection, and employment overseas.

the following organisations in the Dominions : in Canada, the Women's Branch of the Department of Immigration ; in Australia and New Zealand, the Victoria League, and in South Africa, specially appointed representatives of the Society.

The number of women who actually sailed under the Society's auspices during the year 1921 was 1,051, while enquiries were in addition received from 6,862 women. There would be much more extensive migration among women, it is stated, if financial assistance could be given. In addition, 1,582 women emigrated under the free passage scheme for ex-Service women. Of these 676 went to Canada, 405 to Australia, 193 to New Zealand, 182 to South Africa, and the remainder to other parts of the Empire<sup>(97)</sup>.

#### *Salvation Army Work in Canada*

The Dominion Government has approved a plan put forward by the Salvation Army for an extension of the Army's work in connection with the migration of persons from Great Britain. The principles on which the Army proceeds are to find opportunities for migrants and then to select the men and women who are willing and able to take advantage of them. Experience shows, however, that the majority of these selected migrants, chiefly farm labourers and domestic servants, who have been assisted to go to Canada, remain in the East of the Dominion owing to the cost of the journey to the West. In order to overcome this difficulty the British and Canadian Governments have each agreed to pay half the expense of the journey in Canada from Sudbury to the destination in the West. This assistance will be given only to those classes of migrants for which there is a demand in the West.

The Army is establishing a training scheme in Great Britain designed particularly for boys in "blind alley" occupations. This training, which will last three months, is intended to weed out those who are unfit for agricultural work and to teach the remainder the elements of the subject, such as harnessing a horse, operating simple agricultural machinery, and some of the tasks which a farm worker is expected to perform.

It is also proposed, according to Commissioner Lamb, to establish a number of training schools and farm centres in different Canadian provinces for immigrants taken to Canada by the Army. The Army proposes to settle 25,000 boys, single women, and widows with families in the Dominion<sup>(98)</sup>.

#### *British Labour and Emigration*

The attitude of British labour towards emigration is important. Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, the leader of the Labour Party in the House of Commons, speaking in that House on 1 December 1922, said that if Great Britain is no longer able to hold its previous economic position in the world as a specialised productive country and world industrial power, emigration will have to be faced. It is a very extraordinary phenomenon, and it is also extraordinary that a great many of those

<sup>(97)</sup> SOCIETY FOR THE OVERSEA SETTLEMENT OF BRITISH WOMEN. *Second Annual Report, 1921*. London. It should be stated that the above figures do not include women who are recommended by the Society to the representatives of the Dominion Governments, and who sail under the auspices of the latter.

<sup>(98)</sup> *Montreal Gazette*, 5 Dec. 1922, Montreal; *Manitoba Free Press*, 15 Dec. 1922, Winnipeg; *Canada*, 13 Jan. 1923, London.

who have migrated in search of new homes and fresh prosperity have failed to find them, and are now back in Great Britain, registered at the employment exchanges, with all their savings and all their protection against continuing poverty gone; they are in a much worse position than before they went <sup>(99)</sup>.

In addition, an article in the *Labour Press Service* refers to a Memorandum, issued by the Labour Council of New South Wales, and concludes that the warning contained therein reinforces the view of British labour that emigration as a cure for unemployment, and even as a means of relieving the country of its "surplus" population, is a delusion and snare <sup>(100)</sup>.

### *Welfare of Immigrant Children in France*

Several schemes have been announced for bringing to France orphans of alien nationality; they are generally the children of persons who had been refugees. The intention is to place them with the families of French rural workers. Small parties of Russian and other orphans are being made up, especially at centres like Constantinople, in Bulgaria, the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom, and in Poland.

It is stated that the French Minister of Agriculture has authorised a grant to the Society for the Protection of Agricultural Workers in France of 15,000 francs in order to cover the cost of bringing a first contingent of orphaned children to France from the Serb-Croat-Slovene Kingdom.

A Committee for Assisting Immigrant Children has been founded at Paris by the General Association of Mayors of France and Algeria and by the French Society for the Protection of Agricultural Workers. The members of the Committee represent Parliament, government circles, and the big agricultural associations and others; its object is to come to the assistance in France of children of alien birth left destitute, to give them moral and material help, and to train them to earn their living by apprenticing them to some trade, preferably agriculture <sup>(101)</sup>.

### *'Attitude towards Emigration' in Italy*

At the national congress of the Federation of Trade Unions (a fascist organisation), held at Bologna on 10 and 11 November 1922, resolutions were passed recommending that emigration should be reorganised, and that each fascist trade union federation should establish an emigration department. A resolution was moved by Mr. Rossoni, general secretary of the Federation, and unanimously adopted, to the effect that advisory government bodies, such as the Supreme Council of Emigration, should only recognise trade associations accepting national principles. This step would result in excluding from these councils

<sup>(99)</sup> Hansard, *Parliamentary Debates* (House of Commons), 1 Dec. 1922. London.

<sup>(100)</sup> *Labour Press Service*, 4 Feb. 1923. London. The Memorandum in question says: "The action of the British and Australian Governments in inducing large numbers of British workmen to break up their homes and undertake the long journey to Australia constitutes a cruel confidence trick upon the workers of Great Britain designed to benefit the Australian employers at the expense of the British and Australian workers".

<sup>(101)</sup> *La Main-d'œuvre agricole*, Nov. 1922. Paris.

those organisations which maintain relations with organisations abroad without submitting to state supervision <sup>(102)</sup>.

The Italian Government has issued a Decree, dated 16 November 1922 <sup>(103)</sup>, amending Section 2 of the Emigration Act, which was promulgated on 13 November 1919. By this Decree the method of designating organisations entitled to send a representative to the Supreme Council of Emigration is altered, and, in consequence, the Federation of Trade Unions has been called upon to send a member to sit upon the Council.

In an interview Mr. d'Aragona, general secretary of the Italian General Confederation of Labour, stated that the Italian trade unions should continue to co-operate as closely as heretofore with the Amsterdam Trade Union International <sup>(104)</sup>. As an illustration of the value of such co-operation, Mr. d'Aragona mentioned that with the assistance of the French General Confederation of Labour, which is also affiliated to the Amsterdam International, the Italian Confederation had been able to make arrangements for the employment of about 20,000 Italian workers in France next spring.

The questionnaire on emigration sent out by the Catholic welfare association known as Opera Bonomelli <sup>(105)</sup> has elicited a large number of answers. There is a general agreement as to the admitted value of emigration, but great divergence is expressed as to the practical policy to be pursued. The two extremes of opinion insist, the one on the duty of the state in advising and protecting the emigrant, the other on the imperative present-day need for encouraging emigration and of clearing all obstacles out of the way. The mean between these two opinions lays stress on the duty of the public authorities of leaving to any person wishing to emigrate complete liberty of action, but of offering him protection. Most of the answers asked for greater elasticity in legislation, so that both the labour requirements of other countries and the needs of the Italian worker who is obliged to leave Italy might receive more consideration.

A great many answers also touched on the problem of the emigration of intellectual workers and the possibility of calling upon Italian capital for the encouragement of emigration; opinion was again divided on the methods to be applied on both points <sup>(106)</sup>.

#### *Swiss Emigrants Abroad*

In 1914 a society was established at Berne, under the title *La Nouvelle Société Helvétique*, for the encouragement of a sense of patriotism in the Swiss nation. This society has for several years also been the leader in a movement for assisting Swiss nationals living abroad. A committee of patrons has been formed under the presidency of the Chief of the Political Department of the Federation and in 1919 a Secretariat for Swiss Emigrants Abroad was started. Attached to it are 88 groups or sub-groups in foreign countries and a number of correspond-

<sup>(102)</sup> *Il Popolo d'Italia*, 12 Nov. 1922. Rome.

<sup>(103)</sup> *Gazzetta ufficiale*, 20 Dec. 1922. Rome.

<sup>(104)</sup> *La Stampa*, 30 Nov. 1922. Turin.

<sup>(105)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 115.

<sup>(106)</sup> *Opera Bonomelli*, 30 Nov., 15 Dec. 1922; 15 Jan. 1923. Milan.

ing members in the different continents of the world. One of the purposes of the groups is to further mutual aid work.

The Secretariat is supported by subscriptions from business houses and industrial undertakings; it assists in the publication of an organ for Swiss nationals living abroad, its chief aim being to keep them in touch with the mother country. It also undertakes to answer enquiries from such persons, to encourage the establishment of Swiss schools in foreign countries, and to give assistance to nationals returning to Switzerland in order to perform their military service<sup>(107)</sup>.

#### *Agreement between Danish and German Transport Unions*

An agreement was concluded in September 1922<sup>(108)</sup> between the Danish and German Transport Workers' Unions (*Dansk Arbejdsmandsforbund* and *Deutsche Transportarbeiterverband*), which provides that members of one union employed within the working area of the other may transfer to the latter. After four weeks' uninterrupted employment in the foreign country such a member obtains full rights on an equality with nationals of that country. Should a worker who has been a member of his original union for at least twelve months be out of work within the period of four weeks, and should it be impossible to find employment for him, he will receive from the union to which he has transferred the payment of his fare to his own country, and an additional sum for five days' food and lodging, provided that these sums do not exceed the amount of four weeks' unemployment benefit.

#### *The Swedish National Anti-Emigration Society*

The Swedish National Anti-Emigration Society held its annual general meeting on 5 December last at Stockholm. The report submitted stated that the past year had been a critical one. Apart from the work done in the direction of encouraging home settlement, the Society had on 3,427 occasions given advice to Swedish persons re-entering the country, with a view to helping them either to resume Swedish nationality, or to enter an occupation or acquire real estate, or to regularise their position as regards military service<sup>(109)</sup>.

Mr. Hakansson, the secretary, stated in the course of an interview that the present unemployment crisis has simultaneously tended to increase the volume of emigration from Sweden and to make the placing

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<sup>(107)</sup> Communication from the *Secrétariat des Suisses à l'étranger*, Geneva, 1923. In its report for 1921 the Secretariat mentions a number of organisations established for the purpose of encouraging permanent relations between expatriated nationals and their old country; e. g. in France the *Alliance française*, the *Office central de l'expansion nationale*, and *Les Amis de la France*; in Italy the *Dante Alighieri Society* and the *Ufficio tecnico di propaganda nazionale*; in Germany the *Deutsches Auslandsinstitut*; in Great Britain the Foreign Office Committee on British Communities Abroad; in Austria the *Oesterreichische Auskunftsstelle für Auswanderer*; in Norway the *Normands forbundet*; in Denmark the *Danske Studerendes internationale Komite*; in Sweden the *Riksföreningen för svenskhetens bevarande i utlandet*; the Secretariat in Switzerland hopes to adopt the best features in these organisations.

See also below, *A League of Austrians Domiciled Abroad*, in this section.

<sup>(108)</sup> *Die Schifffahrt*, 19 Oct. 1922. Berlin. The agreement was signed in Copenhagen on 2 September 1922, and in Berlin on 14 September 1922.

<sup>(109)</sup> *Social Demokraten*, 6 Dec. 1922. Stockholm.

of Swedish emigrants abroad more difficult. Home settlement cannot suffice ; thousands of unemployed are being compelled to emigrate. Mr. Hakansson concluded by stating that he hoped that, as long as the present depression lasted the authorities would realise the importance of supplying emigrants with exact and reliable information as to possible employment abroad and the labour conditions which they might expect to find there <sup>(110)</sup>.

### *A League of Austrians Domiciled Abroad*

The official Migration Office (*Wanderungsamt*) in Austria proposes to create a League of Austrians Domiciled Abroad, in which it is proposed to enrol a large number of the 900,000 Austrians who live outside the Republic. The object of the League is to assist members in legal business and other matters by means of advice, to give information as to opportunities of employment, to explain foreign legislation, publish a journal, further education, erect shelters and hospitals, etc. The central office of the League will be placed in the Ministry of the Interior at Vienna. It is intended to hold the first international congress of the League at Whitsuntide, 1924 <sup>(111)</sup>.

### *Emigration of Russian Jews*

Emigration from Russia has hitherto been hindered first by the collapse of the Russian exchange and by government measures, secondly, by the absence in Russia of consuls of immigration countries and the difficulty of obtaining transit visas for contiguous countries where such consulates exist. The Baltic-American Line made an attempt to overcome this difficulty, and signed an agreement with the Government of Latvia for the passage through Latvia of Russians travelling overseas on ships of that line, but the Jewish Committee of Social Welfare in Russia (*Idgeskom*) decided not to enter into relations with the shipping companies on the ground that emigration should be under the sole supervision of official and philanthropic bodies.

An Agreement was also concluded some time ago between the Lithuanian Government and the executive committee of the Jewish World Relief Conference, but the results have not come up to expectation <sup>(112)</sup>.

Since then a Joint Committee for Jewish Emigration has been formed at Berlin, representing the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society of New York, the executive committee of the Jewish World Relief Conference of Paris, and the Federation of Ukrainian Jews of London. This Joint Committee has concluded agreements with the Latvian Government, the Jewish Section of the Russian People's Commissariat for Minority Nationalities (*Narkomnatz*) and the *Idgeskom*. These agreements, which are summarised immediately below, form the basis of the action which the Joint Committee is undertaking on behalf of Russian Jews wishing to emigrate <sup>(113)</sup>.

<sup>(110)</sup> *F. D. Politiken*, 13 Nov. 1922. Stockholm.

<sup>(111)</sup> *Arbeiterzeitung*, 17 Dec. 1922. Vienna.

<sup>(112)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 2, Feb. 1922, p. 318.

<sup>(113)</sup> *Der Emigrante* (Yiddish Organ for Jewish Emigration), 23 Nov. 1922, Warsaw. This periodical is one of the principal sources of information for the whole of the present note on the Emigration of Russian Jews.



At the end of this note are also given some particulars concerning the activity of the Russian Emigration Office and the situation of Russian Jewish emigrants in Roumania and Poland.

### *Latvia*

The agreement <sup>(114)</sup> with Latvia provides for the transit of emigrants from Soviet Russia and the Ukraine through Latvia on the following conditions. The Joint Committee will send to the Latvian Government lists of persons who are willing and able to emigrate, together with the guarantees of the necessary visas and affidavits. The Latvian consuls in Russia will then grant transit visas to these persons on presentation of the Russian or Ukrainian passport, a transit card, and a satisfactory medical certificate.

The emigrants are to travel as far as possible in groups. On arrival in Latvia they will be placed in quarantine and will then be handed over to the Joint Committee, which is responsible for the subsequent journey to the destination. They may not stay in Latvia longer than three months; at the end of that period the Joint Committee must give an explanation of any delay and the emigrants will then either be sent back to their place of origin or allowed to remain in Latvia for a further specified period of time.

To cover the cost of the quarantine, etc. the committee will pay the Latvian Government a lump sum of 1,000 Latvian roubles per adult and 300 Latvian roubles per child under 12, and, in addition, 100 roubles daily for each emigrant during the period of quarantine. The Joint Committee, moreover, has to pay a deposit of 500,000 roubles to the Latvian Government as a guarantee that it will duly adhere to the agreement.

The agreement is to remain in force for twelve months from the date of signature (17 August 1922) and will then lapse unless formal notice of renewal is given.

### *Russia*

The main principles of the agreements <sup>(115)</sup> between the Joint Committee and the *Narkomnat* and *Idgeskom* are as follows. The Soviet Government undertakes to issue passports to emigrants valid for any country of immigration. Proof must, however, be given that the visa of the country of immigration is assured; otherwise no passport will be issued. Moreover all persons between 17 and 55 years of age must obtain special permission to emigrate from the Soviet Government.

The Joint Committee undertakes to send lists of persons for whom a transit visa has already been guaranteed and for whom money for travelling expenses is available to the Emigration Office in Russia, which is under the direction of a delegate of the Jewish Section of the *Narkomnat*, a delegate of the *Idgeskom*, and a Director. This Office will consist of 40 persons, of whom 8 or 9 will be in Moscow, 5 or 6 in Charkow, and 25 elsewhere in Russia <sup>(116)</sup>. The Joint Committee will send \$75 per emigrant to cover the cost of the journey to the

<sup>(114)</sup> Agreement of 17 August 1922 between Latvia and the Joint Committee for Jewish Emigration.

<sup>(115)</sup> Agreements signed by the Joint Committee for Jewish Emigration with the Russian People's Commissariat for Minority Nationalities, 2 June 1922, and with the Jewish Committee for Social Welfare in Russia, 6 October 1922. Cf. *Der Emigrante*, loc. cit.

<sup>(116)</sup> The Office has undertaken to provide a "Home" in Moscow in which emigrants can stay while waiting for their passports and visas.

Russian frontier, the passport, and food and lodging in Moscow, etc. : 5 per cent. of this will be deducted for administrative expenses and the remainder will be given to the emigrant.

The *Idgeskom* will have representatives in the transit countries and the Joint Committee will have representatives in Moscow, Charkow, and Odessa. This agreement was to remain in force for three months, after which representatives of the two organisations were to meet to consider the situation. All Jewish persons in Russia who desire to get into touch with relatives in countries of immigration can do so through the *Idgeskom* and the Joint Committee and the latter undertakes to make the necessary enquiries and to do its best to obtain the necessary documents, such as affidavits, etc.

During the first four months of the existence of the above mentioned Emigration Office, 7,860 persons applied for passports to the United States, all of whom had relatives in that country willing to assist them. Their occupations were as follows :

Tradespeople	5,655
Manual workers	431
No occupation	1,265
Persons maintained out of public funds	509
<hr/>	
Total	7,860

### *Roumania*

According to the most recent figures of the Federation of Ukrainian Jews in London, there are approximately 15,000 Jewish refugees in Roumania. Of these about 75 per cent. wish to emigrate, 10 per cent. are incapable of working, and 15 per cent. wish to remain where they are for the present. Many of those wishing to emigrate have all the necessary papers in order, but lack the means to travel. This is due to the fact that, on the one hand, the Joint Distribution Committee, whose function it is to give pecuniary assistance to refugees in re-establishing themselves, is not at present in a position to meet the demands of the refugees, and, on the other, that the Jews already in the United States who in the previous year had sent considerable sums of money to the refugees have this year sent hardly anything.

### *Poland*

Emigrants passing through Poland are not allowed to remain in Warsaw after they have obtained a visa from the United States consul, and hitherto Jewish emigrants from Poland have been sent to Volomine to await departure overseas. The Polish authorities, however, no longer send emigrants there and an arrangement has been arrived at between them and the Central Ukrainian Committee by which they are now sent to Astrov, where a "Home" has been prepared for them by the Committee.

The United States consul at Warsaw states that he will probably be able to grant visas for the year commencing 1 July 1923 to about 10,000 Russian emigrants. These visas will be granted on the following dates :

- (1) for wives going to join their husbands, in June 1923 ;
- (2) for parents going to join their children, in July 1923 ;
- (3) for more distant relatives, in September 1923.

Notices have already been sent to applicants who will be entitled to visas during 1923-1924, some of whom have to present themselves to the consul as late as December 1923.

*United States**Employers' and Workesr' Views on the Three Per Cent. Act*

The Washington correspondent of the *Iron Trade Review* contributes an article on the present situation in the United States as regards immigration<sup>(117)</sup>. The question will be raised in Congress this year, he says, by the proposal of the Chairman of the Immigration Committee of the House of Representatives to cut down the percentage to two, or possibly one and a half. The iron and steel industry is expected to ask as a minimum that the three per cent. be made net, i.e. in addition to the legal number of persons admissible under the present Act, one alien should be permitted to enter for every departing emigrant. The maximum demand will be for an increase in the percentage itself. The main argument adduced is that in the year ending 30 June 1922 there was a net immigration of 110,844 persons, of whom only 6,518 were men. It is pointed out that Judge Gary, at a meeting of the American Iron and Steel Institute, and President Grace of the Bethlehem Steel Corporation have made strong appeals in favour of admitting more unskilled labour and that the Chamber of Commerce of the United States is examining the situation exhaustively<sup>(118)</sup>.

The National Founders' Association at its annual convention, held on 22 and 23 November 1922 at New York, passed a resolution on immigration embodying the following recommendations :

(1) that the present unguided and unscientific handling of the alien should be replaced by a definite policy of immigration ;

(2) that the requirements for admission to the United States should be different from those for naturalisation, and effective tests to this end should be applied to the alien, so far as practical, at the point where his passport is visad, or at the port of embarkation ;

(3) that the Federal Government should control and supervise the distribution of the immigrants, and give information on the national economic needs and opportunities, obtained through systematic official and private co-operation, State and Federal ;

(4) that a working knowledge of the English language and a practical understanding of the United States form of government should be a pre-requisite to naturalisation, and the bestowal of citizenship should be accompanied by formalities that emphasise its privileges and responsibilities ;

(5) that Congress be urged to take immediate action to enlarge the labour supply while protecting the quality of the citizenship of the United States<sup>(119)</sup>.

The Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, at its meeting on 7 December 1922, approved the report on immigration presented by the executive committee. This report recommends examination of prospective immigrants before departure from their country of origin,

<sup>(117)</sup> E. C. BOERINGER : *Immigration Issue Stirs Nation*, in the *Iron Trade Review*, 16 Nov. 1922. Cleveland, Ohio.

<sup>(118)</sup> An earlier article in the same review was analysed in the *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 752.

<sup>(119)</sup> *The Iron Age*, 30 Nov. 1922. New York.

and says that tests of fitness to enter the United States should be prescribed in greater detail and with more scientific precision than in the past. It is opposed to unregulated immigration and it agrees with the view that the Three per Cent. Act, while far from ideal, has, nevertheless, rendered great service to the country <sup>(120)</sup>.

The annual convention of the American Legion, which was held at New Orleans from 16 to 20 October 1922, passed a number of resolutions dealing with immigration. One of these was in favour of legislation, and if necessary the negotiation of treaties, to exclude permanently from the United States all persons ineligible for citizenship. Another recommended that Congress immediately suspend all immigration for such a period as would enable the formulation of a definite and constructive plan for the protection of the country from the admission of undesirable immigrants, who were a menace to American ideals and institutions. The convention demanded the enforcement of the Three per Cent. Immigration Act in the meanwhile, and condemned the practice which had permitted thousands of immigrants in excess of quotas to be admitted to the country. A recommendation was adopted in favour of the proper distribution of immigrants in different parts of the country in order to prevent undue concentration of unskilled labourers in manufacturing districts. A demand was also put forward for the strict enforcement of all laws for the deportation of aliens found undesirable as citizens or otherwise deserving of deportation. Exceptions were made to the policy of rigid exclusion of immigration for American veterans of foreign birth who stayed in Europe or returned there after the war, and now wish to re-enter the United States, and foreign relatives of American ex-Service men <sup>(121)</sup>.

The attitude of labour is shown in an article published by the official journal of the American Federation of Labour. This article urges the maintenance, and even the strengthening, of the present immigration restrictions <sup>(122)</sup>. It is claimed that the percentage could be reduced to two per cent. without affecting the class of immigrants from which the best citizens are obtained, namely, those from northern and western Europe. It is claimed that the latter are the most intelligent immigrants, according to the statistics of the men of foreign birth who joined the army during the war. The statement of employers in the steel, coal, and textile industries to the effect that there is a shortage of unskilled labour is attributed to a desire to secure cheap labour. On the other hand, the fact that there was a net immigration of not more than 110,844 aliens of every occupation in the year ending 30 June 1922, with an actual net emigration of 67,332 unskilled labourers, tends to indicate that the wages of the unskilled workers are low, and therefore unlikely to constitute an incentive to immigration. Immigration, it is stated, has been too great for assimilation, especially of the mass of immigrants from southern and eastern Europe; more time is required for that. Moreover, restricted immigration reduces the number of strike breakers, and will make it easier to promote the organisation of the workers.

<sup>(120)</sup> *Chamber of Commerce*, 8 Dec. 1922. New York.

<sup>(121)</sup> *American Legion Weekly*, 10 and 17 Nov. 1922. New York.

<sup>(122)</sup> Oliver HOYEN : *Immigration and America's Safety*, in the *American Federationist*, Nov. 1922. Washington.

*Citizenship Classes in the United States (123)*

The Bureau of Naturalisation has issued a report for the year ending 30 June 1922 dealing with classes organised in public schools in conjunction with the Bureau to teach foreigners citizenship responsibilities and the English language. The total number attending classes was 260,290 (144,573 men, 78,570 women, 30,147 sex not reported), compared with 155,255 in the previous year. These students represented 100 different nationalities, the principal being Italians (37,142), Russians (25,718), Poles (24,357), Mexicans (9,265), Austrians (8,930), Hungarians (8,570), Czechoslovaks (6,885), Germans (6,571), Greeks (5,486), Jugoslavs (4,296), Swedes (3,671), Roumanians (3,421), Spaniards (3,199). In this classification there were also included 27,594 naturalised or native-born citizens of the United States.

The following is a classification, according to age, of 95,282 students, particulars for the remainder not being reported.

	Men	Women
Under 21 years	14,890	10,621
21 to 30 years	28,990	12,115
31 to 50 years	18,371	8,161
51 to 60 years	1,293	425
Above 60 years	335	81
Total	63,879	31,403

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(123) Communicated by the United States Bureau of Naturalisation, 9 Nov. 1922.

# INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

## Rag Sorting and Shredding

**I**N August 1922 the Federal Factory Inspector for the First District in Switzerland approached the International Labour Office asking for information as to the danger to which women workers were exposed in the processes of rag sorting and shredding in paper factories or in factories which sort and shred rags for the paper manufacturing trade. On behalf of his Department he asked for communication of any information as to these processes in other countries and as to means taken to avert the risks involved, stating at the same time that in his opinion the usual exhaust system for the removal of dust did not provide adequate protection.

The International Labour Office consulted some of the members<sup>(1)</sup> of the Advisory Committee on Industrial Hygiene of the International Labour Organisation, which is an international committee of medical and hygiene experts appointed in 1921 to advise on questions of industrial hygiene and industrial disease. A report was drawn up by the Industrial Hygiene Service of the Labour Office on the basis of the information received, and the main features of this report, supplemented from medical literature on the subject, have been summarised to form the present article.

### PROCESSES INVOLVED

Rag picking, sorting, and shredding are old-established occupations, in which the majority of the persons employed are women. Most of the publications on industrial hygiene which deal with the subject really treat only of rag sorting, and it must be admitted that the distinction between the terms is not always easy to make. Rag picking is strictly speaking merely the preliminary process of collecting the rags from house to house or from the accumulated contents of dust-bins. As soon as collected the processes of sorting begin, and continue, the rags passing through a great number of hands, until they have been so completely sorted that they can be shredded. From the shredded rags either paper (from linen shreds) or shoddy and mungo (from woollen shreds) is manufactured<sup>(2)</sup>.

Occupational risk appears as soon as the rags begin to be handled in detail, and is the same throughout, arising from the uncleaned state

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(1) The following were consulted and supplied information: for Germany, Dr. Leymann; for Belgium, Dr. Glibert; for France, Mr. Boulín; for Great Britain, Dr. Legge; for Italy, Professor Loriga; for the Netherlands, Dr. Kranenburg. An answer had not been received up to the date of publication from Dr. Alice Hamilton for the United States. For purposes of comparison with the French edition of the *Review*, countries throughout this article are mentioned in French alphabetical order.

(2) CORRADI: *Del commercio degli stracci e della sua influenza sulla salute pubblica*, in *Giorn. R. Società d'Igiene*, 1888, Nos. 11-12. Milan.

of the rags, and from the dust which they hold. As the process of sorting, i.e. handling, begins even with the so-called rag-picker and continues through all stages until it passes into the final process of shredding, which is itself no more hygienic than sorting, whatever risk there is is pretty well continuous throughout the trade.

### *Rag Picking*

The rag picker goes through household refuse and picks out all articles which have any commercial value. Some rag pickers go round in the early hours of the morning and collect rags and other refuse from the dust-bins which have been placed in the street for the collection of refuse. Other, however, call at houses and buy unwanted objects of all kinds. As this is not a regular occupation, the latter class of rag picker is generally at the same time a dealer in rabbit skins, a sweep, or a pedlar. The rags are taken to a rag picker's home or to a dépôt used by several rag pickers, where they are sorted. The operation of sorting consists in dividing each object according to the commercial value of the various materials of which it is composed, so that each kind of material can be classified separately. The principal materials distinguished are rags (wool, cotton, silk, linen, etc.), bones, scraps of metal, etc. The rags are then sold to rag dealers who act as middlemen and re-sell the goods to wholesale dealers. The rag dealers again sort the rags and classify them carefully before selling them to the wholesale dealers, who very often store them in bales for several years.

The wholesale rag dealers have large establishments and often employ a large staff, who once more sort and clean the rags. The various kinds of material, e.g. woollen rags, cloth, merino, knitted goods, etc. are dealt with in separate rooms<sup>(3)</sup>. The rags are sorted on wired tables so that nearly all the dust still adhering to them can be removed.

When the bales are ready, they are sent to the paper, cardboard, glue, and bone-black factories.

According to the statements of Wurtz and de Lauradour<sup>(4)</sup>, the

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<sup>(3)</sup> A list of classes of rags is as follows.

<i>Classes of Rags for Paper Making</i>			
New rags	13 kinds	Paper for paper manu-	
Old rags	44 "	facture	26 kinds
<i>Classes of Woollen Rags for Shoddy, etc.</i>			
New merino	6 kinds	Stockings, scarves and knit-	
Old merino	11 "	ted goods	36 kinds
Woollen materials	8 "	Cloth	20 "
Serge, blanketing and frieze	13 "	White woollen goods	17 "
Cotton warp goods	12 "	Rags for polishing	3 "
Silk	4 "	Bones for chemical industry	1 "
Waste for the manufacture		Bones for bone articles	4 "
of fertilisers	4 "	Broken glass	15 "

This list was drawn up in consequence of an enquiry carried out by the French Office du Travail in 1903. See MINISTÈRE DU COMMERCE, ETC ; OFFICE DU TRAVAIL : *L'Industrie du Chiffon à Paris*, p. 110. By Ch. BARRAT. Paris, impr. nat. 1903.

<sup>(4)</sup> WURTZ and DE LAURADOUR : *Le Chiffonage à Paris et dans la banlieue en 1916*, in *Rev. d'Hyg.*, 1916, p. 409. Paris.

striking description of the rag pickers' quarters given by Transon and Dublanc is still correct at the present time. It is sufficient to read the description which the former give of the Parisian suburb of Saint-Ouen : the water supply is insufficient, there are no sewage arrangements, children and animals are crowded together and there is a complete absence of personal cleanliness, as must be expected when work is carried on among so much dirt. Workers in the Paris rag-picking industry are so strongly opposed to hygiene regulations that, if in any district an attempt is made to apply such regulations to their occupation, they generally remove to some other place. The most that the public authorities have so far been able to accomplish is to have some of the rag dépôts and rag pickers' quarters removed from the central parts of the town.

Whether the rag picker's occupation as such, as distinct from rag sorting and shredding, is deleterious to the health of the worker is an open question, as also whether there is any risk for the population living in the near neighbourhood of rag pickers' quarters ; complaint is invariably made of the smells which arise from such quarters and from refuse dépôts. As already stated above, risk is of two kinds, risk of infection and risk arising from dust. An attempt is made in the next section of this article to record enquiries which have been made in various countries on the subject. The analysis shows that there is not a great deal of precise evidence. We are thrown back to some extent upon opinion, which differs from one investigator to another. Barrat<sup>(5)</sup> and Giglioli<sup>(6)</sup> state that statistics collected in enquiries into health conditions of rag pickers do not show either a greater or a smaller incidence of infectious disease among these workers than among other workers. Blaise<sup>(7)</sup>, on the other hand, states that, "although doubt was at one time thrown on the existence of the danger, this is no longer possible at the present time [1894], as it has now been indisputably established by scientific evidence". Wurtz and de Lauradour<sup>(8)</sup> consider that, although the lack of cleanliness in the rag pickers' quarters is not likely to affect the health of the rest of the population, it must often expose the pickers themselves to auto-infection, especially owing to the dirty state of their hands. These authors declare that "nothing has yet been done to assist these workers, who have been entirely overlooked by sanitary legislation, to maintain cleanly conditions" and that it is urgently necessary to "draw the attention of the government and the municipal authorities to the almost incredible neglect which has prevailed".

In theory it would appear that rag pickers must be liable to contract infectious disease and diseases which are due to parasites. More recently, however, this opinion has been contested, and it is held that the danger of contagion, though present, has been exaggerated. Progress in sanitary measures and the increasing adoption of disinfection processes must obviously lessen risk. They cannot, however, wholly eliminate it ; household refuse even at the present time may contain fresh bones from animals which have been slaughtered in illicit slaughter-houses. or bandages and cotton-wool soiled with pus, saliva, or excrement which have not been disinfected.

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(5) See Note (3).

(6) Ramazzini, 1914.

(7) BLAISE ; *Les Entrepôts de chiffons au point de vue de l'hygiène et de leur suppression dans les centres urbains*, in *Rev. d'hyg.*, 1894, p. 473. Paris.

(8) Op. cit.



Then there is the danger of tuberculosis. It will be shown below that the rag picker's occupation is particularly exposed to this risk.

The following figures, collected by Wurtz and de Lauradour, are perhaps useful. The number of deaths from infectious diseases in premises occupied by rag pickers in Paris during the twenty years from 1 January 1895 to 31 December 1914 was 350 among the 1,329 persons covered by the enquiry; this number included 266 deaths from tuberculosis, and 84 from other infectious diseases. This represents a death rate of 13.17 per thousand per annum for all infectious diseases, and of 10.00 per thousand per annum for tuberculosis. But the figures for the population as a whole show that over the same period the death rate from infectious diseases was only 5.00 per thousand per annum, and from tuberculosis only 3.95 per thousand per annum.

### *Rag Sorting and Shredding*

In general a rough distinction can be drawn between the rag picker's trade carried on in the street or in his home and the rag sorting and shredding which is done at a factory or dépôt where rags are treated for industrial use.

The rags arrive at the factory in bales. The bales are opened and the rags are generally placed in thrashing machines, such as the Voith machine<sup>(9)</sup>. This operation, of course, liberates a considerable quantity of dust, the amount of which varies with the quality and cleanliness of the goods. The rags are then placed on a revolving cloth moving intermittently, which takes them over two small cylinders into closed vessels containing spikes. The heavier waste matter falls and the light dust is drawn by a ventilator into the dust-collector. The dust which is collected is used for making cardboard or for the manufacture of fertilisers.

The rags are then sent to the sorting and shredding room. This work is done by women, each of whom is given, in the morning, a sufficient amount for the day's or half-day's work. In many cases, rags are sorted in the large rag dépôts, but the operation is also frequently carried out in connection with shredding in a branch of the paper factory which purchases its rags direct and not through a wholesale dealer.

The work of sorting consists in tearing up the rags, classifying them in grades according to their material (linen, cotton, wool, etc.), colour, or thickness, and removing all buttons, buckles, and hooks, if they are not made of animal or vegetable fibre. The work is carried on simultaneously with the operation of shredding. The latter operation consists in dividing into strips cotton or linen rags which subsequently go through the cutting and the willowing machines, and are then boiled.

In former times, the principal danger arose from handling white rags, which were used for the manufacture of high-grade paper. At the present time white rags from hospitals are disinfected and boiled before they are sent to the works. Rags obtained in the ordinary way, however, only receive a certain preliminary treatment to remove the dust, and, although the practice of disinfection is undoubtedly becoming more common even among private persons, bandages are still too often thrown into dust-bins without disinfection.

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<sup>(9)</sup> FROIS : *Captage, évacuation et utilisation des poussières industrielles*. Paris, 1908.

The worker engaged in shredding rags stands in front of a knife blade firmly fixed to a bench and has beside her a number of boxes into which she places the rags after she has shredded them, classifying them according to material, quality, and cloth. She holds the rag with both hands, and cuts it up by drawing it across the knife-blade, while, at the same time, she removes the buttons, buckles, etc.

A certain amount of dust remains in the rags although they have been previously thrashed, and this dust is liberated by the operation of shredding and flies up round the worker. If the rags have not been dusted an immense amount of dust rises round the knife-blade and round the hands of the worker, who draws the two pieces of rag towards her after cutting. The heavy dust falls to the ground, while the light dust rises round the worker's head and the upper part of her body <sup>(10)</sup>.

Rag-shredding rooms are well known to be unhealthy in many respects. The amount of dust liberated is enormous. The atmosphere in rag-shredding rooms is full of thick, clinging, and evil-smelling dust, which settles thickly on the walls, the floors, the furniture, and the workers' clothes. At all times of the year, but particularly in summer, dust settles on the hands and faces of the sorters, and combines with their perspiration to form a sort of paste. The workers generally cough a great deal, but this ceases as soon as they leave the place of work. Clouds of dust <sup>(11)</sup> rise into the air, even when rags are simply sorted, but still more dust is caused by the work of shredding or tearing rags, removing buttons, etc. In some work-rooms the dust is so thick that the workers cannot breathe unless they tie a cloth or sponge in front of their mouths and noses.

The amount of dust produced varies very considerably according to the nature of the rags. Old clothes produce an immense amount of dust, while new scraps from the dressmaking and clothing industry cause very much less. There is also a considerable difference in the nature of the dust. Rags of the kind mentioned are not liable to cause eruptions on the skin, as may happen with the dust from linen rags for paper factories and new woollen waste for the manufacture of shoddy. Rags are obtained from the most varied sources and may have been used for a large number of purposes. The dust which arises from them may contain mineral elements such as sand and glass, vegetable fibre (cotton, flax, wood, etc.), animal fibre (wood, hair, etc.), and living bodies, such as bacteria and mildew, which may cause putrefaction or more rarely disease (smallpox, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, diphtheria, erysipelas, and occasionally plague, cholera, etc.) or parasitic diseases.

A third feature is the quality of the dust. It is well known that hard particles of dust with sharp edges which easily cause injury act more rapidly and are more injurious than soft absorbent particles of dust. Dust from rags is generally considered less injurious than other kinds in this respect, as it consists for the most part of light absorbent particles rather than mineral particles.

Of these three features — the infectious nature of the dust, its

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<sup>(10)</sup> GALINOU. *La ventilation des défilsoirs de chiffons dans les papeteries de la Charente*, in *Bulletin de l'inspection du travail*, Paris, 1904, Nos. 5-6, p. 512.

<sup>(11)</sup> Reply of Dr. Leymann, Ministerial Councillor and German member of the Advisory Committee on Industrial Hygiene, to the enquiries put by the International Labour Office.

quality (hardness etc.), and its quantity — the one which gives rise to the principal risk in the rag sorting and shredding trade is beyond doubt the last. The principal aim of sanitary measures should be to prevent excessive quantity of dust. The possibility of contracting infectious disease is far less important, although at first sight such diseases liable to have a fatal termination might appear the greater danger.

The system is protected from dusty disease by the natural means of defence of the respiratory system, namely, the ciliated epithelium and the involuntary movements which cause coughing and sneezing and thus eliminate the particles of dust. If, however, dust is present in excessive quantities, it gives rise to ordinary catarrh, which is easily cured when the patient ceases to breathe dust, but which gradually develops into chronic catarrh if the patient continues to engage in a dusty occupation. Chronic catarrh damages the respiratory organs in such a way that they are unable to resist certain diseases such as tuberculosis and pneumonia.

The principal infectious diseases liable to be contracted are smallpox, anthrax, and erysipelas. The disease which used to be known as "rag sorters' disease" and which often proved fatal has been shown by bacteriological examination to have been anthrax. Industrial disease statistics appear to show, however, that at the present time cases of anthrax in the rag industry are rare. Some other infectious diseases are also infrequent, as their germs lose their vitality by dessication if the bales of rags are stored for a long time without being opened. The bacteria of anthrax, tetanus, and erysipelas, however, are able to spore and may thus retain their vitality for years.

General factory conditions naturally have an important bearing on disease frequency. Contrary to what might have been supposed, medical inspectors of factories state that this occupation has given them much less trouble than they expected. The installation of exhaust apparatus on each dusting machine and the sorting and shredding tables has given most satisfactory results, and has reduced the danger which previously existed to a minimum.

#### INVESTIGATIONS AND RECORDS

The history of investigations into the trade, which is a very old one, goes back a long way. There is, however, a great lack of precise information. In recent years very little enquiry has been undertaken, as other and more important manufacturing processes have tended to absorb the attention of industrial experts. We give below a brief record of what has been done in some of the principal countries of Europe and the United States.

##### Germany

In 1877 Ordtmann<sup>(12)</sup> pointed out the influence of the rag trade and the handling of wool from Buenos Aires on the spread of smallpox in Germany, in connection with the smallpox epidemics of 1869-1874. In 1880 there was an epidemic of smallpox among rag sorters in Abenheim in Hesse, which was caused by rags imported from Marseilles, where there was a serious epidemic<sup>(13)</sup>. In 1897 Filkenburg<sup>(14)</sup> mentioned

<sup>(12)</sup> Apud BLAISE, op. cit.

<sup>(13)</sup> POUCHET: *La Désinfection des chiffons*, in *Rev. d'hyg.*, 1885. Paris

<sup>(14)</sup> *Rev. d'Hyg.*, 1880. Paris.

the fact that rag sorters had been known to contract erysipelas from rags, at the same time stating that smallpox and anthrax constituted more serious dangers.

In 1884 a statistical enquiry was made into health conditions in the Saxony paper factories<sup>(15)</sup>; the comparative prevalence of disease among rag sorters and other workers in these factories for the year was stated to be as follows. Only disease involving absence from work is recorded.

COMPARATIVE FREQUENCY OF DISEASE AMONG RAG SORTERS AND OTHER WORKERS  
IN SAXONY PAPER FACTORIES IN 1884

Class of worker	Frequency of disease		
	Number of cases of all diseases per 1,000 workers	Percentage of cases of all diseases due to respiratory trouble, namely	
		bronchial catarrh	pneumonia
Rag sorters <sup>(1)</sup>	127.2	74.1	21.9
Other workers <sup>(2)</sup>	70.4	30.6	8.3

(<sup>1</sup>) 1,187 workers examined.

(<sup>2</sup>) 3,297 workers examined.

The above figures show not only that the general frequency of disease was very much higher among the rag sorters than among the other workers in the same factories, but also that this higher disease rate was overwhelmingly due to respiratory trouble<sup>(16)</sup>.

A more general enquiry carried out at the suggestion of the German Paper Manufacturers' Association in the next year, 1885, showed that the percentage of morbidity from disease of the respiratory organs among rag sorters was 16 per cent. and their general morbidity rate 45.3 per cent., while the respective figures for other workers in the same paper factories were only 10.7 per cent. and 30.3 per cent. It is, however, extremely difficult to obtain statistics of morbidity for the workers in this industry, as was later pointed out by Merkel in the work of Pettenkofer and Ziemssen<sup>(17)</sup>. According to Merkel, Soyka stated that the average frequency of sickness per person among rag sorters was 1.8 per year, i.e. on an average each rag sorter was ill more than once a year, or, very roughly, twice in the course of sixteen to eighteen months. This was a higher percentage than that among other workers in the paper industry, where the rate was 1.1. The death rate among rag sorters was also higher; it stood at 2.3 for every 100 workers employed while among the general workers in the rag trade it stood only at 1.7. It is, however, difficult to estimate the value of these figures. Bleicher

(<sup>15</sup>) Note by Dr. Renk attached to Dr. Leymann's reply; see Note (11).

(<sup>16</sup>) The year in which the returns were made (1884) was that in which the sickness insurance system was instituted. If the returns had been made later the absolute figures of illnesses would certainly have been higher, and the same would probably have applied to the difference between the figures for the two groups, as the workers have since learnt to take fuller advantage of the medical treatment provided by law than in the years when the system was first introduced.

(<sup>17</sup>) MERKEL: *Staubinhalationskrankheiten* in v. PETTENKOFER and v. ZIEMSEN: *Handbuch d. Hygiene u. der Gewerbekrankheiten*, Part II. 4, 1892.

(1900) <sup>(18)</sup> attributed the difficulty to the small number of permanent establishments, the impossibility of obtaining reliable general estimates, the frequent change of occupation among the workers and the extremely various ways in which their health is affected by the work.

Dreyfus in Weyl's treatise on industrial diseases <sup>(19)</sup> contributes a chapter on the subject. His figures, however, only cover sixty workers employed in a rag-sorting workshop in the country during a period of seven years ; 7 per cent. per year of the workers suffered from injuries to the skin and 35.5 per cent. from other diseases, giving a total of 42.5 per cent. per year ; 164 cases of illness included 6 cases of tuberculosis, 35 cases of other diseases of the respiratory system, and 10 cases of chlorosis. Dreyfus mentions the numerous kinds of bacteria which are liable to be transported by means of rags and discusses the danger of wounds, and indirectly of infection, which may arise from objects such as scraps of metal, buckles, and buttons. He then proceeds to deal with methods of disinfection and with means of protecting workers from dust and infection.

Roth <sup>(20)</sup>, in his treatise on industrial diseases, states that in 1903 cases of disease of the lungs among women employed in rag sorting were reported from the Palatinate and that there had been cases of smallpox and tetanus among workers in the paper industry.

Bender <sup>(21)</sup>, dealing with the Düren district in 1906, took as a base for his figures the prevalence of lung disease among the general population ; he found that for each case of lung disease among the general population there were 1.3 cases of such disease among the rag sorters. Again, while for each case of lung disease among the general population there were 0.085 cases of other infectious diseases among them, there were as much as 0.27 cases of such infectious diseases among the rag sorters ; finally, while for each case of lung disease among the general population there were 2.7 cases of all types of disease among them, there were 5.5 cases of all diseases among the rag sorters.

The Baden Factory Inspectors stated that in 1913 the doctors reported several cases of bronchitis and a certain number of cases of conjunctivitis among rag sorters working out of doors, but that their figures were by no means complete.

Wittingen writing in 1915 gave a detailed account of health conditions among women employed in rag-sorting rooms in Hanover <sup>(22)</sup>. He pointed out that the disagreeable nature of the occupation and the danger of infection which it involves demand a degree of endurance and physical strength required by few other trades. With modern methods the worst of the dirt is removed by mechanical means, but even now a very large quantity of dust is produced in the operations of sorting and shredding. Wittingen considered that where mechanical means are employed they are a sufficient protection, as the state of health of the workers in such undertakings was normal. He

<sup>(18)</sup> BLEICHER : *Beiträge zur Statistik d. Stadt Frankfurt a/M.* N. F., No. 4, 1900. Frankfurt. These statistics, which at that time represented a valuable contribution to the statistics of industrial disease, unfortunately do not give figures for the rag trade.

<sup>(19)</sup> WEYL : *Handbuch d. Arbeiterkrankheiten*. Jena, 1907. The date at which the seven-year period began to run is not mentioned.

<sup>(20)</sup> ROTH : *Kompendium der Gewerbekrankheiten*, second edition, p. 177. Berlin, 1909.

<sup>(21)</sup> BENDER, in WEYL, *op. cit.*

<sup>(22)</sup> WITTINGEN : *Beiträge zu den Gesundheitsverhältnissen d. Arbeiterinnen in Lumpensortieranstalten*. *Zentralbl. f. Gew. Hyg.*, 1915, p. 245. Berlin.

thought it necessary, however, to make an enquiry in undertakings where exhaust ventilation had not yet been adopted. From an examination of the medical records of the local Hanover health insurance society, which cover the four largest rag-sorting workshops, Wittingen collected figures covering 1,602 persons (including an average of 267 workers per year). His figures cannot be compared either with those of a government enquiry into the rag trade undertaken by the Prussian Ministry of Trade and Commerce in 1894<sup>(23)</sup> which have not been published, or of the Leipzig Health Insurance Society, as the latter include a number of industries under one heading (hides and skins, hair, rags, and other waste products). Further details would be necessary in order to make comparison of those figures. It is, however, possible to say that, generally speaking, sanitary conditions in the rag trade in Leipzig were better than in Hanover, although in other occupations the Hanover figures for industrial disease are considerably below the average for the whole country.

The following figures are Wittingen's percentages per 1,000 women employed in the Hanover rag industry from 1907 to 1912. Only such disease as involved loss of working time or medical treatment was recorded.

Type of disease	Number of cases of disease	Number of days' illness.
Influenza	142	3,124
Pulmonary tuberculosis	26	1,634
Acute rheumatism	11	513
Diseases of the blood	51	1,195
Diseases of the skin	50	1,383
Rheumatism	110	2,379
Other diseases of the motor system	19	442
Diseases of the circulatory system	20	443
Diseases of the nervous system	28	616
Diseases of the ears	3	66
Diseases of the eyes	15	225
Pneumonia	7	254
Other diseases of the respiratory system	177	4,140
Diseases of the digestive system	137	2,375
Disturbances of menstruation and pregnancy	39	979
Diseases of the genito-urinary system	51	1,873
Other diseases	238	4,040
Total	1,124	25,681

Wittingen further states that, while the number of cases of sickness for the five years per 1,000 rag workers in Hanover was thus 1,124, it was only 589 per 1,000 for all workers on the books of the Hanover insurance society (630 per 1,000 over the same period for all workers on the books of the Leipzig society); the average duration of sickness, however, does not seem very different, being 23 days among rag sorters and 22.6 days among all workers of the Hanover society (23.4 days at Leipzig).

### Austria

In 1879 the doctors of Lower Austria observed an acute respiratory disease of unknown nature which affected women engaged in sorting white rags but not those who sorted coloured rags. To this disease they applied the name *Haderkrankheit* (rag sorters' disease). Fourteen

(23) See below, under *Legislation*.

deaths occurred in twelve months in a single factory at Glognitz, but no bacteriological examination was made <sup>(24)</sup>.

In 1887 Schultz, Krahmmhals, Hergraven, and Radecki made a report <sup>(25)</sup> on an epidemic among women engaged in rag sorting in an Austrian paper factory which caused seven deaths. Research showed that the disease was apparently an extremely serious one due to some germ closely resembling that responsible for malignant oedema. Other cases reported by Grube <sup>(26)</sup> recalled the well-known features of the Bradford wool sorters' disease. There can be no doubt that the cases in question were in reality cases of internal anthrax.

In 1901 the principal medical public authority in Austria wrote a paper <sup>(27)</sup> recommending the removal of dust from rags before sorting by means of an exhaust apparatus and the destruction of the dust by burning or by throwing on water. At the sorting table dust should be removed by a down draught. General sanitary measures should be applied to the factory premises and to the workers, and in no case should the trade be carried on in the homes of the workers. A description of model equipment for a rag-sorting room was given in an appendix.

In 1909 Rambousek <sup>(28)</sup> stated that the use of rags in the paper industry was decreasing.

## Belgium

In reply to enquiries made by the International Labour Office the Belgian Medical Factory Inspection Department states that from its point of view the work of rag sorting is not of special importance. It may, however, be worth while to give an account of some information collected by Dr. Glibert in 1902 <sup>(29)</sup>.

Dr. Glibert was not investigating the rag trade as such. His purpose was to enquire into the effect of conditions in the flax industry, which is now classed as unhealthy in Belgium. For purposes of comparison he required another trade where similar conditions prevailed, both similar trade conditions and similar home conditions. Such similar conditions he found in the rag trade. The rag workers lived under home conditions identical with those of the flax workers, and workers in the two trades were in many cases members of the same families. Further, rag sorting is in a large number of cases carried on in the same towns in which the flax industry flourishes. The trade conditions are also very largely similar.

For these purposes, therefore, an enquiry was made covering about 2,000 workers in the rag-sorting industry. This represented a large majority, though not the whole, of the men and women employed on rag sorting in Belgium. The industry is not for the most part carried on in large undertakings, but in a very considerable number of small dépôts, each of which employs only two or three workers. The conditions of a large factory are therefore absent, and the health conditions of the workers closely approach those of the general population.

<sup>(24)</sup> *Maladies des chiffons*, in *Ann. d'hyg. publ.*, 1879, p. 480. Paris.

<sup>(25)</sup> *Rev. d'hyg.*, 1887. Paris. Report made to the Riga Medical Association.

<sup>(26)</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>(27)</sup> *Oesterr. Sanitätsw.* 1901. Appendix to No. 49.

<sup>(28)</sup> *Gewerbehygiene*, Vienna, 1909.

<sup>(29)</sup> BELGIUM. MINISTÈRE DE L'INDUSTRIE, DU TRAVAIL ET DU RAVITAILLEMENT : *Filatures de lin*; report of an enquiry by Dr. D. GLIBERT. Brussels, 1902.

Rag sorting is an occupation in which most of the workers are women, the proportion being one man to 5.4 women. The number of young persons employed is small. The average age of all men and women workers actually working is together 24 years 1 month 4 days, the average for women being 23 years 20 days and that for men 33 years. The average age for entering the industry is also higher for men than for women (though a large number of women take up the work late in life).

Owing to the disagreeable nature of the industry the workers mostly leave it after a comparatively short time. The average length of time spent in the industry is 6 years 9 months 6 days, being slightly higher for women than for men. A small class of persons engaged in independent businesses form an exception. A comparison with the flax industry shows that a larger number of women leave the rag trade after marriage than leave the flax trade, probably because of the disagreeable nature of the work, as has already been stated above. Rag sorting is not regarded as constituting a regular trade and is more frequently abandoned than is flax work for some other trade.

There is no special evidence to show that rag sorting is an unhealthy trade. Possibly the fairly high level of health conditions must be attributed in part to the fact that many of the workers enter the industry at a comparatively late stage in their lives. Or again, it may be that the trade is regarded as a bad one and therefore persons of delicate physique avoid it. Rag workers reach a high standard of general physical development, as their work requires considerable muscular strength. A comparison with the flax industry showed that the general state of health of workers in the rag trade was considerably above that of workers in the flax trade, even in the least unhealthy branches of that industry.

### United States

In 1875 the Lewis brothers reported the occurrence of cases of smallpox, measles, and other infectious diseases in a New York paper factory. They examined statistics referring to 23,170 rag sorters for a period of 25½ years. In 1887 C. F. Whittington<sup>(30)</sup> reported cases of infectious diseases such as measles, scarlet fever, and erysipelas in small rag works; but he did not find any cases in the large rag works of the United States. The workers in the paper industry were not found to be suffering from any diseases other than those due to inhaling dust, and their state of health was, as a general rule, fairly satisfactory. Whittington records that in a small works employing on an average 10 persons per year only one death occurred during a period of thirty years<sup>(31)</sup>.

More recently, in 1913-1914, an enquiry covering twenty paper factories was carried out in the State of Ohio<sup>(32)</sup>. The works in question employed 274 workers, including 203 men, on rag sorting. Most of the workers were over 40 years of age. The workers were generally unwilling to make any statement, but some complained of the evil effects of dust, of their working hours, and of unsanitary conditions. It was not possible to collect any figures of sickness among rag sorters either at the time of the enquiry or in previous years.

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<sup>(30)</sup> MASSACHUSETTS STATE BOARD OF HEALTH : *Transmission of Infectious Diseases through the Medium of Rags*. By C. F. WHITTINGTON. Boston. 1887.

<sup>(31)</sup> See *Scientific American Suppl.*, No. 10., 1876. New York.

<sup>(32)</sup> HAYHURST, E. R. : *Industrial Health Hazards and Occupation Diseases in Ohio*. 1915.



An enquiry <sup>(33)</sup> covering 9 paper factories, which employed 153 workers, including 128 women, showed that only 10 per cent. of the workers were under 20 years of age. All workers were unskilled and in at least half the factories in question did not remain long in this occupation. In the opinion of the investigator their state of health appeared somewhat poor. There was a great prevalence of symptoms obviously due to the irritation of the mucous membranes by dust.

Hoffman states <sup>(34)</sup> that subsequent enquiries carried out in the same industry gave similar results, though rag sorting involves a certain danger of infection, particularly by smallpox and anthrax, as is shown by the enquiry carried out at Holyoke, Massachusetts, yet except under abnormal conditions the occurrence of these diseases is extremely rare, and the principal danger is undoubtedly that arising from dust. No certain conclusions can, however, be drawn concerning morbidity and mortality among rag sorters, as the Holyoke figures do not distinguish between the various categories of workers employed in the paper industry.

Hoffman points out that, in general, no satisfactory statistics on this trade are available; he gives the following figures <sup>(35)</sup> of the distribution of deaths by age groups from respiratory diseases among 3,026 rag sorters (1,220 men and 1,806 women).

Age groups	Deaths from respiratory disease (per hundred workers)
14 to 15 years <sup>(1)</sup>	2.4
16 to 20    "	17.4
21 to 44    "	55.2
45 and over	24.5
	100.0

<sup>(1)</sup> There were seven workers between 40 and 43 years of age, among whom there were no deaths.

## France

The effect of the trade in rags and old clothes which had not been disinfected on the spread of smallpox and other infectious diseases was investigated in 1879 by Gibert <sup>(36)</sup>. This author also states that during an epidemic the district of Paris in which the largest number of rag sorters and old-clothes dealers lived had two or three times as many deaths from smallpox as other parts of the town. In 1885 Pouchet <sup>(37)</sup> reported four cases of infection among rag workers, and Blaise <sup>(38)</sup> quotes the following figures collected by Balestre of Nice for the years 1885-1887: 73 smallpox cases out of a total of 186 among the general population of Nice over the same period and 29 diphtheria cases out of a similar total of 109. More than one-third of the cases of measles which were notified occurred near rag dépôts.

<sup>(33)</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>(34)</sup> UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS: *Bulletin No. 79; Mortality from Consumption in Dusty Trades*, by Frederick L. HOFFMAN. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1908.

<sup>(35)</sup> *Id.* *Bulletin No. 231; Mortality from Respiratory Diseases in Dusty Trades*, by Frederick L. HOFFMAN. Washington, Government Printing Office. 1918.

<sup>(36)</sup> BERNARD in *Rev. d'hyg.* 1922, p. 510; *Recueil des travaux du Comité consultatif d'hyg. publ. de France*, 1892, Vol. XIII, p. 320. MARTIN, A.: *La Désinfection des chiffons*.

<sup>(37)</sup> POUCHET: *op. cit.*

<sup>(38)</sup> *Op. cit.*

In 1885 the Health Council for the Department of the Alpes Maritimes passed a resolution stating that in its opinion rag and bone dépôts ought to be placed in the first class of unhealthy works. In 1890 a report on the work of the health councils submitted to the Advisory Committee on Public Health (*Comité consultatif d'hygiène publique*) in 1890 stated that "strict regulations for the rag industry are necessary and action should be taken in this respect for the protection of public health".

A detailed report dealing with the economic and social aspect of the rag industry in Paris by C. Barrat<sup>(39)</sup> was published in 1903 by the *Office du Travail*, of which Mr. Arthur Fontaine is the Director. The conclusions of this report support the observations made by investigators in other countries that the rag-sorting trade is, contrary to expectation, not an unhealthy one.

This problem has always interested doctors in Paris. On 2 May 1916 the Academy of Medicine, after hearing a report by Wurtz, adopted the following resolution:

In the interests of public health rag sorting should be prohibited in Paris and the suburbs, either in court-yards or on the street. Household refuse should be dealt with exclusively in the municipal institutions for dust destruction and incineration. Dust-bins and dust-carts should be sealed. Dust should be removed in such a way that no dirt or dust can be scattered on the street or in the air<sup>(40)</sup>.

### Great Britain

At one time the rag industry in Great Britain was concentrated in the town of Batley, in Yorkshire, which was known as the "Rag Metropolis" because it dealt with rags from all over the world. An interesting description of the industry is given in an article by John A. E. Stuart, in Oliver's book<sup>(41)</sup> on dangerous occupations.

In 1876 B. W. Richardson<sup>(42)</sup> quoted figures given in an article published in 1859 by J. J. Murray, of Edinburgh, who had carried out an enquiry into conditions among Edinburgh rag sorters and other rag workers covering 23 paper factories which received rags from 23 Edinburgh rag dealers. The enquiry showed the remarkable fact that infectious disease was almost non-existent among the workers, who only complained of chronic cough and irritation of the throat owing to the inhalation of dust.

In 1882 Parsons<sup>(43)</sup> gave an account of a serious epidemic which had broken out during the preceding year in two paper works, and eight other epidemics which occurred between 1875 and 1881. The same author also drew attention to the possible influence of the manufacture of wool flock and the use of other kinds of woollen rags in the spreading of infectious diseases.

Three other epidemics also occurred in paper works during 1884<sup>(44)</sup>. Arlidge, in his book on dangerous trades<sup>(45)</sup>, points out that the

<sup>(39)</sup> See Note (3).

<sup>(40)</sup> WURTZ, op. cit.

<sup>(41)</sup> OLIVER. *Dangerous Trades*, pp. 614-617. London, 1902.

<sup>(42)</sup> *American Journal of Public Health*, Jan. 1859; Boston; quoted by Hoffman.

<sup>(43)</sup> *Rev. d'hyg.*, 1882. Paris. See also *Vierteljahrsch. d. öff. Gesundheitspft.*, 1888, suppl., p. 308.

<sup>(44)</sup> *Rev. d'hyg.*, 1887. Paris.

<sup>(45)</sup> ARLIDGE. *Diseases of Occupations*, p. 408, 1892; quoted in the Home Office Report (see Note (47)).

rag industry is a small trade and is carried on entirely by adults. He admits that the industry may endanger the health of the persons engaged in it, but only to a limited extent.

In 1885 the annual report of the Medical Officers of the Local Government Board<sup>(46)</sup> recommended the vaccination of workers, the extraction of dust before sorting, and that rags should be disinfected or cleaned, if possible, before the bales were opened.

A Dangerous Trades (Anthrax) Committee of the Home Office appointed in 1895 to enquire into conditions of work in trades where there is a danger of infection from anthrax published, in 1897, a report which includes a chapter on the rag industry. When this report was drawn up, the Public Health Act had already been in force twenty years; this Act prohibits the sale of rags which are liable to convey infection.

This report<sup>(47)</sup> states that outbreaks of smallpox have been of frequent occurrence among rag sorters. Some persons consider that workers among calico rags are exposed to more danger of infection than workers among woollen rags, because the former class of rags consist largely of articles which come into close contact with the body. Most cases of smallpox had occurred among sorters in paper factories, but some cases of this disease and some of typhus and other fevers had been recorded among rag sorters in other industries. There were, for example, two smallpox epidemics in 1871 and 1875 in some shoddy mills near Brimscombe, where the rags were not usually washed as they were in most of the mills of that neighbourhood. Dealing with its special subject of anthrax, the report stated that abroad, and particularly in Austria, anthrax had repeatedly broken out among rag sorters, but the disease did not appear to have occurred in Great Britain, even when foreign rags were being dealt with. Workers in rags, and especially those who are young or new to the work, were liable to attacks of flock fever, which is a disease evidently due to the inhalation of dust, the symptoms being those of severe bronchial catarrh, and which closely resembles a form of influenza. No other chronic forms of lung disease had been discovered.

In respect to possible sources of infection, it seemed impossible to say what germs of disease might or might not be contained in rags collected in Great Britain itself, and still greater uncertainty attended those imported from Oriental countries. The Committee felt unable to advise that the disinfection of rags before sorting should be made compulsory, but strongly recommended that, in larger establishments, sorting should be preceded by washing or machine-shaking.

The Committee recommended that the rag trade should be certified as dangerous<sup>(48)</sup>, and proposed that five rules should be imposed: (1) all rags, except those which are new, to be washed or machine-shaken before being used for any manufacturing purpose; (2) suitable washing conveniences to be provided for the workers; (3) no food to be taken into the sorting-rooms; (4) suitable means, mechanical or otherwise, to be adopted for minimising the production of dust and for carrying away and disposing of the dust or other impurities; (5) health

<sup>(46)</sup> GREAT BRITAIN, LOCAL GOVERNMENT BOARD: *Reports of the Medical Officers*, 1885 and 1886. London, H. M. Stationery Office.

<sup>(47)</sup> GREAT BRITAIN, HOME OFFICE; DANGEROUS TRADES (ANTHRAX) COMMITTEE: *Conditions of Work in Wool-Sorting and other Kindred Trades*, p. 35. C. 8506. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1897.

<sup>(48)</sup> At present it is not so certified.

registers to be kept, and periodical medical inspection of the workers to be carried out; premises used in this work to be licensed by the local authority.

In 1908 Oliver<sup>(49)</sup> once more pointed out the surprising fact that there was very little illness among workers in the rag-sorting industry. He emphasised the necessity of disinfecting hospital refuse before it was sent to rag dealers, and drew attention to the observations made by doctors at Batley, who stated that they had found workers who had long been employed in the rag industry to be suffering from bronchitis, to show signs of emphysema and stoppage of the ears, causing temporary deafness, and that they had observed a remarkable number of cases of blepharitis, and a characteristic form of acne, due to the action of the dust on the sebaceous glands.

### Italy

An enquiry undertaken in 1888 by Corradi<sup>(50)</sup> showed that rag workers did not suffer from any special diseases except those due to the dusty nature of their work. Corradi considered, however, that there was a possibility that bacilli with more power of resistance, such as those of smallpox and anthrax, might be diffused by means of rags.

A more recent enquiry by Giglioli<sup>(51)</sup> into the rag industry at Pontorme also showed that these workers are exposed to very little risk even if the industry is carried on at home, probably because in Italy the work is done in the open air. This author states a number of reasons why rag sorting is not so dangerous as it might appear at first sight. These include the general practice of disinfection, even by private persons, and the easy destruction of some disease germs by desiccation. In the opinion of Professor Loriga, the Principal Medical Factory Inspector<sup>(52)</sup>, the rag industry does not seriously endanger the health of the workers, and this view was confirmed by medical examination of the women employed in the sorting rooms. Professor Loriga did not find chronic respiratory diseases or chronic conjunctivitis even among women who had been employed for a long period. He observed some cases of injury to the fingers, but whitlow and phlegmon were not more common than among other workers.

It may reasonably be pointed out, in reference to such views, that neither the thrashing of rags nor the removal of dust by exhaust fans during sorting can be regarded as reliable methods of removing any germs which they may contain. The rags ought, therefore, to be disinfected either by liquid disinfectants or by steam applied under pressure. It would, however, be necessary to open the bales of rags if the disinfectants were to penetrate to the centre, and none of the suggestions for facilitating the disinfection process have given really satisfactory results. One difficulty is that the bales cannot be thoroughly dried after disinfection, and the rags are liable to rot or to be rendered useless for industrial purposes. It is certainly easier to dry rags which are not packed in bales. The technical difficulties, however, are so serious and the cost so high, especially if a chemical

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<sup>(49)</sup> OLIVER : *Diseases of Occupation*, pp. 260-262. London, 1908.

<sup>(50)</sup> See Note (2).

<sup>(51)</sup> Ramazzini, 1914.

<sup>(52)</sup> Reply to the enquiries of the International Labour Office by Prof. Loriga. See also LORIGA : *Igiene industriale Milano*, Milan Vallardi; PALADINO-BLANDINI : *L'Uso degli stracci nella fabbricazione dei tessuti*, in *Giorn. int. scienze med.*, 28 Feb. 1905.

process is used, while, on the other hand, the danger is so slight, that Professor Loriga finds himself unable to recommend the disinfection of rags.

### Netherlands

Several cases of smallpox were reported from paper factories in Maastricht. At a shoddy factory in Lemiers 25 workers out of a total of 45 contracted typhus. In some cases workers who have been slightly injured by objects found among the rags have died of tetanus.

At the Health Congress held at The Hague in 1884 Ruych reported 40 well authenticated cases of smallpox contracted in the rag industry in the years 1870 and 1871.

According to the reports of the Dutch Factory Inspectors for 1907 and 1908 many rag sorters suffer from diseases of the respiratory system and are predisposed to tuberculosis.

The inspectors state that in properly equipped workshops sanitary conditions are more satisfactory, but that even there adequate hygienic measures are not always taken.

### Switzerland

A United States investigator, Whittington<sup>(53)</sup>, writing in 1887 mentions the account given by Sonderegger, Biermer, and Zehnder of a small epidemic of cholera (17 cases with 11 deaths) which occurred in 1867 in a paper factory at Kriegstetter. This factory imported rags from Zurich, which is 100 kilometres distant and where a serious cholera epidemic was raging at the time.

Schuler and Burkhardt ascertained by an enquiry published in 1887 that the proportion of disease among rag sorters to disease among other workers in the paper industry was 1.6 to 1 for diseases of all kinds and 1.4 to 1 for diseases of the respiratory system.

The report of the Swiss Factory Inspectors for 1913 states that manufacturers objected to the removal of dust from rags by mechanical means because the rags lost 20 per cent. of their weight and the financial loss involved was excessive. The workers frequently complained of draughts from the exhaust fans and sometimes even stopped them.

The report for 1916-1917 points out that the tearing of old and frequently dirty rags by machinery is liable to be dangerous, because wounds might be caused by pieces of metal contained in the rags.

### LEGISLATION

The earliest sanitary measures prescribed by law were intended to prevent infection of the general population by germs from soiled rags. In Austria the Act of 28 June 1870 laid down that rags contaminated with infectious matter must be burnt. In Great Britain Section 126 of the Public Health Act (1875) imposed a penalty upon any person who "gives, lends, sells, transmits, or exposes without previous disinfection any bedding, clothing, rags, or other things which have been exposed to infection by any dangerous disorder". The first person who sold or otherwise disposed of the rags was made responsible, as he was aware that they were infected. The powers of the authorities were supplemented subsequently in the direction of enforcing notification of infectious diseases.

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(53) MASSACHUSETTS STATE BOARD OF HEALTH, *op. cit.*

A French Decree dated 27 May 1853 made it temporarily compulsory to disinfect imported rags. The Decree of 15 April 1883, issued in pursuance of Section 1 of an Act of 3 March 1882 on public health, made this measure permanent. Henceforward rags imported from overseas could only be brought into the country through a certain limited number of ports where there were stations in which unhealthy goods could be isolated or disinfected. A further French Decree of 1 October 1913 forbade the use of waste derived from hospitals.

In Italy a Circular of the Ministry of the Interior<sup>(54)</sup>, dated 15 March 1901, prohibited the use of rags and waste from hospitals in the clothing trade without previous disinfection. The Italian local authorities are also empowered to issue sanitary regulations.

In Great Britain the Anthrax Prevention Act of 1919<sup>(55)</sup> empowered the authorities, acting from time to time as necessary by Order-in-Council, to control the importation, and also to order the disinfection, of goods liable to be infected with anthrax; such goods to include rags.

The sorting of rubbish in the street was dealt with in Paris by two old Orders of the Prefecture of the Seine of 1883 and 1884, which either prohibited the practice or compelled the sorters to spread a cloth and replace in the dust-bins the rubbish not taken, prohibition of any sorting was made general for the whole country many years later under Regulations issued on 22 June 1904. However, in another ten years' time, on 19 January 1914, these Regulations were modified and sorting was allowed in the streets, though only between certain hours.

Rag dépôts are not classed by sanitary legislation among the undertakings most likely to endanger the health of the neighbourhood. They are, of course, in many ways objectionable and even dangerous. Unpleasant smells may arise from the stores of rags, especially as the dépôts are often used for the storage of bones, rabbit skins, and other organic matter in various stages of decay. There is also a danger of fire from the accumulation of waste paper and rags, which may be more or less greasy, and a danger of infection if the goods have not been washed or disinfected.

French legislation classifies rag dépôts and rag-sorting shops in the second class of insanitary undertakings if the amount stored is over twenty cubic metres, and in the third class if it is twenty cubic metres or under. These undertakings are regarded as objectionable on account of the bad smell and the danger of fire. Rag shredding is objectionable on account of the dust and the danger of fire, and is placed in the third class. The chemical treatment to which the rags are submitted does not fall within the scope of the present article.

The regulations to which the rag dépôts in France have to conform are as follows. They must, as far as possible, be away from the neighbourhood of houses, they must be well ventilated, all windows, etc. communicating with the street or neighbouring properties must be kept closed, rags must not be sorted or dried in the street, the floors of the store-rooms and work-shops must be watertight, bones and the skins of animals may not be stored without special permission, the store-rooms and workshops must have good natural light, and all artificial lights (even if not in the rooms themselves) must be surrounded by glass and wire-netting if electric light is not installed. All exposed wood must be covered with plaster. The premises must

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<sup>(54)</sup> No. 20, 900/14.

<sup>(55)</sup> INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, *Legislative Series* 1920, G. B. 12.

be frequently washed with plenty of water and with solutions of chloride of lime or formalin. There must be an abundant water supply for the cleaning of the dépôt and for use in case of fire. The rags must be stored in bales not more than three metres in height and two metres in length, separated by intervals of fifty centimetres, and different materials such as paper, rags, etc. must be stored separately.

Other authorities, such as those of Turin in 1907, have laid down that the walls of such premises must be covered with a waterproof wash or must be whitewashed, in which case a new coat must be given at least once a year. It is forbidden to store rags which are of an offensive nature or likely to rot or which come from places where infectious diseases have occurred. Rags must be transported in waterproof sacks and in special closed carts at fixed hours laid down by the local authorities.

There is also a certain amount of legislation protecting all workers in dusty trades or trades exposed to infection. An impulse to legislation, both that protecting the worker and that protecting the public, was given by the recommendations of two international health congresses. In 1880 the Brussels Health Congress proposed that regulations for work in rag-sorting establishments should be issued and that hospital refuse should be burnt. The Sixth International Conference on Hygiene and Demography held at Vienna in 1887 adopted the proposals contained in the reports of Messrs. Martin and Ruysch and emphasised the necessity of destroying rags and refuse from hospitals. The conference also proposed that rags should only be transported in disinfected covers and that the importation of rags from countries where epidemics were in progress or where the above-mentioned sanitary measures were not applied should be prohibited.

Legislation protecting the adult male worker is found in France, Germany, and Italy. In France the authorities took advantage of the clear and definite regulations laid down in Article 6 of the Decree of 10 March 1894, according to which dust must be removed as it is produced, to protect the rag worker<sup>(56)</sup>; in that same year the industrial inspectors ordered the paper manufacturers of Couze in the Dordogne, for instance, to conform to this regulation; a protest from the manufacturers to the Advisory Committee on Arts and Manufactures was disallowed<sup>(57)</sup>. In 1901 as a result of representations made by the rag sorters' trade union of Paris, conditions in the smaller rag-collecting dépôts in that city were regulated, with a view to averting danger both from fire and from infection, by Order of the Prefect of Police.

In Germany, in 1894, at the suggestion of the Labour Councillor of Königsberg, who submitted a report on the insanitary conditions and danger of infection in rag-sorting workshops, the Prussian Ministry of Trade and Commerce undertook an enquiry into the rag industry. In consequence of this enquiry, a Circular was issued incorporating the following sanitary regulations for the equipment and working of rag-sorting establishments<sup>(58)</sup>.

(1) Rag-sorting establishments may not be set up in premises which are damp or below the level of the soil or in premises used for the storage of

<sup>(56)</sup> GALINOU, *op. cit.*

<sup>(57)</sup> See also below, p. 400.

<sup>(58)</sup> Circular of the Prussian Minister of Trade and Commerce of 22 Dec. 1895 concerning rag-sorting workshops (B. 11165). Communicated to the International Labour Office.

stocks of rags or of animal matter which is liable to putrefy, e. g. bones. The rag-sorting workshops may not be used for the storage of a larger quantity of unsorted rags than are required for the day's work.

(2) The floor must be water-tight, smooth, and of such a nature that it can be washed with water every day. The walls must be smooth and of such a nature that the dust cannot lie in joints or roughnesses of the masonry.

(3) The sorting and packing rooms must be at least three metres high and must be large enough to allow each person employed therein at least 15 cubic metres air-space and five square metres floor-space.

(4) The size and arrangement of the windows must be such as to allow sufficient light for each worker. Where an artificial system of ventilation and dust removal cannot be installed, care must be taken to ventilate the rooms and to remove the dust adequately by opening windows, etc.

(5) The floor of the sorting and packing rooms must be washed every day before work begins or must be swept after being thoroughly sprinkled with clean water. It is useless and in some cases injurious to put disinfectants into water used for washing or sprinkling.

(6) The walls and ceilings of sorting and packing rooms must be cleaned twice a week and whitewashed every six months. If the walls are painted with oil paints they must be thoroughly washed with warm soap and water at least once in six months. The paint must be renewed at least once in five years.

(7) The sorting rooms must be heated in winter.

(8) Separate washing and dressing rooms for men and women must be provided. The washing rooms must contain a sufficient supply of fresh water for every person using them and soap and towels must be provided for the workers. In large institutions a sufficient number of baths and shower-baths must be provided.

(9) Workers must be forbidden to eat or drink in the workrooms or without having previously washed. Separate mess-rooms apart from the workrooms should be provided where necessary.

(10) Workers must be provided with washable working clothes fitting closely at the neck and wrists and covering the whole body down to the feet (dust overalls). They must also be provided with washable head coverings. The overalls and head coverings must be washed with soap every week.

(11) Persons suffering from injuries to the skin may not be employed on the sorting, shredding, packing, or unpacking of rags.

(12) In large and well-equipped establishments where motor power is available or can be obtained, unsorted rags should be mechanically cleaned by thrashing or winnowing machines before they are handled. The dust thus produced must be burnt at once in such a way as not to inconvenience the workers.

As rags which are treated in this way are only freed from external dust, while the dust which adheres to their interior and to the seams cannot be entirely removed, adequate measures for removing dust from the separate processes of work must be provided even in establishments where unsorted rags are cleaned by mechanical means.

(13) For this purpose sorting tables must be covered with wire netting and each worker's place must be connected with a powerful exhaust apparatus in such a way that the dust produced in sorting and shredding is removed downwards through the wire netting.

In cases where for reasons of economy mechanical exhaust apparatus cannot be installed, fixed dust boxes which can be completely closed must be placed under the netting of the sorting tables. Every day when work is over the boxes must be emptied outside the premises in such a way that the persons in charge of this work are not incommoded.

(14) Special attention must be given to the means of escape for workers in case of fire.

The Circular itself contained the following statement.

This reports submitted in execution of the Order of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, dated 6 May 1895, show that the rag-sorting establishments of Prussia leave much to be desired as regards equipment and method of working,



but that the persons employed in these undertakings are not exposed to any special danger to health which can be attributed to infection by the material which they handle or to the nature of the work. When epidemic outbreaks occur, special measures not directly falling within the competence of the factory should be taken for the protection of the general public, and, as these deal largely with trade in materials liable to be infected, they incidentally benefit rag sorters. Some remedy is necessary for the unfavourable conditions which have been found to prevail in rag-sorting establishments, but reporting authorities are unanimous in considering that the present financial position of these undertakings is so unsatisfactory and their capacity so various that the Ministry holds it undesirable to apply by Order the general and uniform regulations of the Federal Council contained in Section 120<sup>e</sup> of the Industrial Code.

The Minister instructs the factory inspectors to do everything in their power to see that the equipment and working of rag-sorting establishments are as far as possible in conformity with the regulations, but recognises that these cannot be fully applied . . . except by large establishments which have ample capital and can use mechanical power. The Ministry, however, emphasises the importance of encouraging the smaller employers to realise how far their premises and working conditions are from the standard demanded on behalf of the workers by the industrial inspectorate.

It should be left to the factory inspectors to decide what measures can be applied in each particular case, on the understanding that they should try to remedy the most serious defects and should not insist on improvements which cannot be carried out owing to financial reasons. . .

A little more than a year after, on 25 February 1895, the Prussian Ministry for Trade and Commerce issued a second Circular in which it summed up the results of a year's working of the Regulations as satisfactory. The Regulations had proved themselves practicable and valuable. The Circular states :

It must be repeated that the Regulations are not to be regarded as a rigid system to be applied in all cases without distinction ; they should rather be regarded as guiding principles on the basis of which factory inspectors can demand such improvements as they consider necessary and as local conditions and the position of the employer permit.

The Circular further noted the difficulty of obtaining the installation of exhaust apparatus<sup>(59)</sup> to remove dust from the sorting table, even where the financial position of the employer and the nature of the undertaking offer no obstacle, in spite of the fact that this was the only measure which could improve conditions in the sorting rooms. The technical difficulties, indeed, were not insurmountable. At Stade, for example, in an undertaking where steam and water power was used, very satisfactory results were obtained by the extraction of dust from the sorting tables, although this system was not introduced on a large scale. In the rag-sorting room of a paper factory in München-Gladbach the dust was removed by an exhaust system as it was produced<sup>(60)</sup>. The real difficulty lay in the fact that the system was not only opposed by the employers but by the workers themselves, especially the women, who, in order to prevent draughts, covered up the network on the sorting tables and actually stopped the exhaust pipes with rags, on account of the draught. Experience, however,

(<sup>59</sup>) HARTMANN in WEYL : *Handbuch der Hygiene*, second edition, Vol. VII. Leipzig. See also *Zentralbl. f. Gewerbe-Hyg.*, 1921, No 3. Berlin

(<sup>60</sup>) The proportion of cases of sickness in this factory decreased from 20 to 5 per cent. The output of the women after the introduction of the exhaust system increased by about 10 per cent., although the rags lost from 3 to 5 per cent. of their weight.

had shown that the workers could be educated. The Berlin workers had welcomed the regulation concerning the extraction of dust. The factory inspectors were, therefore, in the first place, to educate the workers in order to remove their prejudices; and, in the second place, to induce employers to install an exhaust system which would act efficiently without being injurious to the health of the sorters.

The Circular draws attention to the fact that it had not been possible to maintain the last clause of the regulations, which lays down that the dust should be burnt; the dust was required either for manure or for the manufacture of cardboard, and, as a matter of fact, no case of infection due to its use had been observed or at any rate recorded.

The carrying on of the trade as a home industry is, from the point of view of the sanitary expert, as important as are factory conditions. In the rag sorter's home machine 'thrashing' cannot be undertaken nor can exhaust apparatus be fitted to tables. In 1915<sup>(61)</sup> an Order was discussed by the authorities in Saxony to prohibit the practice of the trade as a home industry, except with rags which had previously been thrashed. It was pointed out by the Saxony Health Office in the course of discussions which took place with the First Section of the Dresden Chamber of Commerce and Industry that any form of thrashing as of disinfection applied to the home industry would be very expensive and even so not entirely efficacious; even after thrashing the cutting and tearing of the rags causes clouds of dust, which can be dealt with in a factory where apparatus can be installed, but which in the worker's home would rise each time one of the inhabitants made the slightest movement. Eventually the Order was issued on 28 March 1915.

On 21 April 1920 an Order was issued by the Federal authorities under Section 10, Paragraph 2 of the Home Work Act of 20 December 1911 prohibiting throughout the country the 'picking, cutting, and sorting of rags' as a home industry; the definition of the term 'rags' was put within the competence of the Federal Minister of Labour<sup>(62)</sup>.

### *Protection of Women and Young Persons*

*Women.* In the Argentine women may not be employed in collecting and washing rags and bones and in France in tearing and shredding rags (Decree of 21 March 1914).

*Young Persons.* The regulations concerning the work of young persons in this industry vary in different countries.

In Germany an Order dated 8 December 1909 regulates the employment of young persons in the fibre, hair, and rag industries, prohibiting such employment except where mechanical dust-extracting apparatus is in use. Section 4 of the Act concerning the employment of young persons (30 March 1913) prohibits the employment of young persons in rag-shredding workshops.

In Belgium children under 14 may not be employed in the tearing of wool and cotton and linen waste if dust is produced and is not extracted by mechanical means. Young persons under 16 may not be employed in dépôts where kitchen refuse is handled.

<sup>(61)</sup> Report drawn up by the Health Office of Saxony, 28 May 1915. Communicated to the International Labour Office.

<sup>(62)</sup> *Reichs-Gesetzblatt*, No. 80, p. 563. Engl. trans. in INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE, *Legislative Series* 1920, Ger. 12.

In Spain boys under 16 and women under 21 may not be employed on rag sorting and shredding in paper factories, in rag dépôts or in other occupations where they are exposed to dust.

In the United States young persons under 16 may not be employed on any work where dust is produced to an injurious extent (Alabama, Arkansas, California, Kentucky, Maryland, Ohio, Oklahoma, in the State of Delaware young persons under 15) or on operating machines for sorting wool, hair, etc. (Alabama, Arizona, California, Connecticut, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Ohio, New Jersey, New York, Tennessee, Vermont, Wisconsin).

In France young persons under 18 may not be employed in rag dépôts where sorting is carried on and in Great Britain and the Canadian Province of Quebec boys under 16 and girls under 18 may not be employed in sorting, handling, cutting, or tearing rags. In Italy boys under 15 and women under 21 may not be employed in the sorting, etc. of rags and waste paper unless appropriate apparatus for removing dust is installed.

In Norway young persons under 18 are forbidden to engage in rag sorting and shredding; in the Netherlands the prohibition applies only to young persons under 16, under an Order of 10 August 1920.

In Japan the prohibition of the employment of boys under 15 and women under 21 applies to those branches of the rag industry in which large quantities of dust are produced.

Contrary to expectation, the rag trade does not appear to be a very unhealthy trade. The principal danger is from dust, but 'shoddy fever', flock fever', and other forms of respiratory disease do not seem to be dangerous illnesses; they apparently resemble mild attacks of chronic influenza. The other danger, that of infection, is greatly reduced by the effects of desiccation on many disease germs. Those germs which resist desiccation are well known, and the danger from them is usually a subject of preventive legislation, which covers the rag trade in common with other trades handling such goods. The special danger arising in the rag trade from the infectious nature of linen rags derived from hospital waste has for the most part been eliminated by regulations making disinfection of such waste compulsory before sale.

At the same time the enormous volumes of dust arising in the course of the sorting and shredding processes, as well as the risk from germs inherent in the dirt of the soiled rags, the vast mass of which do not come under the class of dangerous or infected goods, seem at first sight to create such risky conditions that it can hardly be regarded as surprising if special precautions are taken in the trade. The extent to which these precautions should apply has been considerably discussed. Expense is a large factor; also the nature of the exact process to be applied for disinfection—dry, wet, or steam under pressure—their doubtful efficacy where the bale has not been opened, and the contrary disadvantage of opening an uncleansed bale even for purposes of disinfection.

The precautionary processes advisable fall into three stages—thrashing, disinfecting, and drawing off the dust during the final processes of shredding etc. Thrashing, which means elimination of the initial dust by mechanical processes, can only be done by machi-

nery<sup>(63)</sup>; the fact that such machinery cannot be installed except in a factory is a good reason for prohibiting rag sorting as a home trade. The thrashing machine should be provided with an efficient exhaust system and the dust should be removed.

It is sometimes objected that if rags are dusted by machinery before sorting they suffer a loss in weight, which some manufacturers estimate at 20 per cent.<sup>(64)</sup> It has been seen, however, that the increased output of the workers when they work in sanitary surroundings and under better health conditions more than makes up for the expense of installing the plant and for the loss in weight of the rags, even though the latter is estimated by some manufacturers at an even higher figure than that given above.

The operation of dusting by machinery cannot, however, be considered as a reliable means of removing disease germs from rags. Disinfection is clearly the only certain protection against infection. As the danger is particularly great when the bale is opened, disinfection should be carried out before this operation. It is, however, well known that the highly compressed bales in which rags are usually packed cannot be satisfactorily disinfected right through. None of the methods proposed for disinfecting the contents of the bale without opening it have proved really satisfactory, and it is therefore necessary to disinfect after the bales have been opened.

Some authorities advise that the rags should be moistened or impregnated with a disinfectant solution before they are sorted. Mr. Poincaré<sup>(65)</sup>, for example, considered that the rags in bulk should first be sprinkled with a solution of chloride of lime at the rate of half a litre per square metre of surface and 30 centimetres' thickness and that they should subsequently be thoroughly disinfected by a dry process. Mr. Frois<sup>(66)</sup> considers it better to soak the rags in milk of lime and to sort them after they have been washed and rinsed. He considers that the worker would be better protected if he wore a light mask.

Carbolic acid is the disinfectant preferred in spite of its high cost, for solution of sublimate soon loses its effect by contact with metal objects among the rags and even with wool. It is not practicable to treat rags with boiling lye or with chlorine, but other processes, e.g. the now frequent use of formaldehyde vapour, may certainly produce satisfactory results. Whatever solution is used, however, rags which have been treated in this way require a long and expensive drying process.

Industrial experience has shown that the treatment of rags by wet processes to prevent dust is not to be recommended, in the first place because it is liable to rot the rags, in the second place because unpleasant effluvia are produced. The best method is disinfection by steam under pressure. This process has been in use for some time (as early as 1897 in New York)<sup>(67)</sup>. At one time there was great difference of opinion as regards the necessity of disinfection, its cost, and the extent to which it damaged the material. At the present time, however, authorities are unanimous in recommending the process. Drying from

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<sup>(63)</sup> For a description of a dusting or thrashing machine see *Zentralbl. f. Gewerbe-Hyg.*, 1921, No 3, p. 63. Berlin.

<sup>(64)</sup> The British report (see Note (47)) says "40 per cent. or more".

<sup>(65)</sup> Quoted by Frois, *op. cit.*

<sup>(66)</sup> *Op. cit.*

<sup>(67)</sup> Quoted in the British report; see Note (47).

the effects of steam can easily be carried out in the apparatus used for disinfection. The objections that the heat permanently fixes stains of blood, pus, etc. on the fabric and lessens its resisting power, and that the cost is excessive, are not of great practical importance. Bales which have been opened may be subjected to a temperature of 101 to 103° C for 25 minutes without injury to the rags<sup>(68)</sup>. Some authors state that the stains on the rags are removed in the successive operations to which they are subjected and are almost imperceptible by the time the rags have been shredded. The loss of resisting power of the fabric is stated to be not more than 2 per cent., even if the rags are exposed to the action of steam several times, and it is stated that even this effect ceases when the fabric has cooled<sup>(69)</sup>.

In the municipal establishments for the destruction of dust in a number of towns in Great Britain, Germany, and the United States, it is already customary to disinfect the rags by steam under pressure or by dry heat at 110° to 120° C before they are sent to the dépôts. This practice may be generally recommended.

It is not necessary to deal with the method of disinfection by sulphur, as it has long been given up, not only because it is long and expensive, but also because it is liable to damage the rags, as the anhydrous sulphur may form sulphuric acid in combination with the steam or with the moisture contained in the air or the rags themselves.

Some authorities who are in favour of disinfection consider that it should not be left to the dealers, as they cannot guarantee its efficacy. If really adequate disinfection is to be ensured it should be carried out by the public authorities. This, however, can scarcely be considered practicable<sup>(70)</sup>.

After the rags have been thrashed and, if necessary, disinfected, they are sent to the sorting rooms.

Here some investigators have recommended masks, but this is of course uncomfortable when work is carried on, as in this case, for a long period. It has also been generally found that the workers object to wearing masks. The medical inspector who carried out the enquiry in the State of Ohio recommended that gloves should be worn. It is more usual, and generally esteemed efficacious, if the sorting and shredding tables are provided with exhaust apparatus fixed under a wire netting for drawing off the dust. Dust fans were tried at ten factories in Charente in 1900 in consequence of the steps taken by the French authorities to enforce the Decree of 10 March 1894<sup>(71)</sup>. One paper factory in Charente about the same time experimented with a system for removing dust from the shredding machine, and, after certain improvements had been introduced, an almost perfect system was obtained. The improvement in the conditions prevailing in the workshop was so great that the inspectors felt compelled to demand that it should be adopted in other factories. They visited each factory, and gave the manufacturer exact information concerning the precautions required by law, and showed how the appliances could be set up without unnecessary expenditure. Each manufacturer was given a sketch showing where the separate tubes and the main pipe to the fan should be placed, and also sections of the tubes and nozzles

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<sup>(68)</sup> LEYMAN, loc. cit.

<sup>(69)</sup> LORIGA, loc. cit., and *Rev. d'hyg.*, 1882, p. 812. Paris.

<sup>(70)</sup> BLAISE, op. cit.

<sup>(71)</sup> See above, under *Legislation*.

and the best position in which the knife should be placed<sup>(72)</sup>. The employer was allowed complete liberty to install any other system which fulfilled the legal requirements.

The work of the inspectors met with general, and sometimes extremely strong, opposition on the part of the paper manufacturers, but the adoption of exhaust fans for shredding machines, nevertheless, gave excellent results. The manufacturers admitted that, if they had realised how good the results would be, they would have installed the system twenty years before. The workers themselves at first regarded the inspectors' action with some mistrust and hostility, but they were astonished at the success of the system, and are now the first to protest vigorously if the fan happens to stop working. "It would cause a revolution among the women whom we employ", said one manufacturer, "if we returned to the former state of affairs".

Some manufacturers have set up apparatus by which dust is extracted upwards. In this case the nozzle is above and in front of the knife. This system, however, has not produced satisfactory results in comparison with the down-draught system. The heavy dust is not removed from the workroom, and only that part of the light dust which is produced between the knife and the exhaust nozzle is removed, while that part which is produced near the mouth of the operator remains in the workroom. The inspectors, therefore, had this inadequate plant altered in all cases, and more satisfactory appliances installed.

Manufacturers were, for a long time, unwilling to place open stoves in rag-sorting rooms, owing to the danger of fire, and did not wish to incur the expenditure involved in installing hot-air or hot-water heating systems. One manufacturer, however, realising the inconvenience which arose in winter from the draught created by the exhaust fans, at once installed a steam-heating system in the sorting room<sup>(73)</sup>.

Workers should not be employed unless they have been vaccinated<sup>(74)</sup>, and vaccination should take place every five years. Persons who have any open sore on their hands and face should be temporarily forbidden to work. Workers should be informed of the dangers to which they are exposed.

Special working clothes should be worn, and undertakings should be obliged to provide properly equipped washing and cloak rooms<sup>(75)</sup>.

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(72) GALINOU, *op. cit.*

(73) *Ibid.*

(74) Vaccination is now practised in all civilised countries. In Belgium there exists a Royal Decree dated 4 February 1895 concerning the vaccination of workers who handle rags; the Decree is still in force.

(75) The recommendations of the Vienna Health Congress also included the following points: rag dépôts should not be established in towns, and the frontier towns authorised to receive rags imported by land should be specified. Corradi considered that rag dealers and paper manufacturers should be induced by persuasion to refuse rags, especially white rags, as far as possible, if they were not clean. Blaise recommends that in France rag dépôts should be placed in the first class insanitary undertakings.

# INDUSTRIAL SAFETY

**C**O-OPERATION in safety investigations and the dissemination of information on safety regulations and safety services may be viewed as one of the important functions of the International Labour Office, and an Industrial Safety Service was established by the Office some little time ago in order to deal with the subject. With a view to keeping its readers informed on the progress made in the different countries in this direction, the *International Labour Review* will publish from time to time a series of notes on accident statistics and measures adopted to promote industrial safety.

## PRINCIPLES OF ACCIDENT PREVENTION

Safety in industrial establishments of all types depends on three essential factors : (a) equipment and working ; (b) the attitude of the employers and of his agents ; (c) the attitude of the workers.

### *Equipment and Working*

If an undertaking is to be completely satisfactory from the point of view of safety, all the danger points in the equipment must be effectively protected, and the processes of manufacture which eliminate risk most completely must be found and installed. These conditions are not always realised, largely because of the variety of economic and special factors which every undertaking has to consider. For instance, a new factory can arrange its buildings, equipment, and processes on the most up-to-date safety principles, while a factory whose plant consists of old, badly arranged buildings and machinery which is dangerous in itself will rarely be able to make fundamental alterations.

In the latter case small alterations can be gradually introduced ; a staircase with worn steps can be repaired, a dangerous process may be replaced by one more hygienic, dangerous work formerly done by hand may be done automatic machinery. These all come under the heading of safety measures.

Such measures for the elimination of risk afford wide scope for the technical knowledge and inventiveness of everyone in an establishment down to the humblest worker. The employer has to decide which of the various measures suggested are technically and economically possible or desirable. For this he needs the help of experts thoroughly conversant with safety methods and in possession of complete statistics of accidents, their causes and consequences. Such experts are at work everywhere and render valuable service, both in installing new plants and overhauling old ones. Hitherto, however, their efforts have been scattered and only affected a comparatively small number of workers. It seems that private enterprise alone is unable to raise the general standard of safety and keep accident rates at a reasonably low level. State intervention therefore seems inevitable.

The state may appoint experts and empower them to insist that all employers carry out the measures for protection which are deemed necessary in each separate case. Some countries have conferred these powers on industrial inspectors, but in most countries the

assumption is that public action must be limited to measures which can be uniformly applied either in all establishments in the same branch of production, irrespective of size or age, or to a special type of equipment (e.g. steam boilers). Regulations of this kind are usually only arrived at after long discussion with those concerned. Here accident statistics are of primary importance as the main justification of state action, which even so is often limited to securing the minimum of indispensable precautions.

### *Function of the Employer*

The employer and his representatives (works manager, foreman, etc.) are responsible for the safety of their staff. This duty extends to every phase of the organisation of the factory. Accidents in an industrial establishment may involve the employer in civil or criminal responsibility, and always involve a moral responsibility, except, of course, when the accident is due to deliberate negligence on the part of the worker. This is a point worth emphasising, for when the employer fully realises his responsibility the problem of safety will be within measurable distance of solution. Much can be done towards this end by education. Too often the employer regards the problem from a merely material standpoint, and will not give sufficient consideration to expenditure which does not appear immediately productive. In such cases the strongest argument for accident prevention is to show that expenditure on safety is a good investment in the long run ; it lessens the cost of insurance and the amounts paid in compensation. In addition, the removal of disturbances in the smooth running of the works and the increased output of the workers, who will no longer be preoccupied with the thought of danger, will more than compensate for the outlay on accident prevention. Education of this kind must be based on statistical evidence. Expenditure, however, is not the only essential required ; the employer and his representatives must co-operate actively, set an example, and arrange the conditions of work so that safety regulations may really be enforced.

This education of employers can be effected through their own trade associations, industrial accident insurance associations, insurance societies, and industrial inspectors, also by the publications of articles in trade journals, regular reports on investigations in industrial safety, and exhaustive discussion of the conditions in each individual establishment. Such discussions are particularly effective after an accident has taken place. Appeals thus made to the conscience and intelligence of employers have given good results, but they should be supplemented by legislation. The justification for this is that industrial safety is not merely a personal but a humanitarian and social problem of far-reaching importance. Many states have taken steps to compel employers to install the most necessary safeguards, indirectly by requiring the payment of compensation to the victims of accidents, and directly by issuing safety regulations.

### *Function of the Worker*

The attitude of the worker is as important as that of the employer. By reason of his familiarity with the dangers of his occupation he frequently becomes fatalistic and fails to take the precautions which depend on himself. He usually learns by experience, but the lessons



so learned are often severe and painful. The best method of instruction is to explain vividly to the worker and convince him of the consequences of carelessness or recklessness; pain, mutilation, death, disablement, and poverty for his family are deliberately brought on himself, and often on his fellow worker also, by incurring danger which might be avoided. At the same time, of course, explanations must be given regarding the sources of danger and means of avoiding it.

This education of the workers can be largely effected by employers and trade unions, but often neither of these have sufficient technical knowledge and have themselves to refer to technical associations, industrial safety experts, and industrial inspectors. As a means to this end conversations with individual workmen, especially with "safety delegates" — where such are appointed — warning posters in the workshops, articles in the labour press, and lectures illustrated with lantern slides are recommended.

The use of compulsion, which has already been mentioned in connection with the employer, seems less generally applicable to the worker. In some establishments the workshop regulations provide penalties for workmen who fail to comply with certain definite safety rules. Many countries have legal provisions stating the precautions to be observed in certain cases and imposing penalties for infraction. It is difficult to estimate the value of such measures, and the penalties are as a matter of fact rarely exacted.

### *Interrelation of the Three Factors*

The three factors mentioned — equipment and working, the employer, and the worker — are very closely interrelated. The employer's conception of his duty with regard to accident prevention obviously largely determines the equipment and working of the establishment. These again are affected by the workers' attitude; an employer is naturally more inclined to undertake improvements for purposes of accident prevention if he has the support and understanding of his employees than if he meets with general indifference.

On the other hand, it is not surprising that workers employed in dusty, ill ventilated, and ill lit shops, sometimes without the most elementary means of protection, in the end relax their efforts to avoid accidents. Often, too, a conscientious worker on piece rates knowingly exposes himself to danger because, rightly or wrongly, he thinks that if he did otherwise he would not produce enough to earn his living or satisfy his employer. In other cases a workman sees the danger but is not able to prevent it. In such instances the only hope is to convince employer and worker of their mutual interest in preventing accidents and to persuade them to combine their efforts.

### *Importance of Statistics*

Statistics play a very important part in problems of accident prevention by furnishing exact information on the frequency of accidents and their causes and effects. Such information serves as a basis for legislation, and as a guide to safety experts in determining their immediate objective.

Frequency rates and severity rates are among the most useful data provided by accident statistics. These two sets of data correspond to the two aspects of accident prevention: the efforts for the reduction

in the number of accidents with a view to the elimination of causes, and the endeavour to lessen the severity of accidents where total elimination of danger is not possible.

Most safety measures tend to decrease both the frequency and the severity of accidents, though in varying proportions depending on the nature of the industry. The use, for instance, of round cutter blocks — the so-called "safety blocks" — on planing machines may not prevent the worker's hands being caught in the tool, but if this does happen the worker does not as a rule injure more than the tips of his fingers instead of half the hand as was the case with square cutter blocks. Similarly, the establishment of first-aid posts in factories in no way diminishes the risk of accidents, but it prevents serious complications, such as blood poisoning. Again, there is no doubt that precautions in the use of ladders and scaffolding and in the arrangement of passage-ways and the fitting of guards on presses and stamping machines prevent slight and serious accidents alike. On the other hand, in the iron and steel industry of the United States the effect of the safety movement has been more in the direction of lessening the frequency of accidents than in reducing their severity<sup>(1)</sup>. While between 1907 and 1920 there was a progressive decrease in both the frequency and severity of accidents, in certain establishments or branches of the industry the severity had even increased. Evidence from German statistics is also to the effect that safety measures have tended to decrease the frequency of accident occurrence.

From the foregoing, it is evident that the problem of industrial safety is both psychological and technical. The psychological problem is to arouse and maintain the conviction that the avoidance of danger is an individual and social duty incumbent on all concerned — workers, employers, trade and technical organisations, the press, officials, and in particular industrial inspectors. Except as illustrated in the "Safety First" movement in the United States and Great Britain, this side of the question appears to have been neglected hitherto, and can only be solved by the personal co-operation of all concerned.

Laws and regulations do not achieve much, except, perhaps, those requiring the posting of notices and the distribution of safety pamphlets. Regulations, even when the breaking of them entails penalties, are less effective than judicious advice given at the right moment. This does not hold good of the technical problem. Individual initiative aided by expert advice has done much, but it appears advisable to supplement private enterprise by legislative action. Accident prevention is of such great social importance that it is the duty of the state to ensure that all measures for industrial safety which are recommended by experts and admitted to be practicable should be put into effect. The states have hitherto intervened in this problem to a varying extent and in very different ways. In all countries, however, industrial inspectors have played an important part in the preparation, and even more in the execution, of legislation. An active and efficient industrial inspectorate is undoubtedly essential for the maintenance of public safety.

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(1) *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 1, Jan. 1922, pp. 145-150; *Frequency and Severity of Accidents in the Iron and Steel Industry of the United States, 1907 to 1920*. This article explains the meaning of accident frequency and severity rates, and briefly describes the methods of calculating them.

## ACCIDENT PREVENTION AND INSPECTION

*Great Britain* <sup>(2)</sup>

The report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for 1920 was, as its introduction states, reduced, for reasons of economy, to a short summary mentioning only the essential facts.

No new legislation dealing with accident prevention was promulgated in 1920. Four local authorities issued regulations concerning the prevention of fire in undertakings employing less than forty persons; regulations of this kind now exist in 55 districts. Regulations for the protection of wood-working machinery which were suggested by the Building Trade Joint Industrial Council were issued in draft in the course of the year.

During the year 138,773 accidents were reported, of which 1,404 were fatal. This represents an increase of 12,750 in comparison with the preceding year, but the figures are considerably below those for 1913. The monthly totals fluctuate in a general way with the industrial activities of the year. Only one-third of the total number of accidents were due to machinery. A table attached to the report shows the number of accidents according to industry and causation. As the number of persons employed in each industry is not given, and as nearly 57 per cent. of the total number is attributed to "other causes", without classification, it is hardly possible to base any definite conclusions on the data given.

The report mentions the numerous accidents caused by revolving transmission shafting. Attention is drawn to the extraordinary ignorance even of experienced workers of the risks from machinery of this character. It is stated that all kinds of transmission gear should be fenced as carefully as possible. Safety appliances which only protect the immediate points of danger — for example, "nip guards" for the point of connection of two cogs — are almost useless. It is satisfactory to note that the whole-cover type of fencing for transmission gear is being increasingly used.

In view of the large number of accidents caused by cranes, the report recommends that the cause of every accident be exactly ascertained, so that safety precautions may be increased. Attention is drawn to the importance of indicating clearly on the machinery itself the maximum load which can safely be carried, and of observing this maximum. Properly installed electric cranes are not generally liable to be overloaded, because when an attempt is made to lift an unduly heavy load the current becomes excessive and the fuses blow out. In some cases, however, workers have been known to replace the regulation fuses by heavier ones in order to avoid this. Special emphasis is laid on the necessity of regular and frequent inspection of cranes, especially those in the open air.

A full account is given of appliances for protecting the fingers from power presses. Two-handed engaging levers are not considered satisfactory, as they can be rendered ineffective by the operator and are no protection against involuntary repeating of the movement. Particular attention is therefore given to those guards which remove the worker's hand as the press comes down. The report states that

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(2) GREAT BRITAIN. HOME OFFICE: *Annual Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the year 1920*. 173 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1921. 1s. 6d.

press operators appear to be losing their objection to the use of automatic guards, as they are beginning to see that the guards do not necessarily hinder the work.

The report also gives details of an ingenious device attached to a milling machine, which could, however, be fitted on other types of lathe. A nozzle attached to a flexible pipe is connected to the compressed air installation. By directing the nozzle on to the rotating work, the operator can blow away all cuttings without endangering his hands.

The report points out the necessity of keeping automatic guards of all kinds in good repair. An appliance of this kind may, if a slight defect arises, give the operator a false sense of security, and thus increase instead of diminish the danger.

Considerable attention was given to the protection of emery wheels. This subject is of particular importance because industries of all kinds are beginning to employ the grinding process to an increasing extent, and the number of emery wheels in use is therefore rapidly increasing. According to the report, the majority of accidents are due to faulty mounting of the wheels or to improper use. Excessive speed also often causes the wheels to burst. It is suggested that specially skilled staff should be employed on setting up and attending to emery wheels.

Special attention is devoted to the textile industry, which is particularly important in Great Britain. It is stated that there is still difficulty in obtaining a satisfactory guard for "duck-bills" on large looms. It is also pointed out that the guards do not always prevent shuttles from flying out. They are, however, sufficient to reduce the severity of accidents, as they keep the shuttle at such a low level that it rarely hits persons standing near above the shoulder. The fact that in the woollen and worsted industries the regulations of the trade agreement concerning the alley space of thirty inches between the looms are not observed has led to accidents in some cases.

In the flax, hemp, and jute industries safety appliances are not as well developed as in the cotton industry. In particular, the gear is often protected only by "nip guards", which, as was stated above, are far from satisfactory.

One of the most difficult tasks of the British factory inspectors has always been the supervision of laundries, where accidents still frequently occur in connection with centrifugal machines and calenders or rollers. The means suggested for preventing centrifugal machines bursting are careful construction from satisfactory material and thorough technical supervision by trained persons. Emphasis is further laid on the necessity of automatic interlocking safety covers. Calenders and rollers should always be provided with automatic guards at the feeding line. It is, however, pointed out that three-eighths of an inch is specified for the feeding gap by which the material is introduced, and that, if young persons are employed at these machines, their fingers are so thin that they can be trapped even in this small space. The practice of clothing power rollers while in motion caused numerous accidents. In one division inspectors have seen calenders fitted with a crank to turn the roller by hand when the machine is out of gear.

As regards bakeries, the report mentions the necessity of automatic stop guards and inter-locking covers, both for dough brakes and mixing machines, as the only means of preventing numerous accidents.

Accidents again occurred through the explosion of empty containers, which had formerly held benzine or other volatile substances, in the

course of repair by oxy-acetylene welding. It is recommended that all containers should be thoroughly steamed and adequately ventilated before repair.

In one factory an air compressor exploded near a sieving machine for perchlorate of potash. Careful investigation showed that perchlorate of potash in form of dust was drawn in to the air compressor, and that this dust, which was very rich in oxygen, combined with the lubricating oil used in the compressor to form an explosive compound which was easily detonated. Explosions occurred in works where compressed air was used in connection with illuminating gas, and it was ascertained that air was forced into the gasometer owing to the absence of a non-return valve.

The report deals in considerable detail with the danger of fire. A woman inspector reports that the fire escapes for women workers are frequently quite inadequate. It appears that factories are often installed in wooden buildings of several stories which have only wooden escapes. In two cases the escapes were defective, as steps which had been destroyed in a previous fire had not been restored. The workers often do not know what they should do in case of fire, and which is the nearest way of escape. In many factories it was therefore decided to have fire drill at frequent intervals and periodically to show all workers the various fire exits.

A special section deals with the prevention of accidents in factories where electrical power is used, and interesting technical details of the safest kinds of electrical installation are given.

In docks the inspectors have frequently received complaints of the theft of life-buoys and life-chains. The Medical Inspector of Factories states that after careful consideration he has come to the conclusion that there would be no advantage in requiring the owners of large docks to provide ambulance rooms. The area covered by the docks is so large that it is more important to provide ambulance carriages; by this means the injured man can be transported straight to a hospital instead of to an ambulance room in the dock itself, where he could in any case only receive emergency treatment.

The work of the English factory inspectors for the prevention of accidents, while including the study of the dangers involved in the use of certain machinery in particular industries, and of dangerous machines, such as emery wheels and cranes, which are employed in a number of different industries, is not limited to this. The inspectors have for many years endeavoured to arrive at standardised precautions in important trades by means of conferences with representatives of the employers and workers. Regulations of this kind have been of great service in the various branches of the textile industry and in the tin-plate trades. As a general rule, the regulations were satisfactorily observed, and enabled the factory inspectors to obtain the adoption of necessary precautions in the factories.

Several of the factory inspectors state that the courts recognise the regulations laid down by trade agreements as binding, and that penalties have been imposed at the suggestion of the factory inspectors in cases where the regulations have not been observed.

It is mentioned that in the cotton-spinning industries, for example, the technical development of accident prevention has gone beyond the existing agreements. This is partly to be explained by the facts that this industry is highly organised, the machines are of well-defined and well-planned types, and the number of machine-setters limited.

The Joint Industrial Council for the wire-drawing industry has

appointed a sub-committee which is to draw up safety regulations with the co-operation of one of the factory inspection officials. Individual firms will be expected to comply with the decisions of the committee, and the Joint Industrial Council has undertaken to use its influence with its members if the factory inspectors are not able to ensure that the regulations are applied. The author of the report describes this action of the Joint Industrial Council as an interesting experiment and a good example of the new spirit in industry.

The report considers that the system of voluntary agreements is likely to be the most satisfactory in the long run, and that it is not desirable to issue compulsory regulations if there is any prospect of obtaining a sufficient degree of safety by voluntary agreement. It is nevertheless admitted that the weakness of this system is the difficulty of inducing all employers in an industry to observe regulations agreed upon by a majority. Means must be found to induce individual employers to co-operate more heartily than is at present the case.

One of the measures suggested is the institution of works committees or safety committees, which can do much to stimulate the interest of the workers in accident prevention. It is stated that there is still considerable objection on the part of the employers to set up such committees, and the workers themselves cannot be considered very enthusiastic. Nevertheless, the movement is spreading, and when the committees are properly constituted the results are very encouraging. One safety committee, for instance, has been able to increase the use of first-aid arrangements, and it is now trying to overcome the objection of the workers to wearing protective goggles. In another factory the number of accidents, which was 201 in 1916, was reduced to 101 in 1917 and 64 in 1920 by the efforts of the safety committee. Another safety committee arranged that locomotives and rolling stock in or about the works should be stopped during the time when the main body of workers was arriving or leaving.

Emphasis is laid on the need of warning young workers on their first entry into industry against the risks of which too often they are entirely ignorant. Although the workers are often indifferent to the danger of accidents, they certainly realise the risk involved in certain industries, as is shown by the fact that foremen in shipbuilding yards are often reluctant to employ their own sons in the work if they are very young. Hope is expressed, however, that it may be possible by active educational work and instruction regarding industrial risks to overcome the indifference of the workers and to arouse their interest in the prevention of accidents, which is equally important for their own welfare and for that of industry as a whole. Much could be accomplished by works and safety committees.

Some particulars are given of the endeavours of the factory inspectors to promote the general movement for industrial safety. The Senior Engineering Inspector attended several trade exhibitions and discussed safety problems with manufacturers of machinery. The inspectors who deal specially with dangerous industries have done much useful work by discussing safety problems with the principal manufacturers of machine tools in order to ensure that machinery is not sold without proper safety appliances.

The Factory Inspection Department prepared a memorandum on safety appliances for machinery and sent it to the Machine Tool Makers' Association. A pamphlet on first-aid and ambulance work in factories and workshops was also published. First-aid courses were held in all parts of the country and were attended by large numbers of workers.

Pamphlets were also published on fencing and safety precautions for cotton spinning and weaving, the use of chains and other lifting gear, the examination and testing of drying cylinders used in the textile printing, bleaching, and dyeing trades, and the dangers connected with the use of acetylene gas. Great Britain has followed the example of America and has started a "Safety First" movement. The report considers that the results of this movement can already be traced in an increased sense of responsibility among employers and workers. "Safety First Weeks" have been held in some factories. A safety conference was held in London, organised jointly by the Home Office and the British Industrial Safety First Association, apparently with satisfactory results.

### *Switzerland* <sup>(3)</sup>

The chief authority concerned with accident prevention in Switzerland is the Swiss Institute for Accident Insurance, which has its own inspection service and is fully empowered to issue regulations and to inflict penalties on employers and workers for their breach, either by raising the insurance premiums paid by the employer or reducing the benefits paid to injured workers. The accident prevention department has only been in full working order since the war; in 1920 the number of inspectors was raised from four to nine. A designing office was set up to study problems of accident prevention, and to make drawings of safety appliances for particular undertakings.

During 1920 the number of undertakings inspected was 877 and that of accidents investigated 386, while 3,401 regulations for the improvement of safety precautions were issued. The employers have a right to appeal to the Federal Council against the regulations issued by the Accident Insurance Institute, but only eight appeals were actually made; seven of these were rejected and one is still under consideration. The Court of Appeal adopted the principle that a mere prohibition by the employer of a dangerous practice does not constitute an adequate precaution unless there is no safety appliance which can be fitted. In exceptional cases the provision of a safety appliance is not compulsory, if it is perfectly possible to avoid accidents by taking reasonable precautions, in other words, if carefulness may be regarded as a substitute for safety appliances. There are, of course, not many cases of this kind. An example may be found in the occasional use of a centrifugal machine which has no fastening to its cover. If the machine is worked by a reliable man who obeys the instruction forbidding him to open the cover until the drum has come to a standstill, the absence of a fastening involves no danger.

The Swiss Institute for Accident Insurance recommends employers, when ordering machinery, to make it a condition of the contract that it shall be fitted with appropriate safety appliances. There is no legal means of exercising compulsion on machinery manufacturers in this respect, but the Institute reserves the right in certain cases to prosecute manufacturers who fail to provide their machines with the recognised safety appliances.

The Swiss Institute for Accident Insurance is not managed on bureaucratic lines. Although it was set up by the state and is entirely independent both of employers and workers, it transacts business in the same way as a commercial undertaking. This gives it great free-

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<sup>(3)</sup> CAISSE NATIONALE SUISSE D'ASSURANCE EN CAS D'ACCIDENTS, SERVICE DE LA SÉCURITÉ : *Rapport annuel pour 1920*. Lucerne, 1921. 58 pp. (illus.) multigraphed.

dom of action; for example, it advances money to employers for the purchase of safety appliances, and itself orders or undertakes the wholesale manufacture of safety appliances, and sells a large quantity of protective goggles, safety hooks for ladders, a safety device for presses and stamping machines, and wedges and guards for circular saws. It also provides a great variety of warning posters free of charge. In the year in question it drew up an instruction for the prevention of accidents in blasting which is to be generally applied.

The Accident Insurance Institute often meets with strong opposition on the part of the employers. In 1920 it prosecuted 18 employers for failure to observe its regulations and raised insurance premiums in 33 cases. There is also a certain amount of opposition from the workers, chiefly to the wearing of protective goggles. The Institute is obliged to take strong action in this matter, as injuries to the eye are extremely frequent in polishing work. It has in many cases reduced the compensation paid to persons whose eyes have been injured, if it can be proved that the accident was due to failure to wear goggles. This produced a curious result; the number of accidents which occurred in spite of the wearing of goggles rose in 1920 from 3 to 40 per cent. of the total number of accidents reported.

The statistical section of the Institute for Accident Insurance was not yet fully developed in 1920. The report gives no figures to show the average number of workers employed, or the number of working hours lost in consequence of accidents. Only the absolute numbers of accidents by cause are given, and from these it may be seen that nearly 80 per cent. of the total number of accidents were due to the fall or overturning of objects. More than 10 per cent. of these were cycling accidents. Of a total number of 99 blasting accidents, 30 were due to misfires. The large number of accidents due to this cause led the Accident Insurance Institute to give particular attention to this point, and to recommend the introduction of electrical priming wherever possible.

A detailed description is given of an interesting case of coal-dust explosion in a cement works. The explosion appears to have originated from sparks produced in a ball mill and spread over the whole of the works. Six workers were killed and many more injured.

Particularly clear technical descriptions, illustrated by drawings, are given of accidents connected with lifting machinery. The report shows that lifts are extremely delicate machines and require frequent inspection even if their actual construction is entirely satisfactory. Special efforts were made in 1920 to get rid of the extraordinarily dangerous sack elevators which are used in mills. These elevators, which are of the most primitive nature, were originally only intended to carry goods. Recently, however, they have been used more and more for the transport of the workers in the mill. It was at first thought sufficient to insist that barriers should be set up, so that access to the shaft was impossible when the carriage was at another floor. It has been found, however, that barriers of this kind are regularly fastened back, and the workers themselves admit that there is perpetual danger of extremely serious accidents. The Accident Insurance Institute therefore forbids the erection of sack elevators in new buildings, and has existing ones reconstructed. This procedure is in accordance with the regulations for the installation and use of lifts for persons and goods which were issued on 18 February 1919 by the Swiss Union of Engineers and Architects. These regulations will serve as a guide for the Accident Insurance Institute in issuing its regulations, until



such time as a Federal Order on the subject, which is at present in contemplation, has been issued. The regulations also agree in all essential points with the cantonal regulations now in force in the cantons of Vaud and Geneva.

The report gives very full instructions on work connected with driving belts and on the use of belt guides, belt hooks, etc. The report confirms the fact that even narrow belts (less than 5 centimetres wide) and those which run slowly (less than 10 metres per second) are very dangerous, and should only be touched when the machinery is at a standstill and when the worker can stand safely on the floor.

In a number of cases overshot water wheels were overweighted by dripping water, and driving belts were inadvertently set in motion, thus causing accidents. The Institute therefore published a drawing showing how dripping water could be safely carried off.

Accidents caused by the bursting of emery wheels were carefully investigated, and it was found that excessive peripheral velocity was one of the most frequent causes. In one case an emery wheel was set up on the frame of a circular saw and set in motion with a peripheral velocity of more than 40 metres per second. The Accident Insurance Institute has ascertained that a velocity of 25 metres, and in exceptional cases 30 metres, per second is safe where good material is used, and this is also the speed at which emery wheels can most economically be used. Very strong steel protective covers are insisted upon in Switzerland, as sheet metal covers, which are sufficient for drawing off the dust, and even cast iron covers, rather increase than diminish the danger of accidents. The Accident Insurance Institute does not, however, insist on protective covers for emery wheels with a peripheral velocity of less than 12.5 metres per second. It is true that in the year in question four low velocity emery wheels burst, but it was found that the force of the flying fragments was not sufficient to do any serious injury to the workers.

The question of the protection of the fingers in pressing and die-stamping machines is also dealt with in detail. It was found that covers to the machines afforded the best protection. The two-hand system is not considered very effective. It is only reliable if there is some means of preventing the die from rising a second time. Preference is therefore given to appliances which push the fingers away or which make it impossible to set the machine in motion while they are in a dangerous position. The Institute itself has invented an extremely good appliance based on this principle. The machine is surrounded by a guard which is connected with a system of springs and levers so arranged as to prevent the machine being set in motion so long as a finger remains under the guard. The appliance works perfectly, provided that the guard is of suitable shape and is fitted with great care.

The protection of circular saws is dealt with in full detail, with explanatory sketches. It is particularly emphasised that the thickness of the wedge should always correspond with that of the saw-blade, and that they should be adjustable horizontally and vertically. The protective cover must be large enough to cover the entire saw-blade when it is at a standstill, and when working must leave only such space as is absolutely necessary for the insertion of the wood. A thorough enquiry showed that many employers use saw-blades of a diameter ranging from 250 to 1,000 millimetres on the same spindle. This is only justifiable technically and economically if stepped cone pulleys are used making it possible to run different saws at different

speeds. When the gear ratio is such as to run a saw of 250 millimetres diameter at sufficient speed, it will run a saw of one metre diameter at an excessive peripheral velocity, which is bound to make the saw red-hot, if not to break it.

The report states that square cutter blocks in smooth planing machines are still often used in Switzerland. They are much more dangerous than round cutter blocks, as may be seen from the figures given in the report; of the accidents with round cutter blocks only 5.9 per cent. caused disability, while 26 per cent. of those arising out of the use of square cutter blocks caused a permanent decrease of earning capacity, and the period of inability to work and the degree of disability were also much greater. It has been said, in objection to the round cutter block, that when it is used in combined smooth-planing and thicknessing machines it does not cause sufficient draught to throw out the chips satisfactorily. An invention known as the *Frei patent*, intended to meet this objection, is described in the report. In this invention the case of the round block is hollow, and has slits to increase the draught. This device is said to have worked very well.

The Swiss report also contains a warning that benzine containers must be very carefully cleaned before being treated with soldering lamps or welding appliances. Several explosions have occurred owing to neglect of this precaution.

Energetic attempts are being made to induce women who work with machinery to cover their hair. A poster with a picture of a woman who has been scalped in consequence of working with uncovered hair is said to have acted as an effective warning.

#### *Austria (\*)*

No new laws or regulations on accident prevention were issued in 1920. In addition to their inspection duties the factory inspectors co-operated actively in the work of the Industrial Safety Association (*Gesellschaft für Sozialtechnik*), which endeavours to promote the protection of the workers through lectures illustrated by films and lantern slides. Special inspectorates for building and inland navigation have been established in Vienna. The reports reflect the great difficulties of the economic situation in Austria, which make it impossible to provide the safety measures which are desirable if not necessary. It is impossible to maintain former hygienic and technical standards, and there is no choice but to be satisfied with what is strictly necessary in order to ensure production in any form. It is more important that workers should continue to be employed and earn their living, even in a badly equipped undertaking, than that the safety conditions under which they work should be entirely satisfactory. For all these reasons the reports note very little progress in accident prevention. This general situation naturally influences the attitude of the workers, whose heedlessness and carelessness of danger are the cause of frequent complaints.

Conditions appear to be particularly bad in stone quarrying, which, owing to the depression in the building industry, is only carried on intermittently. When a contractor requires stone he takes it from the quarry in the way most convenient at the moment, without any regard for necessary precautions and the removal of waste.

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(\*) AUSTRIA. BUNDESMINISTERIUM FÜR SOZIALE VERWALTUNG: *Bericht der Gewerbe-Inspektoren über ihre Amtstätigkeit im Jahre 1920*. Vienna, 1921, LXXXVII, 430 pp.

The slow decay of buildings appears to constitute a grave danger in industrial establishments ; cases of the complete collapse of buildings through neglect of repair are reported. The floors of store-rooms are frequently overloaded, as the owners avail themselves of favourable opportunities for purchasing larger stocks than they are accustomed to keep.

Square cutter blocks on planing machines are still used in Austria, and cases are even reported in which owners who had substituted round cutter blocks have gone back to square blocks because they wished to use up planing knives adapted to such blocks.

Great carelessness is noted in connection with lifts and similar machinery. They are often in very bad condition, and it is difficult to induce the owners to agree to the very costly repairs required.

Accidents due to the bursting of emery wheels are very frequent ; they are due in part to the bad quality of wheels manufactured.

The presence of live projectiles in pig-iron in foundries has led to a number of serious accidents. The confusion between oxygen and hydrogen containers, common in other countries also, is responsible for numerous explosions and injuries to workers, as also is soldering and welding of empty benzine vessels from which all remains of benzine have not first been carefully removed.

Several reports call attention to the dangerous nature of celluloid. Owing to the carelessness of the owner, a fire broke out at a shoe-top factory in a room in which shoe-tops were dipped in melted celluloid. Although there was hardly more than half a kilogramme of celluloid in the room, the fire resulted in the death of two workers and serious injuries to six others, owing to the blocking of the exits by the flames.

The storage of benzine, benzol, and similar liquids gives rise to numerous complaints, as the storage rooms used no longer comply with the regulations. It frequently happens that dangerous liquids are stored or pumped without using safety gas, because safety gas has become too dear.

One result of the neglect of buildings is an increase in the risk of fire. In new undertakings installed in unsatisfactory buildings which happen to be available safety ladders and exits are wanting. A case is even reported of a brush factory which bricked up absolutely necessary emergency exits in order to prevent theft.

Altogether the Austrian factory inspectors conclude that, in view of the growing number of abuses, the inspection staff is not large enough to provide the constant and energetic action required, particularly in the matter of protection from fire.

### *Belgium <sup>(5)</sup>*

No new provisions were introduced in 1920 in the particular sphere of industrial accident prevention, but the Belgian factory inspectors are not responsible merely for the application of safety legislation. They have also to see that public safety is safeguarded in certain undertakings specified by law or regulation and that these undertakings are carried on without annoyance to the public. In this connection they have to supervise the application of a new Order of 9 August 1920 relating to theatres, cinemas, dancing halls, and similar establishments.

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<sup>(5)</sup> BELGIUM. MINISTÈRE DE L'INDUSTRIE, DU TRAVAIL ET DU RAVITAILLEMENT : *Rapports annuels de l'Inspection du Travail, 21<sup>me</sup> année (1920)*. Brussels, 1921. 262 pp.

The annual report of the factory inspectors for 1920 contains no reference to their relations with employers and workers, or to their co-operation with other authorities. It becomes evident, however, from reading between the lines, that they are not satisfied with the support which they receive from the courts. It is reported, for example, that an insufficiently protected driving belt caused the death of a worker some weeks after the factory inspector had required the fitting of a protection guard, and that the employer was prosecuted and fined 26 francs. In another case a fine of 100 francs was imposed for gross negligence, but the employer obtained postponement of execution.

The Belgian factory inspectors are also required to conduct investigations into accidents. They readily undertake this work both because it provides opportunities for training younger officers and because advice given to employers or workers under these circumstances regarding safety measures and equipment is more likely to be followed. The reports seem to show that this is particularly necessary, as safety measures generally leave much to be desired and a great deal of indolence on the part of employers and workers remains to be overcome.

In four of the seven districts the reports include statistics of accidents classified by industry. It appears from these that the largest number of accidents occurred in the metal industry and the next largest in the transport industry. It is impossible to compare these figures with the number of workers exposed to risk, as no statistics of the total number of workers employed exist. Only the number of workers engaged in undertakings inspected during the year is given. The inspectors, moreover, do not place very great reliance on their figures of the number of accidents. The author of the report for the First District expressly says that the notification of accidents is in all probability incomplete, as no compensation is payable for accidents resulting in less than seven days' incapacity for work, and accidents resulting in more than seven days' incapacity are often not recognisable from the notifications because these are not always accompanied by the necessary medical certificate.

The author of another report criticises the rule that accidents should be classified by industry. He considers that classification by cause would give a much better idea of the situation. He adds, however, that on the basis of the statistics before him it is possible to infer a very considerable reduction in the number of accidents in 1920 as compared with 1913.

One report observes that the effort to get back to pre-war conditions in safety arrangements has led to marked progress, but that much still remains to be done. Another states that the deterioration which occurred during the war period has not yet been entirely made good.

Some of the individual accidents reported may be noted. A worker in a textile factory removed the guard from a bale-breaker before the machine came to a standstill in order to carry out a cleaning operation more quickly. One of his arms was torn off and the injury resulted in death.

In the First District fifteen accidents with planing machines are reported, thirteen of which occurred with machines fitted with square cutter blocks.

The electrification of industry, which is making great progress in Belgium, is especially noted by the authors of the reports as a factor making for safety. At the same time it is pointed out that regulations in regard to the erection of electrical plants are not adequate,

and that much remains to be done for the removal of this new source of danger.

Regulations for the storing of carburetted hydrogen in towns are stated to be necessary. Various suitable arrangements, illustrated by drawings, are described in an appendix.

### GERMAN MINING ACCIDENTS

#### *Rescue Work in Prussian Mines* <sup>(6)</sup>

During 1920 Prussian mines were able to obtain the raw materials and spare parts needed for restoring their rescue equipment, which had seriously deteriorated during the war. The rescue corps were re-organised and trained, but owing to war losses it is still difficult in many mines to find the number of such workers required by legislation for each mine, and the corps have to be entirely reconstituted and trained.

The work of maintaining the rescue apparatus in good condition and forming corps of rescue workers is entrusted largely to branches of the Mining Trade Association (*Knappschaftsberufsgenossenschaft*) and in Westphalia to the Association of Mining Interests (*Verein für die bergbaulichen Interessen*) at Dortmund. These organisations have established five inspection centres, in Upper Silesia, at Waldenburg (Lower Silesia), Halle, Clausthal (Section III of the Mining Trade Association), and Dortmund. The reports of these bodies show that in Lower Silesia, for instance, there is one rescue worker for every fifty miners. In Upper Silesia 57 corps leaders and 67 workers were appointed in 1920, in Clausthal 59 corps leaders and 141 workers. The inspection centres give special attention to training corps leaders, who have to train the men under their charge.

At the end of 1920 there were about 550,000 workers in Prussian mines, and 480,000 of these were engaged in coal mining. At the same date there were available 2,672 oxygen respirators, 397 smoke helmets, and 749 appliances for artificial respiration. In 51 accidents 230 respirators were used; in seven of these accidents 24 human lives were endangered, but only one of them was saved, while 45 appliances were used. In 44 cases of mine fire 185 appliances were used and two men engaged in fighting fires lost their lives. In 42 accidents 49 appliances for artificial respiration were used, and 15 out of 55 men were restored to life.

Thus the great efforts made by the rescue corps do not seem to have met with great success; where miners have been overtaken by non-respirable gases assistance has generally reached them too late. Artificial respiration work is more often successful than rescue work. In order to throw the above figures into the proper perspective, however, it should be remembered that of 1,989 fatal accidents only 110 were due either to explosions of fire damp, coal dust, or inflammable gas, or to gases which did not explode — inflammable gas, choke damp, or gases released by the firing of explosives. This figure includes miners who were rescued alive but died as a result of poisoning or

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<sup>(6)</sup> HATZFELD: *Das Rettungswesen beim Bergwerks-Betrieb Preussens im Jahre 1920*, in the *Zeitschrift für das Berg-, Hütten- und Salinenwesen im preussischen Staate*, 1921, Vol. LXIX. Report based on official documents.

injuries. On the other hand, it should not be forgotten that the rescue corps indirectly save many lives by getting mine fires rapidly under control.

### *Mine Accident Insurance*

The Mining Trade Association (*Knappschaftsberufsgenossenschaft*) is the insurance society the establishment of which is compulsory under the German accident insurance system. It includes all mining firms in Germany, and in 1921 insured 1,212,572 persons, as against 918,905 in 1913 (?). The number of accidents entitling to benefit was 9.75 per 1,000 insured, as compared with 14.98 in 1913, and the number of fatal cases 1.83 (2.31 in 1913). These figures show that the number of accidents fell by 34.9 per cent. and that of fatal cases by 20.8 per cent. during the period under consideration. They are, however, based only on the average number of persons insured and do not take into account hours of work, so that it is impossible to determine how far the fall in the accident rate is to be ascribed solely to the reduction in hours of work.

Of accidents entitling to benefit, 64.22 per cent. (68.07 in 1913) appeared to be due to causes inherent in the trade, and 1.24 per cent. only (1.02 in 1913) were directly due to defective safety conditions in individual mines; 4.20 per cent. (3.23 in 1913) were due to the negligence of the injured person's fellow workers and 30.34 per cent. (27.68 in 1913) to the negligence of the injured person. It should be remarked that this type of statistics is by no means reliable, since they very largely depend on the opinion of the bodies which investigate the circumstances of the accident. On the other hand, the inclination to judge the worker's action lightly was at least as strong in 1921 as in 1913. The figures given above therefore suggest that there has been a marked diminution of the sense of responsibility among the workers, while the material conditions of labour have at least returned to pre-war standard.

From 1913 to 1921 the average wages of the insured were increased about twelvefold. The figures show that the payment of benefit to the victims of accidents only absorbed 0.93 per cent. of the total wages bill in 1921, as compared with 2.251 per cent. in 1913. This reduction cannot be adequately explained by the lower frequency of accidents, which only took effect in 1920, and it must therefore be concluded that the economic situation of the country has prevented the increase of unproductive social charges in the same proportion as wages.



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(?) *Bericht über die Verwaltung der Knappschaftsberufsgenossenschaft im Jahre 1921.* Extracts published in *Glückauf*, No. 39, 30 Sept. 1922. Essen.

# EDUCATION

## Vocational Guidance

THE PSYCHOTECHNICAL INSTITUTE OF THE MASARYK ACADEMY <sup>(1)</sup>

THE Masaryk Academy of the Science of Work was founded at Prague in 1920 by Professor Masaryk, now President of the Czechoslovak Republic. It is a self-governing scientific institution, the aim of which is to organise technical work, with a view to the scientific utilisation of the capacities of the population and of the natural resources of Czechoslovakia for the furtherance of the prosperity of the whole nation <sup>(2)</sup>. For the attainment of this object the Masaryk Academy conducts scientific research and also endeavours by means of propaganda to secure the support of public opinion for its aims.

The Academy conducts research and investigations in scientific management, encourages scientific research in all departments of technical work, and fosters a spirit of enterprise in Czechoslovakia by the study of new manufacturing methods and of business relations and the various branches of commerce. It also trains scientific workers and investigators in technical work and labour law <sup>(3)</sup>.

The propaganda of the Academy includes lectures, exhibitions, and similar methods of informing the community on the objects of work, its value and importance, and on methods of scientific management. The Academy issues publications on these questions and keeps in touch with individuals and organisations similar to itself in Czechoslovakia and abroad. It also assists in dealing with technical problems of public administration by putting forward proposals and criticisms, and undertakes to re-organise industrial establishments according to the new theories of scientific management.

The Academy comprises six sections: (1) natural history and medicine; (2) agriculture and forestry; (3) architecture and building; (4) engineering and electricity; (5) industrial chemistry; (6) political and social economy. Attached to these sections are three institutes of industrial organisation, town planning and settlement, and psycho-technics respectively. Committees are attached to the various sections to deal with the following questions: (1) standardisation; (2) the Gilbreth method of scientific management; (3) building; (4) preparation for the World Conference on Human Energy to be held in London in 1924; (5) the democratisation of education; (6) unemployment; (7) the foundation of an Institute of Experimental Hydrology; (8) international intellectual co-operation.

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<sup>(1)</sup> The documents from which this article was prepared were placed at the disposal of Mr. Léon Walther, Director of the Department of Technopsychology at the Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute on the occasion of a recent visit to the Masaryk Academy. The Jean-Jacques Rousseau Institute has also prepared the notes entitled *The Problem of Vocational Ability, Ability Tests for Printers, and Bibliography on Vocational Guidance*.

<sup>(2)</sup> Order of the Czechoslovak Government (Clause 1), dated 2 March 1920.

<sup>(3)</sup> Ibid. Clause 2.

The Academy consists of technical experts and a scientific council. Membership is open to Czechoslovak nationals of both sexes and to foreigners, in the latter case subject to the approval of the Minister of Foreign Affairs. The members who are technical experts are chosen from among those prominent in all branches of science and labour, while the scientific council consists of experts with special qualifications for research. The membership is divided into the sections already enumerated, and the scientific council into groups corresponding to these sections. Each expert may be a member of one or more sections, but may only hold office in one. Each section has a president, a vice-president, and a secretary, the council a president, who is also the president of the Academy, and a general secretary (\*). The term of office is three years in each case.

The vast programme of the Academy is to be carried out, as has already been mentioned, with the assistance of special institutes, and with this in view the Institute of Psychotechnics was founded in 1920. Its distinguishing purpose is the study of human labour from the psychological rather than from the technical standpoint. Its attention is devoted exclusively to the human machine and the various factors connected with and affecting the work of man. Its object is to collect all the data of modern science on this subject and to conduct research in all spheres open to scientific investigation. It hopes thus to set on foot a great movement for rendering work a joyous duty.

The method by which the Institute endeavours to approach this ideal is the study of individual capacities and the characteristics of various occupations in order to protect and assist the worker, so that he may attain the greatest possible efficiency in the occupation best suited to his mental and physical capacities. Other subjects studied by the Institute include technical improvements in methods of production, their adaptation to the workers and the abolition of any injurious methods of work, and the study of a just and objective method of remuneration of labour. In order to deal with these problems three sections on the psychotechnics, physiology, and physics of human labour have been established.

During the first two years of its existence the main work of the Institute has been the study of methods of detecting abilities. Terman's tests of general intelligence have been adapted; for investigating vocational abilities tests already elaborated in other countries have been taken over, while further tests have been drawn up based on the analytical and synthetic methods followed in similar tests (\*). Each test has been tried out on from five hundred to one thousand children. It is hoped shortly to publish most of the results obtained. The problem has been attacked from another aspect by analysing the chief operations involved in various occupations and thus constructing vocational monographs. Investigators are sent to different factories to observe the operations and movements executed by the workers. These observations are supplemented by questionnaires sent to labour inspectors and representatives of the trades in question. When the information collected is utilised in re-organising methods of production in factories, time and motion studies are also carried out.

A very important feature of the programme of the Institute of Psychotechnics is investigation of the just remuneration of labour. In

(\*) Ibid. Clauses 4-8.

(\*) Cf. INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE. *Problems and Methods of Vocational Guidance*, by Dr. Edouard CLAPARÈDE. Studies and Reports, Series J (Education), No. 1. Geneva, 1922. 79 pp. 2s., 40 cents.



co-operation with students of the Commercial College, enquiries have been set on foot regarding wages, production, etc. in various factories in Moravia and Silesia. The enquiries are still, however, in their initial stages.

In addition to its theoretical work the Institute carries on very interesting practical work in vocational guidance. As distinct from many similar institutions it attaches great importance to medical examination of the child. The results of this examination are used for scientific investigation of the influence on occupation of family, nationality, and race. Every child applying to the Institute for information regarding his capacities is first medically examined with great care. The doctor then draws up the child's genealogical table according to the statements of the parents, who have to be present with their child for the first examination. On a special form is noted all information on the environment in which the child has grown up. This form includes questions relating to brothers, sisters, parents, and paternal and maternal grandparents: their physique and mentality (normal and morbid), habits, occupations, growth, family feeling, social environment, hygienic conditions of the home, financial position, education, etc. The scientific value of this information depends on the goodwill, the memory, and the intelligence of the answerer. In order to gain the confidence of the parents, therefore, the doctor endeavours to show them that the sole object of these questions is to help their child. He guarantees complete secrecy. If the doctor doubts the reliability of the replies, the Institute endeavours to verify these through organisations for child welfare, etc.

After the genealogical table has been drawn up an exhaustive medical examination is conducted. The child's physical development is carefully examined, and notes are made of past illnesses, his position at school, his age of puberty, his temperament, conduct, habits, etc. In the anthropometric examination the child is measured by methods in use at the Institute of Paedology. The medical examination, strictly so-called, is most minute; if necessary radiographs are taken. Special attention is paid to defects of the respiratory system, the heart, the nervous system, and sight. As required in individual cases, these examinations are supplemented by tests of taste, smell, and hearing. The doctors at the Institute also test for the Pirquette serum reaction, and often for that of Wassermann also. Microscopic, chemical, and serological tests are given, and experimental examinations with the ophthalmoscope, laryngoscope, etc. As the Institute does not as yet possess laboratories for carrying out these experiments it uses the laboratories of the University Faculty of Medicine. The doctor then states his general impression as the result of the examination, and if the subject shows any signs of mental deficiency he is sent for examination by a psychiatrist.

The psychological examination follows the medical. Its object is to discover in each individual, as far as possible, his level of intelligence and his mental fitness for the chief occupations. The Terman tests are used to determine intellectual level. By this method it is possible to discover, in addition to general intelligence, other tendencies on which an approximate decision as to the child's future occupation may be based. By the use of suitable apparatus and tests the following mental functions are tested: attention (quality, scope, duration), memory, resistance to fatigue, ability to do monotonous work, concentration, reaction time, judgment, imagination, comprehension, and combination. In order to discover special aptitudes for a given occupa-

tion apparatus is used which obliges a subject to perform the same movements as are involved in handling machinery or tools in the factory. By this means the examiner tests the sense of form, measuring ability, manual dexterity, muscular strength, comprehension for technical work, imagination, etc.

When all possible information on the physical and psychological condition of the child has been collected and noted on a special form, the Institute of Psychotechnics sends the child with this form to the Prague vocational guidance office. In this office, after the results of all the investigations of the Institute and the desires expressed by the child or his parents have been considered, advice is given on the most suitable career or occupation and the child is found employment in a workshop or factory <sup>(6)</sup>.

Children who have been advised and found employment in factories are closely followed up by the Institute, which sends forms to their employers asking for information on the vocational skill and capacity of the apprentices. Six months after having entered employment the children return to the Institute for a further examination by which the Institute controls its previous experiments.

#### WORK OF THE STRASBURG VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE OFFICE IN 1922 <sup>(7)</sup>

The Vocational Guidance Office at Strasburg in a recently published report <sup>(8)</sup> states that the value of its work is increasingly manifest. The teachers in the schools have supported it enthusiastically, and the school medical service devotes the last inspection of the school year to vocational guidance of the children about to leave. The parents of the children show increasing confidence in the Office, and there is a growing tendency among employers not to accept apprentices unless they have been advised by the Office. Further evidence of the importance of the work of the Office is given by the number of requests for information received both from other parts of France and from abroad, and by the moral, technical, and financial support given to the Office by the members of its committee of management.

During the year 1,036 boys received advice. Of this proportion 623, or more than 60 per cent., visited the Office and received full vocational guidance; 393 or 38 per cent. did not apply to the Office, but were satisfactorily dealt with by advice given in class in the presence of the school doctor, the teacher, and the director of the Office. The Office made arrangements to distribute the examination of children over the whole year, so that the numbers coming for advice at Easter and during the summer holidays should not be too great. Of the 623 children examined at the Office 381 or 62 per cent. (as against 61 per cent. in 1921) were advised to follow their own choice of an occupation. In 96 cases (15 per cent., as against 11 per cent. in 1921) children were advised to adopt a trade similar to that which they had chosen, while only 78 candidates (13 per cent., as against 18 per cent. in 1921) were definitely advised not to enter the occupation they had chosen. The most popular occupational groups were the metal and metal-working

<sup>(6)</sup> For further information on the Prague vocational guidance office, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. V, No. 6, June 1922, pp. 997-998.

<sup>(7)</sup> Compare *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, Aug. 1922, pp. 286-290; No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 807.

<sup>(8)</sup> Julien FONTÈNE. *L'Activité de l'Office d'Orientation professionnelle de Strasbourg pendant l'année 1922*. 15 pp. Strasburg, Jan. 1923.

industries, commercial occupations, and the wood-working industries; the proportion of candidates wishing to enter these occupations was 34, 25, and 9.3 per cent. respectively (as against 31, 22, and 6 per cent. in 1921). Special efforts to attract children to the food and drink trades resulted in 45 candidates choosing occupations under this heading as against 18 in 1921. The number of those wishing to enter the printing and book industries rose from 17 in 1921 to 30 in 1922. The clothing trades attracted 10 candidates, as against 5 in 1921. The group of unskilled labourers is steadily disappearing, only 6 out of 623 children (i.e. hardly 1 per cent.) seeking to enter trades which require no training. Mr. Fontègne draws the attention of parents to the danger of allowing their children to enter commercial occupations without due consideration; 156 young people, or 25 per cent. of the total of 623, wished to train for commercial occupations; 116, or more than 74 per cent. of these, hoped to become clerks.

In connection with vocational guidance of country children the report mentions that between 1 February 1921, when the Office was founded, and 15 December 1922 197 country boys applied for guidance. They frequently expressed a desire to become, for example, motor mechanics or clerks, but the first endeavour of the Office was to keep them on the land by advising them either to take up actual agricultural work or to train for a rural trade. They were especially advised to become bakers, saddlers, shoemakers, wheelwrights, coopers, blacksmiths, tinsmiths, or fitters, as there is a shortage of workers of these classes in the country.

The placing of the children in employment was on the whole satisfactory; 483 candidates were referred to the municipal employment exchange at Strasburg. In addition, 12 were found employment at local exchanges, 22 entered technical trades, 3 became seamen, and 34 were advised to continue their education in other schools. Of the 483 children referred to the employment exchange 391 or 81 per cent. (as against 78 per cent. in 1921) actually applied there. Those actually placed in employment number 342 or 80 per cent. of the total; 11 are still in process of finding employment, and 38 will probably be placed, but their engagement has not yet been confirmed. Thus, with a few exceptions, all the children who came to the Vocational Guidance Office in 1922 are actually in employment. Only 8, or 2 per cent., did not accept the advice given them, but have been placed in some similar occupation.

The report also gives a survey of the work of the Office in vocational guidance for girls, a particularly difficult branch of its activities. Employers are not easily persuaded to accept as apprentices girls of 13, who are required to attend domestic economy classes and, if they are Protestants, classes for religious instruction in addition to continuation schools. Moreover, many parents keep their daughters at home for at least a year, and in any case the occupations open to girls are limited in number. In 1922 851 girls left the elementary schools; all of these received preliminary vocational guidance on the occasion of the medical inspection, when, in addition to the school doctor and nurse, the teacher and the vocational guidance secretary were present. The Vocational Guidance Office has accurate information regarding only 455 of these girls; 195 of them applied to the Office for advice, many of them several times, with the result that the total number of visits to the Office was 302. The women's section of the municipal employment exchange found employment, following on the advice given by the Vocational Guidance Office, for 156 girls in 1922.

## THE PROBLEM OF VOCATIONAL ABILITY

Mr. L. Rémy has now published (\*) his report on abilities, habits, reflexes, muscular memory, and the classification of abilities in relation to occupations, which was presented to the third International Conference on Psychotechnics held at Milan in October 1922 (10). The author arrives at his classification after describing the working and localisation of muscular memory, reflex abilities, and habit, and shows the importance of this classification in vocational guidance. He divides abilities into three classes : higher intellectual (ideal) abilities ; abilities of memory ; and abilities of sensation (acuity). Children endowed with many abilities are able to perform intellectual functions more perfectly than those not so endowed, and the guidance of children towards any given occupation should therefore be determined by their abilities. In order to classify abilities in relation to occupations, a parallel must be drawn between them and the faculties required for efficiency in the occupations. In the author's opinion, if every child had a high degree of ideal, memory, and sensation ability it could enter any occupation. On the other hand, a child with one ability, whether of intellect, memory, or sensation, which was developed to the practical exclusion of other faculties, would not be fit for any trade. The practice of an occupation therefore requires one specialised ability and as high a degree as possible of other abilities. Occupations may therefore be described by three terms, the first indicating the essential ability and the two others, in order of decreasing importance, the other factors in the work. On this basis, Mr. Rémy divides occupations into two principal groups : (1) intellect-memory-sensation occupations, which are suitable for children whose ability is localised in the higher intellectual centres and which also require a good memory ; the sensory organs are less important in these occupations ; (2) memory-sensation-intellect occupations. In these occupations the higher intellectual functions, although necessary, play a relatively insignificant part. The memory functions, however, are directly involved in anything affecting the sensory organs. Memory and the sense organs are the chief factors in manual occupations, which are therefore included under the second heading. The author makes two sub-divisions of this group : (a) trades requiring a greater degree of higher intellectual ability (e.g. engineers, electricians, printers, etc.) ; (b) mechanical trades which do not bring the higher intellectual faculties into play, but require peripheral sensory faculties. These last are further subdivided into : (i) memory-sensation-movement trades, where the greatest efficiency is achieved by means of visual, auditory, tactile, and other reflexes (e.g. typists, knitters, etc.) ; (ii) memory-muscle trades, which require muscular memory more than anything else (e.g. most occupations in modern factory industry).

## ABILITY TESTS FOR PRINTERS

The apprenticeship regulations for the German printing and book industries require the establishment of a test of mental aptitude for the trades of compositor and printer, based on the methods of applied

(\*) *Bulletin de l'Office intercommunal de Bruxelles*, No. 6, Oct. 1922. Brussels.

(10) Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 6, Dec. 1922, pp. 1004-1005.

psychology. In accordance with this regulation a psychological test of ability for compositors and printers was instituted for the first time at the Munich Printing School at the beginning of the school year 1921-1922. In the current school year these tests are to be repeated. The preparation of the tests was entrusted to the Munich Institute of Education and Psychology, which has now published the results of its work <sup>(11)</sup>. The first section of this report consists of a psychological analysis of the occupations of compositor and printer, the second deals with methods of preparing tests, while the last section considers their value.

The chief requirement for a compositor is ability to take in large sections of manuscript at a single glance and to reproduce them word for word. In addition, he must be able to summon up individual word pictures rapidly and certainly, to supply deficiencies, and correct errors. He must also have a sense of suitable and pleasing arrangement. In view of this, Mr. Huth made use of tests drawn up by himself and of those previously published by Piorkowsky, Lipmann, and Kreis. The abilities tested were : (1) ability to write correctly, noting and completing defective or illegible text ; (2) comprehension of verbal matter ; (3) rapidity of work ; (4) sense of arrangement ; and (5) logical thought.

The chief requirement in a printer is ability to distinguish the finest shades of colour and tone. He must also be able to distribute his attention over a number of objects and to maintain it at the same level for a considerable period, in spite of distraction of sight or sound. He is therefore tested in : (1) power to distinguish colours and tones ; (2) distribution of attention ; (3) sense of machinery ; (4) constancy of attention ; (5) intelligence (logical thought) ; (6) resistance to distraction ; (7) rapidity of work.

The primary object of these tests was to detect from the beginning those apprentices who were obviously unfitted for the work. They were also intended as a guide to apprentices who were in doubt whether to become compositors or printers, and to grade the apprentices who were accepted according to their vocational ability, and thus serve as a partial basis for teachers' reports in the vocational school.

In conclusion it is stated that the results of the tests and the reports of the vocational school coincided to a most satisfactory degree, a statement which is supported (p. 26) by statistics.

#### BIBLIOGRAPHY ON VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

A bibliography on vocational guidance, including 885 books and articles in periodicals, has recently been published by Professor O. Lippmann, director of the Berlin Institute of Vocational and Industrial Psychology <sup>(12)</sup>. In addition to scientific works, the bibliography includes popular articles in the daily press, which bring questions of industrial psychology before the general public and the political parties.

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<sup>(11)</sup> Albert HUTH. *Die Münchener Eignungsprüfung für Buchbinder und Schriftsetzer* ; in the series *Schriften zur Psychologie der Berufseignung und des Wirtschaftslebens*, edited by O. LIPMANN and W. STERN. Leipzig, Barth. 1922.

<sup>(12)</sup> O. LIPMANN. *Bibliographie zur psychologischen Berufsberatung, Berufseignungsforschung, und Berufskunde* ; in the series *Schriften zur Psychologie der Berufseignung und des Wirtschaftslebens*, edited by O. LIPMANN and W. STERN. Leipzig, Barth. 1922.

A systematic subject index is appended to the bibliography, but the compiler admits that this is incomplete, as it was impossible to note some works under all the headings to which they belonged. German literature is in the majority, as foreign works on the subject which appeared during the war have only come to the notice of the compiler to a limited extent.

## Vocational Education

### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

THE Statistical Office of Czechoslovakia has recently published interesting statistics and information on the organisation of vocational education in that country <sup>(1)</sup>. The schools are divided into three main classes: industrial and trade schools, workers' continuation schools, and agricultural schools. In many cases the title "school" is given to a group of classes or special sections attached to a central institution; continuation schools are frequently so attached to other schools.

The highest grade among the industrial and trade schools is occupied by the School of Industrial Art at Prague, which trains workers and instructors in applied art and drawing. State technical schools include both industrial high schools and master-workers' schools. The course at the first of these lasts for four years. Students are admitted from the age of 14 upwards, and on passing their leaving examination may go on to the Polytechnic College to continue their studies in their own branch of industry. The main industries covered in these schools are engineering, building, electricity, chemistry, and textiles. Successful students are qualified to set up as independent manufacturers or as technical workers in large establishments. Master-workers' schools accept students from 17 years of age upwards who have already completed their apprenticeship. In some cases previous practice of the trade is required. A number of the special schools and courses noted below are attached to these schools.

Special trade schools for different branches of industries with courses varying from 2 to 4 years are also to be found. Occasionally these schools take the form of workshop schools where purely practical instruction is given. Various special schools of basket making, lace making, and embroidery, like the preceding class, are maintained directly by the state.

Country artisans' schools are maintained in Bohemia by the provincial authorities. They give preliminary instruction in preparation for a trade, and pupils may be admitted at as low an age as 12.

Special trade schools for girls are at present chiefly maintained by private associations or municipalities and subsidised by the state. By an Act of 17 February 1922 they are to be reorganised and brought under state control, but this Act has not yet come into force. These schools include a training college for instructors; domestic high schools for women which, in addition to general and practical instruction in domestic economy, train pupils for administrative work in hospitals, asylums, orphanages, bath-establishments, etc.; domestic economy schools with a course of from two to three years (in some cases the

<sup>(1)</sup> *Rapports de l'Office de Statistique de la République Tchécoslovaque*, No. 23, 1922. Prague.

third year is spent in a workshop). A number of special short courses in household management, cookery, dressmaking, shorthand and typewriting, languages, etc., are attached to these schools.

A certificate of proficiency granted by a technical or special trade school may partly or wholly replace certificates of apprenticeship or of practical work in a workshop, documents which are essential for those wishing to set up an independent business.

The workers' continuation schools were founded with a view to supplementing the practical training of apprentices in factories. In addition to practical and technical instruction a certain amount of general education is given. Attendance is compulsory for all apprentices, and employers are obliged to release them for classes in the afternoon. Occasionally classes are held in the evening, but this is now exceptional. Continuation schools may either be general, for apprentices in all trades in the district, or specialised. As was noted above, some of these schools are attached to groups of technical schools.

The following table shows the number of schools and pupils in the school year 1921-1922.

TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA IN 1921-1922

Type of school	Number of schools		Number of pupils			
	Main groups	Sections or schools	Czecho-slovak	German	Other nationalities	Total
<i>Trade and industrial schools</i>						
School of Industrial Art	1	18	255	20	6	281
State technical schools	28	116	9,106	4,000	366	13,472
Special trade schools						
Textile	25	44	1,853	1,634	48	3,535
Wood	12	41	993	541	39	1,573
Metal	4	10	509	372	13	894
Mining	6	7	519	157	13	689
Other trades	27	70	1,877	2,412	144	4,433
Various special schools						
Basket making	10	11	160	42	13	215
Lace making	30	34	368	1,469	3	1,840
Embroidery	3	3	935	—	—	935
Country artisans' schools	3	5	95	—	—	95
Vocational schools for girls	103	130	16,231	2,376	199	18,806
<b>Total</b>	<b>252</b>	<b>489</b>	<b>32,901</b>	<b>13,023</b>	<b>844</b>	<b>46,768</b>
<i>Workers' continuation schools</i>						
General		950	66,910	29,095	4,304	100,309
Special		330	34,656	4,294	196	39,146
<b>Total</b>		<b>1,280</b>	<b>101,566</b>	<b>33,389</b>	<b>4,500</b>	<b>139,455</b>
<i>Agricultural schools</i>						
Agriculture		148	5,566	1,653	161	7,380
Horticulture, apple and vine growing		12	308	161	26	495
Rural domestic schools		38	841	271	42	1,154
Forestry		8	375	241	5	621
Agricultural continuation schools		293	12,868	2,100	494	15,462
<b>Total</b>		<b>499</b>	<b>19,958</b>	<b>4,426</b>	<b>728</b>	<b>25,112</b>
<b>Grand Total</b>		<b>2,268</b>	<b>154,425</b>	<b>50,838</b>	<b>6,072</b>	<b>211,935</b>

There are five grades of schools of agriculture in Czechoslovakia. The most advanced of these are the agricultural colleges, which have recently been re-organised. The secondary schools of agriculture, with a four-year course, train youths for the management of large and medium-sized estates, while the elementary schools of agriculture, with a two-year course, train managers of small farms, taking into account the special requirement of the various districts. The winter agricultural schools give a two-year course from November to April or May each year; they follow the general curriculum of the elementary schools. There are also a number of specialised agricultural schools dealing with meadow cultivation, dairying, distillery, etc., and a school of agricultural co-operation.

There are a number of schools of horticulture, apple growing and vine growing. Schools of forestry, of elementary and secondary grade, are also found. Rural domestic schools, both elementary and secondary, are fairly numerous, the courses ranging from five months to two years.

Most of the agricultural schools mentioned above are maintained or subsidised by the provincial authorities in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; in Slovakia they are maintained entirely by the state. The schools of agriculture and of horticulture are open to both boys and girls, but only a very small proportion of girls have entered them.

The agricultural continuation schools have almost all been established since 29 January 1920, when an Act on the subject was passed. The course, as a rule, lasts two years, but a third may be added. The instruction given deals with agricultural production, co-operation and insurance, and, for the girls, domestic economy. All children over 12 living within six kilometres of an agricultural continuation school are compelled to attend it. The schools are set up by local authorities, private associations, or agricultural societies, but are subsidised by the provincial and central governments. The latter pays the teachers' salaries. In Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia the schools are maintained entirely at state expense.

#### VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN THE KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES

General trade schools and commercial schools were established in Serbia by the Industrial Act of 1910 and the Order of 1912<sup>(2)</sup>. The object of these schools is to supply their pupils with all the knowledge required to carry on a particular trade. All apprentices are admitted to the trade schools on leaving the elementary schools, and attendance was made compulsory by the Trade Schools Act of 30 March 1922. No apprentice is recognised as qualified without the training provided by these schools.

Trade schools are under the immediate control of the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Maintenance expenses are defrayed partly by the local authorities and partly by the Ministry. The instructors are for the most part loaned by local elementary and secondary schools. There are at present 94 of these schools in Serbia with a total of 13,000 pupils, while the three schools in Montenegro have 258 pupils. A slightly different system of trade and commercial schools, though on the same lines as those in Serbia, exists in Voivodina, formerly Hungarian territory. The system has now been

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(2) *Trgovinski Glasnik*, 15, 16, 17 Dec. 1922. Belgrade.



supplemented and modified by the Trade Schools Order. The number of such schools in Voivodina is 54, with a total of 9,500 pupils.

Under the former Austrian legislation trade continuation schools in Croatia and Slavonia formed part of the elementary school system, and therefore remain for the present under the control of the Ministry of Education; they number 48 with 5,500 pupils. Vocational training in Bosnia and Herzegovina was comparatively neglected under Austro-Hungarian rule, and as a result there are only 14 trade schools with 1,300 pupils in these provinces. The same may be said of Dalmatia, where there are only 8 continuation schools with a total of 500 pupils. In Slovenia, on the other hand, continuation schools were favoured, the number reaching 42, with 4,000 pupils.

In addition to these schools special vocational courses for various trades are established in the larger towns, with 14 specialised elementary trade schools. There are also secondary trade schools and a number of other vocational schools in the most important industrial centres of the country. A high standard of practical skill, as well as theoretical knowledge, is acquired.

Vocational training for women has also been considerably developed in Serbia. The training of women for the trades most suited to their abilities is at present carried on in 110 schools, most of which are in Serbia.

In view of the success of the various vocational schools, the Ministry of Commerce and Industry is considering steps for the establishment of further schools on these lines.

#### TECHNICAL TRAINING IN THE FRENCH METAL TRADES

The Association of French Master Engineers, Boilermakers, and Founders (*Syndicat des mécaniciens, chaudronniers et fondeurs de France*) has endeavoured since 1910 to give its members definite advice on the organisation of apprenticeship and vocational training, and to set up a general scheme of recruiting, placing, and training their apprentices<sup>(3)</sup>. A recruiting campaign is conducted among children leaving the elementary schools, lectures being given to show the advantages of manual work and to illustrate the nature of the industries represented in the Association. The placing of the children in employment is carried out by a permanent office which keeps in touch with employers on the one hand and on the other with the children's families and the welfare committees of the Paris district. To facilitate practical training in the workshop, a model apprenticeship contract was drawn up in 1912. Competitions between apprentices in Paris and the provinces are organised every year as a standard of progress and an incentive to the apprentices. Owing to the large number of entries (542 in 1921, 816 in 1922) the number of competitions has been halved, and last year 381 candidates went through all the competitions.

Vocational classes for the training of apprentices have been organised in the manufacturing districts and suburbs of Paris. This work was suspended during the war, but in 1919 the training committee drew up a model programme with a view to standardising instruction. This programme is spread over the three-year course

<sup>(3)</sup> *Journal du Travail*, weekly supplement to the *Journée Industrielle*, 14-15 Jan. 1923. Paris. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VII, No. 1, Jan. 1923, p. 136.

which apprentices have to take. In 1920 the committee drew up a definite programme for the different specialised trades. The average attendances at the classes between November 1921 and June 1922 were from 700 to 825 in the first year of the course, from 260 to 280 in the second, and from 20 to 30 in the third. At the beginning of the school year 1922-1923 75 courses were set up and at the end of November 1,700 pupils had been enrolled.

The Association selects its instructors from among engineers, workshop managers, and designers, mainly graduates of the schools of crafts and trades (*écoles d'arts et métiers*). In order to secure regularity of attendance an attendance book is kept, and checked by the employer, and an inspector appointed by the Association visits the various classes daily. To defray the cost of training, the Association at the beginning of 1922 voted an initial levy of 2 francs per worker employed on all its members in the Paris district. It is hoped that the educational work will thereby be considerably extended.

#### COMMERCIAL APPRENTICESHIP IN SWEDEN

On 15 November 1922 the Swedish Merchants' Association (*Sveriges Köpmannaförbund*) sent a letter to the Swedish Government expressing the hope that the Apprenticeship Act at present under consideration should be put into force as soon as possible and extended to cover commerce (\*). This has already been done in several other countries. In Denmark there are a large number of apprentices in commerce, and this has had a very good effect on vocational efficiency; an Apprenticeship Act, including commerce, was passed in 1889 and replaced in 1921 by another Act. The majority of the States of Germany have similar legislation. An apprenticeship Bill has been drawn up in Norway, and it is stated to be only a question of time before a similar Bill is introduced in Sweden.

The desirability of including commerce in the Apprenticeship Act has been very generally recognised in Swedish commercial circles; the Merchants' Association, however, points out the need of care in drafting the provisions of such an Act so that no burden is imposed on employers or apprentices and that no divergence of interest between them is allowed to appear. The provisions should be made elastic so that they can be adapted to varying conditions in different parts of the country and different branches of commerce.

#### TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN BENGAL

The report of the Bengal Department of Industries for the year ending 31 December 1921 states that the development of technical and industrial education received most serious attention (\*). Schools have been set up for training apprentices in railway and engineering workshops, and progress was made with the scheme for improving the training of miners in the coalfields. The government weaving institute at Serampore has been most successful. The system of granting loans

(\*) *Social Demokraten*, 16 Nov. 1922. Stockholm.

(\*) *Bengal Government Gazette*, 29 Nov. 1922. Calcutta. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 813.

to ex-students of weaving schools for the purchase of machinery proved popular, and has enabled many of the students to make a successful start. During the year schemes for the establishment of industrial, commercial, and junior technical schools were under consideration; these schemes are now complete, and it is proposed to start at once two schools of each of these types.

#### TRAINING OF WORKERS IN INDUSTRY IN THE UNITED STATES

The first annual convention of the National Personnel Association, which was held at Pittsburg from 8 to 10 November, devoted the majority of its programme to problems of vocational training<sup>(6)</sup>. The Association was recently formed by the amalgamation of the National Association of Corporation Training and the Industrial Relations Association of America.

A report on apprentice training advocated the establishment of a centralised scheme of training controlled by a national body representative of manufacturing, educational, and publishing interests. It was pointed out that Wisconsin is at present the only State with an apprenticeship system regulated by law. The co-operation of the schools in such a system may be of great value, both by the inclusion in the curriculum of the elementary schools of subjects which emphasise the value of apprenticeship and by adapting instruction in the continuation schools to supplement the practical training of apprentices in industry. The importance of making special provision for the training of newly engaged workers was repeatedly emphasised. In emergency conditions a special vestibule school may be set up to initiate new employees, but in any case the latter should be put in the special charge of some worker or workers during the initial period of adaptation. Other methods of training are those of the shop school, where new workers are taught to set up and handle their tools or machinery in a special class; the group method, where the new worker is taught by the various members of an individual production group; and special forms of instruction for clerks and similar workers, where even in large plants only a comparatively small number are employed.

A report on the use of psychological tests and ratings was submitted, showing that these may be of value both in the selection and training of workers. It was stated that an increasingly large number of industrial firms and public utility services were adopting the new systems of training.

After considering the special problems presented by the training of foremen and executives, the convention discussed co-operation between the educational and industrial systems. Emphasis was laid on the growing importance of the human factor in industry. It was stated that an investigation of 500 offices in small plants located in ten large industrial cities showed that the introduction of even a limited educational programme had led to a 50 per cent. decrease in errors and a 30 per cent. increase in production. The schools should provide a sound educational grounding, especially in social and economic problems, so that on entering industry workers and technical experts alike would be able to handle these problems as impartially as those of material and machinery. Industrial establishments should assist education by endowing research, professorships, and lectureships, by helping to provide the necessary educational equipment, and in cam-

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<sup>(6)</sup> *Iron Trade Review*, 16 Nov. 1922, pp. 1357-1358. Cleveland, Ohio.

paigns to enlist public support for education. One speaker summed up the discussion by stating that educational progress and industrial prosperity were closely dependent on each other.

A contribution to the discussion of problems of vocational education was made in a recent article on the training of apprentices<sup>(7)</sup>. The author refers to the disappearance of the old system of apprenticeship with the development of modern factory industry, which for the most part requires only unskilled or highly specialised workers. The problem of training in modern times, therefore, resolves itself into (1) training the great mass of unskilled or specialised workers, and (2) training the comparatively small proportion of workers with a high degree of general skill now required. It is complained that present systems of apprenticeship training involve a needlessly rigid period of apprenticeship regardless of individual capacities. Owing to the length of the period few boys are willing to sign an apprenticeship agreement, many drop out before the completion of their training, and too often those who finish it are either insufficiently trained or have been kept back to conform to the slower progress of their less able neighbours. The turnover of apprentices is stated to be excessive, the methods of instruction are often poor, and sufficient care is not exercised in selecting apprentices.

Mr. Kornhauser proposes a new system of training, where the course and not the period of instruction shall be clearly defined, and progress measured by ability. The application of this new method in the machine shop of a large machinery plant has given most satisfactory results. The apprentices are trained entirely "on the job", with the exception of one half-day per week, which is devoted to classes in school but paid as working time. The object of the training is both trade skill and citizenship. The basis of the system of training is a series of apprentice manuals, each manual covering a definite and limited course and specifying the accomplishments required at the conclusion of each section. These manuals serve at once as a measure of progress, a stimulus to interest, and a means of instruction. They are based on careful analysis of the processes to be learned, and prepared in consultation with foremen and workers in the shop. At the end of each section of the course, as outlined in the manual, the apprentice is required to pass certain "job tests" and oral examinations, and his progress is measured by the results of these combined with his foreman's opinion of his ability and conduct. The apprentices are distributed through all departments of the shop but are under the control of the apprentice supervisor.

The author claims that this plan of apprentice training "makes clear the opportunities and responsibilities of both apprentice and management. The time of training is shortened; the quality of training is improved; the scope of training is widened".

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(7) A. W. KORNHAUSER. *A Plan of Apprenticeship Training*, in the *Journal of Personnel Research*, Vol. I, No. 5, Sept. 1922, pp. 215-230. Baltimore.

# Notes on Workers' Education

## AN INTERNATIONAL PEOPLE'S COLLEGE

**I**N September 1921 an International People's College was founded in Denmark to provide "education of an international kind". The aim of the college <sup>(1)</sup> is to bring together working men and women of various countries for a year's residential study. A religious impulse led to its foundation, and the hope of the promoters of the college is that it may be of use in promoting the application of Christian ethics to the solution of international problems of citizenship. The college is situated at Helsingør, on the east coast of Denmark, and can accommodate from thirty to forty students. It is controlled by a Danish Council of 23 members, representing trade unions, co-operative societies, the Socialist Party, ministers of religion, members of Parliament, and university professors. An executive committee of three appointed by this Council is responsible for the general management of the college. Co-operating committees have been formed in Great Britain, the United States, and Germany. These committees are responsible for the dissemination of information, the raising of a national fund to assist the college, and the selection of students. Apart from a grant of 5,000 kroner from the Danish Government, the college is financed entirely by private subscriptions. Scholarships to cover either wholly or in part the cost of board, lodging, and tuition are provided, many of them by trade unions and co-operative societies for their own members. The fee for the nine months' course (September to June) is £60.

The curriculum centres round the study of man as a member of society. Sociology; economic, political, and religious history; literature; working-class organisations; the modern industrial system; and ethical, philosophical, and religious problems of citizenship are among the subjects studied, in all cases in their international aspects. In the first six months of the session languages occupy an important place in the curriculum. The college endeavours to make each student proficient in at least one language in addition to his own. In the first year Danish, English, Esperanto, and German were taught. During these first six months students are grouped according to their native language, but towards the end of the session instruction is given in a single language, usually English. Music forms part both of the cultural and recreational programme. There are 40 acres of land attached to the college, and each student is required to work on this land for at least three hours per day. Apart from its educational value, this arrangement makes it possible to keep the fees relatively low.

The English method of tutorial classes is largely followed in order to adapt instruction to the individual requirements of the students, though in other respects the college follows the model of the existing Danish people's high schools (*Folkshøjskole*).

For the first year's course (1921-1922) 25 students of eight nationalities were enrolled. The countries represented included Denmark, Great Britain, Ireland, the Netherlands, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, and the United States. For the second session, the opening of which

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(1) Information supplied by the authorities of the college.

was delayed through financial difficulties until 5 January, about 28 students of some four different nationalities were enrolled. Most of the students have previously received an elementary school education, in some cases a secondary education, supplemented by private study. The previous occupations of the students vary very widely. The majority are industrial workers, but university students and agricultural workers are also represented. Of the first year's students, many have returned to their old occupations; a few are continuing their education elsewhere.

A special three months' course, beginning on 1 April 1923, is to be held at the college. Lectures and discussions will be held mainly in English, and the subjects studied will, in the main, follow the general curriculum of the year's course. The fee for the three months' course is £20.

It is claimed that, quite apart from the actual instruction received, the contact with men and women of other nationalities is a valuable factor in the education of the students, and that the college, even though on a small scale, is contributing to the cause of international understanding and co-operation.

#### EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES IN GREAT BRITAIN

The extension of the educational system and the increased provision of facilities for adult education have frequently been under consideration in Great Britain, both prior and subsequent to the partial suspension of the Education Act of 1918. The following sections give some account of expressions of opinion and recommendations recently put forward by various bodies.

##### *Recommendations of the Adult Education Committee*

In April 1921 an Adult Education Committee was established under the auspices of the Board of Education to promote the development of liberal education for adults and to co-ordinate the work of Local Education Authorities and voluntary organisations in the sphere of adult education.

The Committee have recently issued two reports on adult education in rural areas and among women<sup>(2)</sup>. In the first of these the Committee call attention to the peculiar difficulties inherent in any scheme of adult education in country districts. Sparseness of population, difficulties of transport, of providing adequate teaching staff, absence of suitable buildings, and the isolation and diffidence of the country man as compared with the town dweller are prominent. It is pointed out, however, that with careful organisation these difficulties can be overcome, as is shown by the success already achieved by certain Local Education Authorities and voluntary organisations. The Workers' Educational Association and the Young Men's Christian Association have, in some districts, organised educational work with no little success, although in the main they are concerned with urban life. The National Federation of Women's Institutes, to which further

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<sup>(2)</sup> GREAT BRITAIN. BOARD OF EDUCATION, ADULT EDUCATION COMMITTEE. Paper No. 3. *The Development of Adult Education in Rural Areas*. 52 pp. Paper No. 4. *The Development of Adult Education for Women*. 50 pp. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1922. 6d. each.

reference is made below, and the Village Clubs Association, on the other hand, have concentrated on the possibilities of educational work in villages and country towns. The Rural Library Schemes of the Carnegie Trust, in co-operation with Local Education Authorities, have already done much to meet the need of books.

The Committee states that some form of county organisation is essential to the success of schemes of rural education, culminating in a national council to secure the co-operation of all bodies concerned. In individual villages it should be quite possible, by encouraging initiative and co-operation, to provide and manage a village hall on a democratic basis. A nucleus of teachers, whether provided by university or other organisations, is essential to meet the needs of the scattered rural communities. A further development of the Carnegie Trust Rural Library Schemes is recommended as solving most, if not all, of the difficulties connected with the supply of books. As regards teaching methods, it is recommended that the approach should generally be from the informal to the formal type of instruction, beginning with social activities and working through introductory lectures and short courses to the more formal and intensive classes. The Committee suggests that Board of Education grants should be increased and made more elastic to meet the special needs of rural areas.

The report on adult education for women surveys existing educational provision for women, dealing first with classes conducted by or in co-operation with university authorities. The Committee states that the system of mixed classes is educationally sound, but that more attention should be paid to the special needs of women. It is said that few women are able to undertake to follow an advanced class extending over three years, and that this constitutes an argument for increasing the number of one-year classes. It is also suggested that :

For the considerable proportion of women who wish to continue their education in an ordered succession of subjects, the method of university extension fully carried out is more likely to be attractive, and, on the whole, is more suitable than the method of the tutorial class<sup>(3)</sup>.

The educational work of trade unions and co-operative societies is commended, especially in the form of summer schools and week-end schools. The Women's Co-operative Guild aims mainly at training for more effective and intelligent participation in the co-operative movement, but the effect of its work has been to raise the general level of education within the movement. Reference is made to the report of the Trade Union Education Enquiry Committee<sup>(4)</sup>, especially the sections referring specifically to facilities for women. The provision of more advanced and intensive instruction in residential colleges, such as Ruskin College, the Beckenham College for Working Women<sup>(5)</sup>, and the residential winter schools of the National Adult School Union, is commended, but it is suggested that admission should be limited to students who have already made substantial progress in their

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<sup>(3)</sup> It may be noted that these conclusions of the Committee have been strongly criticised by the Workers' Educational Association. (See *The Highway*, Jan. and Mar. 1923. London).

<sup>(4)</sup> *Report on Educational Facilities for Trade Unionists by a Committee of Enquiry set up at a Conference Representative of National Trade Unions held in London on 16 October 1920.* Caledonian Pamphlet No. 2. London, Caledonian Press. 1920. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 816.

<sup>(5)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 819.

studies. The Committee is of opinion that fuller opportunities for working girls to continue their education at existing women's colleges at the universities should be provided.

After referring to the social study departments of certain universities and the value of the Women Citizens' Associations, the report considers forms of education based upon the home as the centre of interest, but attempting to provide a wider outlook. Under this heading a description is given of the Women's Institutes under the London County Council and similar institutions, which are social as well as educational centres. The National Federation of Women's Institutes, a purely rural organisation, has done much to stimulate educational and social activities in the villages. A large number of courses of lectures and classes are given in the institutes, and local handicrafts have been successfully encouraged. Less formal but undoubtedly educational work is carried on by girls' clubs, Girl Guides and the welfare departments of certain firms.

In this case, as in the previous report, the Committee recommend that the Board of Education should recognise well-balanced programmes of educational activity for purposes of grants without the limitations at present imposed.

### *Adult Students and the Universities*

The British Institute of Adult Education held its first week-end conference from 29 September to 2 October 1922 at Oxford<sup>(6)</sup>. The Institute was founded in 1921, as a branch of the World Association for Adult Education, with the object of conducting propaganda in favour of increased facilities for adult education and research in methods and standards in this type of education. The conference first discussed and, in general, strongly endorsed the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Oxford and Cambridge Universities to the effect that "the work of extra-mural education should become a normal and necessary part of the work of the University", also that a limited number of adult students, drawn chiefly from the working classes, should be admitted to the universities themselves<sup>(7)</sup>. It was pointed out that the extension of extra-mural education, through tutorial classes or otherwise, involved the development of a new technique of teaching distinct from that adopted within the walls of the universities. The comparative maturity of adult working-class students as compared with university undergraduates made this essential. The admission of working-class students to the universities was recognised to present special difficulties, which were not, however, regarded as insuperable.

Attention was called to the fact that in most universities the technological courses attracted an increasingly large proportion of students as compared with the humanities. The tendency in tutorial and similar classes, however, was in the other direction. In the early days of extra-mural classes economic and similar "applied" subjects had been the most popular, but were now steadily being superseded by literature, philosophy, etc. It is possible that this may help to

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(6) BRITISH INSTITUTE OF ADULT EDUCATION. *Report of the Proceedings of the Oxford Conference, held at Balliol College from 29 September to 2 October 1922.* Oxford Chronicle Co. 25 pp.

(7) ROYAL COMMISSION ON OXFORD AND CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITIES. *Report.* Cmd. 1588. London, H. M. Stationery Office. 1922. Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 817.



avert the danger becoming increasingly evident within the universities of overshadowing cultural by technical education.

The conference then discussed the importance of social studies for adult students. These included history as a basis, followed by economics as an impartial science, and political science. It was pointed out that social science was pre-eminently suited for adult students, with their greater maturity of outlook, knowledge of social and economic realities, and critical attitude.

### *Facilities for Secondary Education*

The Labour Party has frequently demanded free and universal secondary education, and on the partial suspension of the Education Act of 1918 issued a statement of its policy in this matter<sup>(\*)</sup>. The book is in the main a protest against the present organisation of education, and especially of secondary education, in England and Wales. It is stated that the distinction between "elementary" and "secondary" education is one of class and not of education. School attendance is generally compulsory between the ages of 6 and 14, but, while admission to the elementary school, covering these ages, is free, the secondary school, covering the same ages and those up to 18 or 19, charges fees. It is possible, but both difficult and rare, for working-class children to pass, by means of scholarships or "free places", from the elementary to the secondary school. In 1919 the proportion of children in the elementary schools between the ages of 10 and 11 who entered grant-aided secondary and technical schools in England was only 9.5 per cent. At the same period the number of children in grant-aided secondary schools, junior technical, and similar schools was only equal to 8.7 per 1,000 of the total population of England.

Attention is called to the shortage of secondary school accommodation, of free places and maintenance allowances for working-class children in these schools, and of teachers. It is stated that the part-time day continuation schools, which were to have been set up under the Education Act of 1918, were palliatives rather than reforms of existing evils in the educational system. Central schools and junior technical schools are similarly regarded. While at present outgrowths on the elementary school system, they should form a part of secondary education, for which continuation schools are a totally inadequate substitute. It is suggested that the suspension of the 1918 Education Act may, in the long run, have the advantage of allowing time for further consideration of the principles on which the educational system is based, and lead to more radical reform.

The policy of the Labour Party with regard to secondary education is summarised. Its ultimate objective is free and universal secondary education. Realising, however, that the attainment of this ideal will take time, the Party puts forward a number of transitional measures. The first of these is the abolition of fees in secondary schools, to be gradually attained by increasing the number of free places and the number and value of maintenance allowances. Secondary school accommodation should be increased to provide for not less than 20 per 1,000 of the population. In order to facilitate this, the preparatory departments of fee-charging secondary schools should be abolished,

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(\*) TAWNEY, R. H. (ed.). *Secondary Education for All. A Policy for Labour*. Edited for the Education Advisory Committee of the Labour Party. London, the Labour Party and Allen and Unwin. 1922. 155 pp.

and junior technical and central schools should be remodelled and recognised as secondary schools. An adequate transport service should be provided in rural districts in order to overcome the difficulties which prevent many country children from attending secondary schools.

The division of education into "elementary" and "secondary", as hitherto interpreted, is characterised as "educationally unsound and socially obnoxious". All schools should be graded as (1) primary, sub-divided into nursery and infant schools for children up to the age of 7, and preparatory schools for all children between 7 and 12; (2) secondary, for all children between 12 and 16 or 18; (3) higher, including university and similar education. It is claimed that transference from the primary to the secondary school should depend solely upon the ability of the child to benefit by it, and that no distinction of intellectual standard should be made, as is at present too often the case, between children applying for free places and fee-paying children. Part-time continued education is not regarded as a substitute for secondary education; the continuation school should follow on secondary and not primary education.

It is also pointed out that, if public opinion on education is to be intelligent, full reports and statistics on education should be published annually.

In conclusion, the vexed question of the cost of these proposals is discussed. In reply to the argument that the nation cannot afford them because its taxable capacity has been reached and passed, Sir Josiah Stamp's words are quoted to the effect that the limit of taxable capacity "depends upon the reasons for, or subjects upon, which the money is to be spent". Expenditure on education and its increase from 1913 to 1922 is compared with the cost of armaments, the profits of certain well-known companies, and the volume of taxable income in Great Britain. The proportion of the national expenditure devoted to education has fallen from 7.28 per cent. in 1913-1914 to 4.9 per cent. in 1921-1922 (\*). "The total sum spent on higher education in 1913-1914 was slightly less than the sum paid to rather less than four thousand owners of mineral royalties." "The salaries of 16,000 teachers for continuation schools under the Act of 1918, at an average of £300 a year, would have been £4,800,000, or slightly less than the profits . . . made in a single year — 1919 — by a single firm . . ." In short, it is argued that the nation has not reached the limit of what it can afford, and that money which should be spent on education is being wasted on unnecessary expenditure elsewhere.

#### REORGANISATION OF THE WORKER'S EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

The growth of the educational movement among working-class organisations such as trade unions, co-operative societies, and clubs has led the Workers' Educational Association to propose alterations in its constitution by which fuller recognition may be given to such bodies (<sup>10</sup>).

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(\*) The money expenditure on public education was 156 (*Cambridge House Bulletins* quoted by Tawney) or 168 (Geddes Committee) per cent. greater in 1921-1922 than in 1913-1914, but if account is taken of the considerable fall in the value of money the increase is much less important. The increase in the cost of living over the same period is given as 114.6 per cent.

(<sup>10</sup>) *The Highway*, Dec. 1922. London.

Reference has already been made in the *Review* to the Workers' Educational Trade Union Committee<sup>(11)</sup>. The preliminary work of this committee was done entirely by trade union representatives, who subsequently called in representatives of the Workers' Educational Association for advice and assistance.

Representation on the Central Executive of the Association will therefore be granted to the General Council of the Trades Union Congress, the Co-operative Union, the Working Men's Club and Institute Union, and the Tutorial Class Tutors' Association, as well as to the Workers' Educational Trade Union Committee. Similar provision for joint representation on district and local committees is also made. The proposed alterations are now being submitted to all members and branches of the organisation and if approved will come into force as from 1 June 1923.

#### LABOUR COLLEGE IN NOVA SCOTIA

Efforts have been made at Sydney and Glace Bay, Nova Scotia, to establish a labour college for the coal miners and steel workers of Cape Breton. Representatives of the workers in both centres have co-operated in obtaining lecturers for the coming term, when it is proposed to arrange a series of lectures by college professors and others. The new college is supported by the local miners' trade unions<sup>(12)</sup>.

#### ADULT EDUCATION IN NORWAY<sup>(13)</sup>

The Norwegian Labour Party has long taken an interest in the provision of educational facilities for its members, and courses of classes and lectures were organised in various centres from time to time. Although well attended and generally successful, these courses were not part of an organised educational movement. The desirability of substituting a more permanent organisation for these sporadic efforts was the subject of discussion at various national conferences of the Labour Party, and resulted recently in the appointment of a Central Committee for Socialist Education (*Central komiteen for den socialistiske skolevirksomhet*).

In 1919 the Labour Party appealed to the National Trade Union Federation and to its constituent trade unions to co-operate in founding a labour school, and, through the joint action of these organisations, the Socialist School of the Labour Party (*den socialistiske Partiskole*) was founded at Christiania. The school is open to trade unionists and members of the Labour Party only. Classes are held during the day, and attended by working men and women from all parts of Norway. Trade unions and local branches of the Labour Party frequently provide scholarships for their younger members in order to enable them to attend the school. When first founded, the courses at the school lasted for three months, but they have now been extended to six months. The subjects taught are the Norwegian language, economics, sociology, Socialism, modern political history, the history of the labour movement, socialisation, practical organisation and propaganda, and journalism.

<sup>(11)</sup> *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, p. 816.

<sup>(12)</sup> *Labour Gazette* of Canada, Oct. 1922. Ottawa.

<sup>(13)</sup> From information supplied by Mrs. Betsy KJELSBERG, Government Woman Factory Inspector, and Norwegian Government Delegate to the International Labour Conference.

Instruction is given both by lectures and discussion classes. The students are required to do written work and prepare lectures, which are then criticised by the instructors.

In addition to instruction in the specific subjects already mentioned, great importance is attached to extending the outlook and general knowledge of the students. Particular attention is paid to present-day problems, their causes, origins, and claim on the individual and society. In order to give to this instruction the greatest possible value, the school invites well known persons to give occasional lectures on such subjects.

It is the aim of the Labour Party eventually to establish a labour university in Norway. This aim will probably not be realised for some time to come, but the Socialist School of the Labour Party may be regarded as a first step in this direction.

The Labour Party has also organised evening schools in various centres, where opportunity offers. Here again only trade unionists and members of the Party are admitted to the classes. Each student pays an entrance fee of 10 kroner, but no charge is made for tuition. The chief subjects taught in the evening schools are Socialism, socialisation, the Norwegian language, foreign languages, and book-keeping. One-third of the total time must be devoted to Socialism and socialisation. The courses last for three months, and classes are held three or five times a week for two hours each evening. The managing committee of the school fixes the hours and programmes of classes, but must consult the teachers and students before doing so.

The Socialist School and the evening schools are the chief features in the educational policy of the Norwegian Labour Party, but especially in recent years the Party has made many other efforts to broaden the education of its members. Many single courses of study have been organised, especially in foreign languages.

Apart from the work of the Labour Party, several organisations, including branches of the Women's Rights Association, have organised classes for women workers; no conditions attach to admission to these classes. Under the supervision of the woman factory inspector, classes have also been started to train working women in cookery, housekeeping, and child care.

#### PUBLIC LIBRARIES IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA

The Statistical Office of Czechoslovakia has recently collected some interesting figures illustrating the extent to which public libraries are established and used in that country<sup>(14)</sup>. An Act passed on 22 July 1919 required that all districts with more than 400 inhabitants and possessing an elementary school should set up a public library by the end of 1920. Smaller districts were allowed a longer period. Regulations are made for the provision of special libraries or special departments for racial minorities. The Ministry of Public Instruction maintains permanent instructors to supervise the technical management of the libraries.

At the end of 1921, of the 7,800 school districts in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, about 6,000 had established a public library, while at the end of 1922 it is stated that hardly any district was without a library.

<sup>(14)</sup> *Gazette de Prague*, 2 Dec. 1922. *Prague. Narodni Listy*, 16 Jan. 1923. Prague.

It is a sign of the enthusiasm of the local authorities for this form of educational work that in 1922 the local contributions varied from three times to ten times the legal minimum.

The Act has not always been fully carried out owing to the financial difficulties of certain local authorities and the figures issued by the Statistical Office are not quite complete. Those which are available, referring to 1922, are as follows :

Province	Number of libraries		Number of volumes	
	Czech	German	Czech	German
Bohemia	1,955	317	1,055,163	197,738
Moravia	925	128	283,412	77,175
Silesia	93	13	23,728	7,142
Total	2,885	458	1,362,303	282,255

The total number of loans during the year in the three provinces amounted to 3,180,515. The average number of loans per reader was 12.2 in Bohemia, 7.1 in Moravia, and 5.6 in Silesia.

In Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia libraries have not been so extensively developed, but there are 300 public libraries, and in addition 75 travelling libraries maintained by the state. A considerable number of libraries are also maintained by various societies, notably the Agricultural Associations, the Sokol unions, and gymnastic societies<sup>(15)</sup>. As there are 3,200 school districts in Slovakia and 500 in Sub-Carpathian Russia, however, there is clearly much still to be done in the provision of libraries for this part of the country.

## EDUCATION IN RUSSIA

### *Workers' Faculties in Russian Universities*

On 17 September 1922 the Workers' Faculties (*Rabfak*) celebrated the third anniversary of their foundation. The object of these Faculties<sup>(16)</sup>, according to a writer in *Izvestia*<sup>(17)</sup>, is to educate industrial workers and peasants to enable them to qualify as doctors, agronomists, engineers, and specialists generally, and thus counteract the influence of the old class of students drawn from secondary and high schools, which is regarded as injurious to a Socialist state. It is considered that without a proletarian intellectual class the solidarity of the Russian Soviet Republic must inevitably suffer ; this intellectual class is produced by the Workers' Faculties, which constitute a "proletarian high school". Under the "new economic policy" the Workers' Faculties play a more important part than ever, as it will devolve upon them to counteract bourgeois influences of the new policy which are bound to show themselves.

During the first two years of their existence the Workers' Faculties attracted no particular attention, and met with something like indiffer-

<sup>(15)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 5, Nov. 1922, pp. 822-824.

<sup>(16)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 644.

<sup>(17)</sup> *Izvestia*, 17 Sept. 1922. Moscow.

ence from party and Soviet organs, but that they successfully braved this period the following figures, which show the growth of the Workers' Faculties, prove.

Year	Number of Faculties	Number of Students
1919	9	2,149
1920	45	14,827
1921	92	40,224
1922	63	29,000

Of the 29,000 students at present enrolled, 25,000 are maintained by the state, while 4,000 work for their living and attend the Faculties in the evening.

The figures show that the number of Workers' Faculties is far from being sufficient; it is stated that party, industrial, and Soviet organs should at once set about increasing the number of scholarships. In 1921 there were 40,000 students, but a lack of means subsequently necessitated a reduction of this number. During the present year there has been an unprecedented number of applicants, and not more than one-sixth of these could be admitted.

The following figures show the percentage of students in different types of occupation.

Year	Workers	Peasants	Not doing Physical Labour
1920	40.0	32.0	28.0
1921	51.6	23.3	25.1
1922	60.5	24.0	15.5

The falling off in 1922 of persons not doing physical labour is due to the exclusion of more than 5,000 students for political reasons. The number of worker students is increasing steadily and in industrial centres reaches as high a proportion as 75 per cent. of the total.

From the foundation of the Faculties to 1921 more than 6,000 students have passed from them to institutions for higher education. Of these 55 per cent. have entered technical colleges, 17 per cent. agricultural colleges, 10 per cent. medical institutions, and 6 per cent. social science institutions. It is expected that 8,000 students will graduate from the Workers' Faculties in 1922-1923. Of the total number of students graduating to higher educational establishments, about 25 to 30 per cent. come from the Workers' Faculties; this, it is considered, is insufficient, and until the proportion is raised to 50 per cent. the Workers' Faculties cannot be regarded as functioning satisfactorily.

#### *General Condition of Education*

Lack of funds has necessitated the closing of a large number of schools in Russia, and the Government has stated its intention of handing over elementary education entirely to the local authorities, as the central Government has no means at its disposal for the maintenance of elementary schools. The Commissary for Education, Lunacharsky, is reported to have said that the Government can only furnish 13 per cent. of the necessary books and supplies, the remainder of which must be provided by local organisations and parents. It has also been proposed that industrial "trusts" should undertake the maintenance of scholastic institutions, as they have already done for individual battalions of the Red Army.

Figures given in *Izvestia* illustrate the reduction of educational facilities. In the 27 governments and five autonomous provinces of European Russia and Western Siberia the number of elementary schools fell between 1921 and 1922 from 47,189 to 40,287, the teaching staff from 100,709 to 88,618, and the number of pupils from 3,869,752 to 2,852,676. In the Velski district there were 283 first-grade and second-grade schools with 554 teachers on 1 October 1921. On 1 May 1922 the number had fallen to 127 schools with 275 teachers. Of 359 auxiliary scholastic establishments (e.g. libraries, adult schools, reading rooms, etc.), with a staff of 235, there remained only five with a staff of two. In Samara and Saratov 89 per cent. of the schools have been closed owing to the re-introduction of school fees and the inability of the parents to pay these.

According to the figures of the Commissariat of Education the average number of schools per district is two, which means an enrolment of 700-800 children per school. These figures do not include privately supported schools, but the latter are quite inadequate to meet the deficiency.

One of the chief features of the educational schemes of the Soviet Government was the "single school". In theory, this is divided into three stages, the first covering seven years, two primary and five secondary. In the second stage there are four classes, the fourth being for specialised instruction, while the third stage comprises a university or college course. In actual fact only the first stage is in existence. Moreover, as a result of the attempts of the Soviet Government to "proletarianise" education and to create new courses of study, the school course has been considerably shortened, and the pupils leave before they have completed their education.

According to *Izvestia*, the condition of the teachers is deplorable, and no class of workers in Russia is so badly off. Their wages are everywhere in arrears, while of 533,000 teachers in 1921-1922 only 212,000 received food rations. Of 12,000 persons classified as librarians only 500 received rations.

Kronin, the Soviet educationalist, writing in the *Pravda* <sup>(18)</sup>, strongly criticises the Soviet educational policy, especially the proposal to hand over elementary education to the local authorities. He states that the policy of the Government leaves 65 per cent. of the children in Soviet Russia without any possibility of learning to read and write <sup>(19)</sup>. Kronin further states that education has already fallen below the standard of 1911 and 1912, which left 35 or 40 per cent. of children without schooling. "We began by decreeing that illiteracy should be abolished; our new policy simply means the destruction of literacy."

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<sup>(18)</sup> Quoted in the *Times*, 21 Sept. 1922. London.

<sup>(19)</sup> Cf. *International Labour Review*, Vol. VI, No. 4, Oct. 1922, p. 643.

# GOVERNMENT REPORTS

## FACTORY INSPECTION IN THE CZECHOSLOVAK REPUBLIC IN 1921

THE Czechoslovak Ministry of Social Welfare has recently published a report on the work of the factory inspection offices in 1921 <sup>(1)</sup>. A general survey of the reports sent in by the district inspectors is given. A considerable amount of information is supplied on labour conditions and also on such general problems as the industrial situation, but there are not many statistical tables, while the absence of an index and table of contents make special research difficult.

Factory inspection, which is regulated principally by an Austrian Act of 17 June 1883, an Hungarian Act No. 28 of 1893, and a Czechoslovak Act of 27 January 1921, is organised as follows. The territory of the Republic is divided into twenty-five inspection districts, in addition to which there are three special inspection offices, one for the construction of waterways and two for building. All these services are subordinated to the Central Inspection Office, under the Ministry of Social Welfare at Prague.

The inspection staff was increased in 1921, the number of inspectors being raised from 62 to 68, that of special building inspectors from one to four, and of women inspectors from four to six. The inspectors visited 18,825 firms, 15,972 of which were subject to accident insurance, 6,945 were factories, and 5,374 were firms which made no use of motor power. The number of persons employed by the firms visited was 666,560, of whom 211,215 were of female sex; among these there were 22,981 young persons and 11,845 girls between 14 and 16 years of age.

### *State of Industry*

In 1921 the economic difficulties that had to be encountered during the war had almost disappeared. There was scarcely any shortage of coal, coke, or raw materials, and means of communication were working satisfactorily. On the other hand, industrial activity was hampered by difficulties due to the state of the exchanges and to restrictions on the home market. Except during the last weeks of the year, the number of unemployed was smaller than in 1920, while working-class agitation declined. A considerable number of branches of industry reported marked improvement in output; in certain others the situation was not so good, or even unfavourable. In the building industry in particular, owing to the very high cost of construction and the lack of available capital, most of the work carried out was undertaken by the state, the municipalities, or co-operative building societies supported by the state.

The report refers to the growth in the number of firms engaged in the manufacture of goods hitherto imported from abroad, as well as to the modernisation of equipment and improvement in methods of manufacture; 649 new factories were started in 1921 (768 in 1920) and

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<sup>(1)</sup> MINISTERSTVO SOCIÁLNÍ PEČE. *Zpráva o úřední činnosti živnostenských inspektorů v roce 1921*. Prague, 1922. 184 pp.



428 were altered or enlarged (422 in 1920); 168 factories were closed down (197 in 1920); 42 were burned down (21 in 1920), but almost all have already been or will be rebuilt.

### *Output*

The inspectors all report an increase in individual output during 1921. In certain branches of industry, or certain firms, it almost or even quite reached the pre-war level, as for instance in stone quarries, tile works, saw mills, silk factories, carpet factories, the manufacture of furnishing materials, underwear, paper, etc. The improvement in output was particularly marked in piece work; it was not so great in the case of time work. In certain cases — as, for instance, the furnishing industry and the sugar industry — the workers, with the object of avoiding unemployment, strongly opposed piece work. Among the industries in which output was lowest, reference may especially be made to the building industry, where there was a reduction of 20 to 50 per cent. among workers paid by the day; there was, however, a certain improvement as compared with the two preceding years. The inspectors' reports from Slovakia and Sub-Carpathian Russia were less favourable. The workers in these provinces were often opposed to piece work, except when offered very high rates.

### *Collective Agreements*

Most of the inspectors report a marked decline in the number of new collective agreements concluded in 1921 as compared with the previous year, but in most cases where agreements concluded in 1920 were due to expire at the end of that year, they were renewed by tacit consent. New agreements contained various changes of secondary importance, particularly as regards wage scales. In general, the absence of all legislation on collective agreements had an unfavourable influence during the year.

### *Strikes and Lock-outs*

In 1921 the number of strikes of which the factory inspectors were notified was considerably lower than in the previous year, chiefly owing to the reduction in the cost of living and the unfavourable prospects on the labour market. The proportion of completely successful strikes was only half that of 1920, but the proportion of complete failures was also only half that of 1920. There was no change in the proportion of partial successes. The most important strike was that in the metal industry, which affected 49 factories and lasted three weeks; the origin of the dispute was the question of the participation of works councils in the engagement and dismissal of workers.

Corresponding to the development of employers' organisations, there was an increase in the number of lock-outs in 1921 as compared with 1920.

During the year the inspectors intervened, on the request of one or other of the parties concerned, in 169 strikes, 32 lock-outs, and 455 other disputes.

### *Profit-Sharing and Workers' Control*

In connection with the question of profit-sharing, the Chief Inspector for the No. 1 Prague District gave the following information. A sweet

factory distributed among its workers, on the basis of length of service, 10 per cent. of profits, or 150 to 1,000 Czechoslovak kronen per worker. A metal works gave 200 to 300 kronen to each woman worker and 600 to 1,000 kronen to each manual worker, besides which it placed at the disposal of its workers 1,250 shares at the price of 900 kronen, on condition that they undertook not to sell them for at least three years.

The Inspector of No. 3 Prague District states that the workers were invited to share in profits in a tile works, a rubber goods factory, and a furniture factory; in the Teplice district a factory divided 10 per cent. of its profits among its workers (this was also done by a factory in No. 1 Brno District).

Only four inspectors refer to the question of the socialisation of industry. The inspector of No. 1 Brno District states that the attempt made in a furniture factory proved a failure, that output fell, and the system of private property had to be restored. A glass factory in the Trencin district, which was managed by the workers, met with great difficulties; the workers withdrew their shares, and were no longer represented on the management of the factory; wages fell from 10 to 17 per cent. The inspector for the district of Bratislava states that no attempts at socialisation were made in 1921. According to the report for the Nova Ves district, the experiment made in a large tannery ended in complete failure.

The chief inspector of the Moravska Ostrava district reports the practice of a certain firm of discussing with workers' representatives the engagement and dismissal of staff, collective dismissals, reduction of output, and the acceptance of orders, thus going beyond the terms of the legislation already at that time enacted (though not yet in force) on the subject of workers' control <sup>(2)</sup>.

### *Hours of Work, Leisure, and Leave*

In a general way legislation <sup>(3)</sup> on the 8-hour day was observed; the unfavourable state of the foreign market sometimes even made short time necessary. The length of the working day was apt to vary in the course of the year. In order to take advantage of daylight, work was sometimes begun very early, which was an inducement to prolong hours. This took place mainly in firms where the hours are limited to 192 over four weeks. The difficulties met with in 1920 by firms engaged in continuous processes in the matter of shifts and the 32 consecutive hours of rest have not yet been solved. Among artisans and particularly bakers, there were several contraventions of the 8-hour Act. There has, however, been a marked improvement since the Order of the Ministry of Social Welfare of 1 October 1921 (No. 3042-G.), which lays down that preparatory and supplementary work is outside the definition of night work.

The provisions as to night work, for which special permits are needed, were observed by large and medium-sized firms; contraventions only took place in exceptional cases, and were the result of attempts to execute rush orders. The provisions applicable to adults

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<sup>(2)</sup> For legislation on this subject in the mining industry, see *International Labour Review*, Vol. II, No. 1, Apr. 1921, pp. 26-31, *Works Councils in the Czechoslovakian Mining Industry*.

<sup>(3)</sup> The Act of 19 December 1918, the Decree of 11 January 1919, and the Order of 21 March 1919 deal with hours of work, rest periods, overtime, and night work.

of over 18 years as to rest periods were observed in most factories, but those relating to young persons of under 18 years were almost invariably infringed (\*).

Overtime was very frequent during the second half of 1921, chiefly in the metal, printing, textile, and sugar industries. It was paid for at time and a quarter or time and a half rates. It was not possible to check overtime in workshops as in factories, but it would appear that the number of hours worked without permit was considerable, particularly in the country.

Contravention of the provisions as to Sunday rest was rare in factories. It took place mainly in bakeries, hair-dressers' saloons, butchers' and pork butchers' shops. Holidays (religious and national holidays) are not yet subject to legislation, and there are no fixed traditions.

Almost all the inspectors reported that large and medium-sized firms allowed their workers leave with full pay, such leave being mostly provided for under collective agreements. The same system applied to workshops.

### *Protection of Women and Children*

The number of children under 14 years of age illegally employed was 198, of whom 126 were boys and 72 girls; 522 boys under 16 years, 340 girls under 18, and 1,941 women were illegally employed on night work. Most of the contraventions in respect of boys took place in glass factories (265 cases), those in respect of women especially in sugar factories. Further, 4,399 women, or 2.1 per cent. of all women employed in the firms visited by inspectors, were illegally employed after 2 p.m. on Saturday, chiefly in textile works in the country.

The apprenticeship situation is not yet satisfactory; the results obtained in Prague, however, have almost reached pre-war level. The proportion of apprentices to the total number of skilled workers has risen in industrial occupations.

### *Wages*

Wage fluctuations were very much less marked in 1921 than in 1920, chiefly because the power of resistance of employers' organisations had grown, the volume of foreign trade declined, and the cost of living fallen during the first half of the year. There was a tendency among employers not to raise basic wages, but to grant their workers supplementary allowances in the form of a bonus at the end of the year. In certain branches of industry employers tried to reduce wages, and the workers could only maintain with difficulty the advantages they had gained. The level of wages did not change, or was only slightly modified, in iron works, glass factories, the manufacture of underlinen, the paper industry, the food industry, and in power works. In the boot and shoe industry two inspectors report an increase in wages of from 6 to 23 per cent. There was an increase of from 10 to 20 per cent. in the chemical industry, and in match factories, and of 25 to 50 per cent. in hat making. Most opposition to increases in basic wages was met with in the textile industry. In the building

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(\*) Section 3 of the 8-hour Act lays down that all workers over 18 years of age must normally be allowed a period of rest after five hours of work; in the case of young persons under 18 years it must be allowed after four hours of work.

industry negotiations for the conclusion of a collective agreement failed, the workers having refused to guarantee minimum output.

### *Health and Safety*

The number of firms subject to accident insurance in 1921 was 69,996, of which 11,034 were factories. There were no explosions in munition factories, and no boiler explosions. The inspectors were notified of 35,246 accidents, of which 260 were fatal.

The state of health of the workers is returning to pre-war conditions. The after-effects of the war have been felt mainly by young persons who suffer from undernourishment. Alcoholism is still rampant in Sub-Carpathian Russia. Some of the inspectors raise very serious objections to the housing of workers in certain workshops, particularly in the printing industry. As regards industrial diseases, the report refers to 11 cases of lead poisoning. No case of pyridine poisoning was notified.

Owing to the considerable increase in the rate of contribution, a fairly large number of firms failed to notify the sickness insurance funds of the workers they employ. The report also draws attention to the great difficulty of organising sickness insurance for home workers. A fairly large number of firms, particularly small ones, are reported to have failed to declare their workers to the insurance fund for purposes of accident insurance.

### *Home Work*

During 1921 the inspectors paid special attention to home work, which was placed under their supervision by the Act of 12 December 1919, the Sickness Insurance Act, and, as regards children, the Act of 17 July 1919. Their first care was to establish a working basis, that is to say to collect information on home work, a step of great importance, as home work conditions had materially altered in consequence of the war.

The number of premises visited was 435, belonging mainly to the glass, clay, stone, wood, metal, fur, paper, and chemical industries. The numbers employed were 272 men, 698 women, 20 boys, and 22 girls, including 12 boys and 14 girls under 14 years of age. The hours of work varied considerably according to circumstances. Where home work was not the chief means of livelihood of the worker, it seldom lasted as long as eight hours, but otherwise it might last up to 10 or 12 hours a day. In bad weather work was sometimes even continued on Sundays and holidays. Wages were inadequate, and the inspectors recommend that the central, and particularly the departmental, committees should bring pressure to bear in this matter.

The opinions of the inspectors vary considerably as to the state of the places where work is carried on. Conditions are fairly satisfactory in the country and the mountainous areas of North Bohemia, but not in large towns. The report states that home workers often suffer from undernourishment owing to the lowness of their wages. Most home workers do not as yet benefit by sickness insurance, and the question of accident insurance for glass workers who are employed at home has not yet been settled.

### *Housing*

In a general way, the housing conditions of unskilled workers were very unsatisfactory in 1921. The housing difficulty was in some

measure alleviated, but not overcome, by the building of a fairly large number of houses by municipalities, building co-operative societies with state support, or private firms<sup>(5)</sup>. The shortage has interfered with the free play of supply and demand for labour. Inspectors have frequently had to intervene, chiefly against small employers and corn factors, the main point raised being that of lodging accommodation.

### *Welfare Institutions*

The general industrial depression hampered the progress of the welfare movement. Some institutions which were formerly voluntary have been made compulsory under collective agreements. The fall in the cost of living made it unnecessary to continue to supply to workers articles of prime necessity gratis or at reduced prices.

A certain number of firms, however, have granted their workers various privileges: bonuses at the end of the year, grants to old age, sickness, and accident insurance funds, allowances to the unemployed, gratis provision of housing, heating and lighting, a share in the products of the firm, garden allotments. In the No. 1 Prague District an engineering works paid 200,000 kronen into its workers' disablement fund and 200,000 kronen to a fund for its salaried employees. Another factory contributed to the establishment of two disablement funds, one for manual and the other for non-manual workers, paying into each the sum of 400,000 kronen. One factory granted a million kronen to its workers' relief fund, and another factory a million kronen towards the construction of workers' houses. Elsewhere one cement factory started a special service, with an experienced staff, to attend to sick workers, women who were confined, and infants; this staff also inspects the houses of the workers in the firm, and draws up reports and statistics on the health and social conditions of the workers and their families; 614 sick persons and women who were confined benefited by this organisation. The large metal works of Moravska Ostrava have added to their welfare institutions electro-therapeutic, mechano-therapeutic, and gynaecological services in the hospital of the firm, which are run on the most advanced scientific lines.

### ADMINISTRATION OF LABOUR LAWS IN QUEENSLAND IN 1921-1922<sup>(1)</sup>

The greater part of the report of the Queensland Director of Labour for 1921-1922 is devoted to the administration of the Factories and Shops Acts 1900-1920, the brief reports made by the district inspectors (4 women and 31 men) being given in full (pp. 37-50). Though the report is stated to cover the year ending 30 June 1922, most of the statistics relating to factories and shops are for the year ending 31 March. The inspection staff visited "practically all" the establishments under their charge in the course of the year (p. 4) — 1,478 factories in Brisbane and 1,776 in other districts, employing in all 32,820 persons (pp. 17-27), and 8,447 shops employing 23,104 persons (pp. 27-29). The Director of Labour states that occupiers of factories

(5) Private firms built during the year 2,000 dwellings, which in the main fulfilled health requirements. They also constructed a certain number of dormitories for single or seasonal workers.

(1) QUEENSLAND: DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR. *Report of the Director of Labour and Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for the Year ended 20 June 1922*. Brisbane, Govt. Printer, 1922. 50 pp.

were generally willing to comply with inspectors' instructions (p. 4); only 80 prosecutions were instituted under the Factories Acts during the year, and more than three-quarters of these were for contraventions of the regulations for the closing of shops (pp. 10-11). Fewer factories were occupied by Asiatics (p. 28) than in 1920-1921 — 65 instead of 76 — and sanitation in general was found to be improving (pp. 4, 38-50). Comparatively few factory accidents were reported for the year (in this case the year ending 30 June). The accidents in Brisbane are listed in detail (p. 14) — three fatalities and 34 other accidents, mostly injuries of limbs; those outside Brisbane are given by districts, and roughly grouped by industries under each district, while the local totals are subdivided into "fatal", "serious", and "light" — 1, 28, and 199 respectively, a large proportion being accidents to labourers (p. 15).

The report contains a list of registered trade unions (p. 12), and also notes and tables showing the working of the Labour Exchanges Act 1915 (pp. 3, 5-9, 37). Under this Act about 54,000 applications for employment were received (44,000 in 1920-1921), and 13,102 vacancies were filled, one-third of them on government work. The Women's Labour Exchange in Brisbane reports a shortage of domestic workers for private service, attributed to the lack of regulation of hours and conditions of employment (those in hotels and boarding houses are covered by awards).

A record of the rates of wages payable under the awards in the various trades is given for each year from 1917 to 1922 (pp. 30-36). It is reported that proceedings are often necessary to compel the observance of awards both by employers and by workers; prosecutions were instituted in 502 cases, as against 287 in 1920-1921, more than half occurring outside Brisbane (p. 4). Several of these prosecutions were for failure to observe awards relating to the accommodation of shearers and other migratory workers; under the Workers' Accommodation Acts themselves there were only four prosecutions. The Amending Act of 1921 provides for the gradual replacement of all merely temporary shelters, such as tents, by solid permanent housing for shearers and others (p. 4).

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## Book Notes

### INTERNATIONAL PUBLICATIONS

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR OFFICE. *Hours of Labour in Industry: Germany, Belgium, France, Great Britain, Italy, Switzerland.* Studies and Reports, Series D (Wages and Hours of Labour), Nos. 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9. Geneva, 1923. 1 Swiss franc per number.

This series of monographs, which will be continued, gives information on hours of labour in various countries, and summarises the legislation and collective agreements on the subject. Statistics are given where available to show the extent of the application of the laws and agreements. Finally, suggestions for legislation, and in some cases, public opinion on the 8-hour day are discussed, with the object of throwing light on the future of the 8-hour day movement.

— *International Labour Directory 1923.* Geneva, 1923. 1120 pp. 10s. 6d.; \$2.50.

In response to the requests of a large number of readers the International Labour Office has published the third issue of the *International Labour Directory* at the opening of the year whose date it bears. The heavy work involved in planning and organising the first two editions is now far advanced, and this year no modification has been found necessary in the general plan; at the same time endeavour has been made to revise the various sections in the light of the corrections and additions received by the Office since the publication of the 1922 *Directory*.

The 1923 *Directory* supplies information as to 72 countries, 1,950 employers' organisations, 2,400 workers' organisations, 1,100 intellectual workers' organisations, 45 ex-Service men's organisations, 475 co-operative associations, and 50 miscellaneous associations.

— *Bibliography of Industrial and Labour Questions in Soviet Russia.* Geneva, 1922. 174 pp. 3 Swiss francs; 5 French francs; 2s. 6d.; 60 cents.

This bibliography, a preliminary form of which was included in the systematic questionnaire published by the International Labour Office in 1920, gives information on about 1,200 books and publications issued in Russia or other countries and over 130 Russian or foreign periodicals. Nearly half of the publications are in French. The bibliography is arranged in alphabetical order and is complete down to 1 December 1921. It contains a number of short bibliographical notes indicating the nature and scope of the principal publications mentioned.

In compiling the bibliography a selection had to be made from a large mass of material. As a general rule, only those publications which devote a certain amount of space to labour questions have been mentioned. A supplement giving information for 1922 is in preparation.

— *Catalogue of Publications of the International Labour Office.* Geneva. Sales and Publicity Branch of the International Labour Office. 1923. 64 pp.

This catalogue, which has recently been brought up to date, is sent free of charge to applicants.

CARNEGIE ENDOWMENT FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE. *Annual Report of the Division of Economics and History.* Oxford Univ. Press, 1922. 59 pp.

This report briefly indicates the progress made in the preparation of the *Economic and Social History of the World War* undertaken by the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

— *Recent Economic Developments in Russia.* By K. LEITES, ed. by H. WESTERGAARD. Oxford Univ. Press, 1922. 240 pp.

The book consists of three parts, the first of which describes, briefly but adequately, the influence of the war upon the economic life of Russia prior to the Bolshevik Revolution. In the second part the author deals with the general results of Soviet economic policy. The treatment here, however, is somewhat insufficient. The subject of the third part is economic life in Russia in 1920. The only source of information drawn upon for the second and third parts seems to have been the press. The interest of the book is purely historical, since the "new economic policy", introduced in 1921, and which has brought great changes, does not fall within the period treated. About twenty pages are devoted to labour questions. There is no reference to labour legislation, hours of work, social insurance, or trade unions.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS (AMSTERDAM). *The Decisions of the Third International Labour Conference (Geneva, 1921).* Supplement No. VIII. (December 1922). Amsterdam, 1922. 22 pp.

This pamphlet contains the text of the decisions adopted at the Third International Labour Conference. The editor draws attention in a short preface to the slow progress in the ratification of the Draft Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conferences and appeals to the workers of all countries to do their utmost to bring about their ratification with the minimum delay possible.

INTERNATIONAL CONFEDERATION OF CHRISTIAN TRADE UNIONS. *Report of the Second Congress of the International Confederation of Christian Trade Unions, June 1922, Innsbruck.* Utrecht, 1922. 166 pp.

This publication contains a detailed report of the discussions of the congress, including the full text of the general report of the secretary, a report on the international craft federations of the Christian trade unions, and the full text of the reports by Messrs. R. Carels (Belgium) on the present economic situation and the causes of the crisis, F. Baltrusch (Germany) on the financial crisis, and C. Smeenk (Netherlands) on the conditions of economic reconstruction. There are also a number of statistical tables giving exact figures of the membership of the Christian trade unions in all countries, and the addresses of the International Confederation the affiliated national central federations, and the international craft federations.

A considerable part of the volume is devoted to the International Conference of Christian Women Workers which was held at Innsbruck immediately before the second congress of the International Confederation. A number of reports submitted to this conference are reproduced in full.



INTERNATIONAL-UNION DER ORGANISATIONEN DER ARBEITER UND ARBEITERINNEN DER LEBENS- UND GENUSSMITTELINDUSTRIE. *Protokoll über die Verhandlungen des Weltkongresses der Bäckereiarbeiter am 14. und 15. Oktober 1922 in Köln am Rhein.* Zurich, Union Internationale, 1922. 47 pp.

Report of the world congress of workers in the baking trade held at Cologne, 14 and 15 October 1922, under the auspices of the International Federation of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades.

INSTITUT INTERNATIONAL D'AGRICULTURE; BUREAU DES INSTITUTIONS ÉCONOMIQUES ET SOCIALES. *L'Organisation économique et agricole du Brésil.* Rome, 1922. 35 pp.

This pamphlet is a concise analysis, based on exact data, of agricultural organisation in Brazil. The measures taken by the Brazilian Government towards the colonisation of the country are reviewed, a picture of life in the plantations (*fazendas*) is given, and mention made of the various agricultural credit societies and of legislative measures designed to promote the development of the co-operative movement. A chapter is devoted to social legislation and, in particular, to the laws relating to accidents. The closing pages deal with agricultural training and technical aid to agriculture.

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DÉLÉGATION DE LA RÉPUBLIQUE ARMÉNIENNE. *L'Arménie et la question arménienne avant, pendant et depuis la guerre.* Paris, Turabian. 1922. 137 pp., appendices, maps.

Armenia and the Armenian question before, during, and since the war, by the Armenian Delegation at Paris.

### CZECHOSLOVAKIA

ASSEMBLÉE NATIONALE. *Exposé sommaire des travaux législatifs de l'Assemblée nationale de la République tchécoslovaque. Session d'automne 1921.* Prague, Bibl. de l'Assemblée nationale. 1922. 46 pp.

A brief account in French of legislation enacted by the Czechoslovak National Assembly during the autumn session of 1921.

### FRANCE

MINISTÈRE DE L'AGRICULTURE; OFFICE NATIONAL DU CRÉDIT AGRICOLE. *Législation relative au crédit mutuel et à la coopération agricole.* Paris, 1922. 78 pp.

Text of the Act of 5 August 1920 relating to mutual credit and agricultural co-operation and of the three Decrees and two Orders supplementing it in 1921.

MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL; STATISTIQUE GÉNÉRALE DE LA FRANCE. *Annuaire statistique.* Vol. xxxvii, 1921. Paris, 1922. 450 pp.

The tables of figures of a retrospective and international character which occupied the greater part of the two former statistical Year Books issued by the French Ministry of Labour (1916-1917-1918 and 1919-1920) are not shown in

the Year Book for 1921, being reserved for a future publication. They are replaced by annual reports of a detailed character on France and the French colonies and protectorates covering the years 1914 to 1920 or 1921. Statistics relating to the period of hostilities are often abridged and do not apply to the invaded districts. The matter dealt with falls under six headings: (a) climatology; (b) land and population, status of inhabitants (statistics of associations and trade unions and labour regulation); (c) production and economic conditions; (d) revenue and consumption (statistics of wages and hours of work); (e) government and administration (including public finance); (f) colonies and protectorates.

## GERMANY

REICH SARBEITS MINISTERIUM. *Sozialwissenschaftliches Literaturblatt*. Ed. by Dr. Franz BOESE. Berlin, Engelmann. Monthly parts, 1922.

This bibliography of social sciences, published in monthly parts, beginning in January 1922, and edited by Dr. Franz Boese for the German Ministry of Labour, continues that edited by Professor Maas and published by Julius Springer for that Ministry. It gives an interesting summary of the literature of social science. Special mention may be made of Part VI, headed *Social Policy*, which contains the following: general remarks, including a description of the industrial position; the labour question in general; the position of employees and labourers; labour and the law; the protection of the worker and industrial hygiene; social insurance; employees' and workers' organisations; industrial disputes; arbitration and conciliation; the labour market; employment agencies; vocational education; the policy of the middle classes; housing and land settlement; the land question; social hygiene; women suffrage; education; provident institutions; jurisdiction in social matters.

With the exception of the first number for 1919, the previous numbers of this bibliographical periodical for 1919 to 1921 have not yet appeared, but are in preparation. There are two editions, one of which is printed on one side only of the paper and may thus be used for indexing. The rate of subscription varies in different countries; in Switzerland it is 30 francs per quarter.

## GREAT BRITAIN

MINES DEPARTMENT. *First Annual Report of the Secretary for Mines for the Year ending 31 December 1921, and the Annual Report of H. M. Chief Inspector of Mines for the same Period, with a Statistical Appendix to both Reports*. London, H. M. Stationery Office, 1922. 181 pp., 12 charts, map. 6s. 6d.

Contains the first report of the Mines Department of the Board of Trade, which was established in pursuance of the Mining Industry Act 1920, and which is charged with the duty of seeking the most effective utilisation of the mineral resources of the country as well as of securing the safety and welfare of the miners. The first four chapters of the report deal with the coal-mining industry, the metalliferous mining and quarrying industry, oil borings, and the safety of the workers in these industries. The coal-mining industry, which alone employs more than 1,100,000 workers, receives, of course, the greatest amount of attention, and the causes and results of the notorious depression in this industry experienced in 1921 are briefly but clearly illustrated. It appears that the high wages received by the miners and the ready market which the owners found during the year 1920 created a false sense of prosperity, so that the subsequent sudden trade depression "completely upset the economics of the industry". The national coal strike for 9½ days in 1921 is considered as one of the results, perhaps unavoidable, rather than a cause of the depression; its causes and the terms of the settlement are set forth in detail in the report.

The Chief Inspector's Report appears in a much reduced form as the fifth chapter in the General Report. The principal part of it deals with safety. A reduction in the number of accidents was observed in 1921 as in previous years. The statistical appendices, relating to production, number of workers,

working conditions, distribution and consumption, prices, accidents, etc. are given in a better and fuller form than in previous reports, both in the shape of tables and charts. A map showing coal and iron fields in the country, which is attached, is useful for purposes of reference.

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For both these pamphlets see under *Notes on Workers' Education* in this issue.

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BUREAU LETTON D'INFORMATIONS A PARIS. *La République de Lettonie: documents, traités et lois*. I. Paris, 1922. 76 pp.

A small volume of translations into French of the most important diplomatic documents and legislative and judicial enactments having reference to Latvia, in particular of the Act on agrarian reform.

## NEW ZEALAND

*Report of the Minister of Education for the Year ending 31 December 1921*. 58 pp. 1s. 3d. *Education of Native Children*. 24 pp. 9d. Wellington, Gov. Printer. 1922.

The Report of the New Zealand Minister of Education for 1921 calls attention to certain points in which progress has been made. Teachers' salaries have been increased and their grading and promotion standardised, while arrangements are in force for exchanging posts between New Zealand teachers and those in other parts of the British Empire. Provision has been made for the extension of the age of compulsory school attendance to 15 "as soon as circumstances warrant the change".

Interesting figures are given to show the fate of children after leaving the primary schools. Of 16,000 pupils who left the primary schools in 1920, 29 per cent. had passed the sixth grade; of these approximately 46 per cent. of the boys took up farming pursuits, 60 per cent. of the girls domestic duties, while 20 per cent. only learned trades. Of the 11,400 children who had passed the sixth grade over 60 per cent. went on to some kind of secondary education, 9 per cent. took up trades, 7 per cent. farming, 3 per cent. clerical or commercial work, 4 per cent. one or other of the government services, while 22 per cent. of the girls took up domestic duties.

In the section on secondary education it is noticeable that 91 per cent. of the pupils in government schools affording secondary education were receiving free tuition. Of 2,200 pupils who left secondary schools at the end of the year 7 per cent. went on to a university, 13 per cent. to other schools for commercial or other training, and 16 per cent. entered the teaching service; 36 per cent. of the girls took up home duties and 24 per cent. of the boys entered farming occupations.

No very marked advance is recorded in technical education, though four additional schools were opened. It is stated that part-time day continuation classes have not hitherto been encouraged by employers' associations, except in a single case. It is hoped that the position in this respect will shortly be improved. In certain districts regulations for compulsory attendance at continuation schools were in force, affecting 1,585 students in 25 school districts.

The report on the education of native children shows that at the end of 1921 there were 123 primary schools exclusively for Maori children. There were altogether less than 500 Maoris in the secondary schools. A high tribute is paid to the work of the teaching staff of the native schools, which extends outside regular educational work to many different forms of social activity in the native villages.

## SPAIN

CONSEJO SUPERIOR DE EMIGRACION. *La Migración Española en 1920. Tercer y cuarto trimestres.* Bulletins Nos. 110 (1921) and 113 (1921). Madrid, 1922. Pp. 59 to 115 and 311 to 367 pp.

These two recent publications contain detailed official statistics of emigration from Spain during the third and fourth quarters of 1920.

— *Actas del pleno, comisión permanente y secciones del año 1921.* Bulletin No. 112 (1921). Madrid, 1922. 305 pp.

Official report of the deliberations of the Emigration Council (plenary sessions and commissions) in 1921.

— *Disposiciones legales para régimen de la Emigración Española en el año 1921.* Bulletin No. 111 (1921). Madrid, 1922. 141 pp.

Official text of the Royal Decrees regulating Spanish emigration issued in 1921 by the President of the Emigration Council.

## UNITED STATES

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR; BUREAU OF LABOUR STATISTICS. *Labour Legislation of 1921.* Bulletin No. 308. Washington, Gov. Printing Office. 1922. 328 pp.

This is the annual volume of new labour legislation published each year by the Bureau of Labour Statistics. A summary of the laws reprinted in this volume will be found in the *Legislative Notes* in the October number of the *Review* for 1922 (pp. 648-661).

— — *Industrial Unemployment; a Statistical Study of its Extent and Causes.* Washington, Govt. Printing Office. 1922. 52 pp.

This survey of existing statistics on the extent and causes of unemployment in the United States was made as a direct result of the conference on unemployment called by President Harding in 1921. A attempt is made on the basis of material already collected to arrive at some estimate of the extent of unemployment in normal times. The analysis is confined chiefly to a summary of the available sources, together with the author's conclusions. Perhaps the most interesting inference is that, when good and bad years are averaged together, the average wage earner is found to lose through involuntary unemployment (unemployment exclusive of that due to sickness or labour disputes and exclusive also of time lost by short-time) about thirty days in the year. Disputes, sickness, and short time together are said to cause an average loss per year of about forty more.

Other headings treated in the report are *Seasonal Unemployment*, *Depressional Unemployment*, *Labour Turnover*, and *Cost of Unemployment*.

— WOMEN'S BUREAU. *Women in Georgia Industries; a Study of Hours, Wages, and Working Conditions*. Washington, Gov. Printing Office. 1922. vii, 89 pp.

The period covered by this survey, made at the request of organisations interested in working conditions among women, extends from 28 May to 13 July 1920 and from 15 February to 15 April 1921. The outstanding features of the report are the long hours of work and the lack of sanitary and service provisions; inadequate wages, it is stated, present a less pressing problem. A large number of statistical tables are included.

— CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *Proceedings of Conference on Mothers' Pensions, Providence, R. I. 28 June 1922*. Bureau Publication No. 109. Washington, Gov. Printing Office. 1922. 31 pp.

The Conference on Mothers' Pensions, the proceedings of which are recorded in this publication, was held under the auspices of the Mothers' Pensions Committee, the Family Division of the National Conference of Social Work, and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labour. Reports dealing with different phases of work on mothers' allowances were presented and discussed. Among the questions dealt with were the use of a standard budget schedule and state supervision of the administration of mothers' allowances. The work accomplished by the Committee was reviewed and its future programme outlined: studies to be continued include that of the standards of living applied by those progressive agencies granting mothers' allowances and such enquiries as will assist in defining minimum standards of living, education, etc., fundamental to the proper rearing of children in their own homes.

— — *County Organisation for Child Care and Protection*. Bureau Publication No. 107. Washington, Gov. Printing Office. 1922. v, 173 pp.

Describes the most important recent administrative advances in the local care of dependent, defective, and delinquent children. The appendices contain the Acts and Bills relating to county boards of child welfare or public welfare and a list of references to county organisations for similar welfare purpose.

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION. *Thirty-ninth Annual Report of the United States Civil Service Commission for the Fiscal Year ended 30 June 1922*. Washington, Gov. Printing Office. 1922. XLIV pp.

## MARYLAND

*Seventh Annual Report of the State Industrial Accident Commission for the Year 1 November 1920 to 31 October 1921*. 26 pp.

## NEW YORK

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR. *Course of Employment in New York State from 1914 to 1921*. Special Bulletin No. 113. Prepared by Office of the Chief Statistician, Albany, N. Y. 1922. 136 pp.

This collection of statistical facts contains, for each of the sixty groups of industries specified in the labour market statistics of the State of New York, a table indicating the monthly fluctuations from June 1914 to June 1921 in (1) the number of workers employed; (2) the total amount of wages paid; (3) the average wage per worker. The *Bulletin* provides valuable information on conditions in different industries in the State of New York during the war and after the Armistice.

## PENNSYLVANIA

PENNSYLVANIA WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BOARD. *Decisions for the Year 1921*. Kuhn, printer to the Commonwealth, Harrisburgh, Pa. 1922. 412 pp.

## WASHINGTON

DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR AND INDUSTRIES. *First Report of the Department of Labour and Industries for the Period ending 30 June 1922*. Olympia, Lamborn, Public Printer. 1922. 114 pp.

The increased departmental efficiency at decreased cost resulting from the consolidation of separate boards, bureaux, commissions, etc., is emphasised in the first report of the Department of Labour and Industries of the State of Washington. The functions and work of its three main divisions are described, namely, the Divisions of Industrial Insurance, of Safety, and of Industrial Relations.

## NON-OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS

ADAMS, Elizabeth Kemper. *Women Professional Workers. A Study made for the Women's Educational and Industrial Union*. New York. Macmillan. 1921. xiv, 467 pp.

ADDISON, The Rt. Hon. Christopher. *The Betrayal of the Slums*. London, Jenkins. 1922. 128 pp.

This book by the first British Minister of Public Health maintains that, as a result of the Government's failure to carry out its promises to deal adequately with the housing shortage, unemployment was increased and many millions of men, women, and children were compelled to live in overcrowded, insanitary dwellings. Reports and statistics are quoted to show the extent of this overcrowding and its effect on the health and morals of the people, and an attempt is made to estimate the cost to the country of the consequent disease. A number of constructive proposals are put forward for dealing with unfit houses, and a housing policy for the country is outlined and justified.

ALTROCK, Walther von. In collaboration with Franz MENDELSON and Kurt SCHLEISUNG. *Die Organisationen der deutschen Landwirtschaft, der Forstwirtschaft, des Gartenbaus, der Fischerei und der landwirtschaftlichen Nebengewerbe*. Elsner Betriebsbücherei, No. 14. Berlin, Elsner. 1921. 287 pp.

A study of the industrial and trade organisations in German agriculture, forestry, horticulture, fisheries, and allied industries. The authors review in turn legally registered representative organisations, unincorporated associations of a political or social character, co-operative societies, organisations for the improvement of working conditions and the status of the worker, welfare organisations, women's associations and, finally, associations for developing the scientific side of agriculture, whose activities extend over an important field. Horticultural and forestry associations are considered in the last two chapters.

*Annuaire Lambert. Statistique des engrais et produits chimiques destinés à l'agriculture*. Second volume, 1910-1920. Preface by M. L. AGUILLON. Paris, Bureau d'études économiques, industrielles et agricoles. 1922. 344 pp. 35 francs.

Statistics relating to manures and chemical products for agricultural use.

ARNETT, Alex. Mathews. *The Populist Movement in Georgia: a View of the "Agrarian Crusade" in the Light of Solid-South Politics*. Studies in History, Economics, and Public Law; Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, Vol. CIV, No. 1. New York, Columbia Univ. 1922. 269 pp.

The Populist movement, which was a broad democratic movement, particularly in the rural parts of the country, nation-wide in its scope, presented various aspects in different parts of America determined by the problems particular to the locality. In this study careful consideration is given to these variations and their influence on the movement as a whole. The work presents, therefore, rather a record of some of the main currents of American life in the last fifty years than a fragment of State history. Georgia was selected by the author as a field of special investigation, as a State typical of the southern phases of the movement to which little attention has hitherto been devoted by the historian. The history of the movement is traced from its origin to the election of President McKinley and the defeat of the People's Party. In a concluding chapter is shown how Populist ideals have nevertheless remained a vital force, permeating to some extent all the modern political groupings. A bibliography is appended.

ASSOCIATION FINANCIÈRE, INDUSTRIELLE ET COMMERCIALE RUSSE.  
*La Reprise des Relations économiques avec les Soviets*. Paris, 47 pp.

An enquiry into the possibilities of renewing commercial relationship with Soviet Russia. There are sections devoted to Soviet commercial, industrial, and agrarian legislation, to transport, to economic conditions in industry, and to finance. The conclusion reached by the authors is that, while isolated and speculative commercial operations may be profitable, no serious business relations between Soviet Russia and the West are possible.

ASSOCIAZIONE NAZIONALE FRA MUTILATI ED INVALIDI DI GUERRA.  
SEZIONE DI PARMA. *Tre anni di lavoro 1919, 1920, 1921*. Parma, 1922. 137 pp., illus.

An account, abundantly illustrated, of the work accomplished by the Italian National Association of Disabled Ex-Service men.

BARNES, Alfred. *The Political Aspect of Co-operation*. Preface by W. H. WATKINS. Manchester, Co-oper. Union. 1922. 50 pp. 6d.

A description of the political origins, growth, and policy of the British Co-operative Party, its relations with other bodies, and the nature and structure of the new Democratic or People's Party, the advent of which is foreshadowed. Mr. W. H. Watkins, chairman of the Co-operative Party, states in a foreword to this pamphlet that "it is in no sense to be regarded as a pronouncement on behalf of the National Committee of the Party, or of the Co-operative Union, but it is put before the movement in the sincere hope that serious consideration will be given to all that it contains". The appendix provides a list of the subjects dealt with in reports submitted to co-operative congresses by the Joint Parliamentary Committee of the Co-operative Union, 1903 to 1917.

BECK, James M. *The Constitution of the United States*. London, Hodder and Stoughton. 1922. 280 pp.

Three lectures on the genesis, formulation, and political philosophy of the constitution of the United States and a supplementary lecture on the decay of the spirit of constitutionalism, which the author regards as one of the great social evils of this age.

BEZARD-FALGAS, Pierre. *Les Syndicats patronaux de l'industrie métallurgique en France*. Paris, éd. de la Vie universitaire, 1922. 426 pp.

Opens with an historical account of the growth of the iron and steel industries and of industrial and economic conditions in the nineteenth century. The character and results of the French Act of 21 March 1884 on trade unions are explained, while the last three-quarters of the book are devoted to the origin of iron and steel employers' associations from the war up till 1921. The various forms which these associations have taken, their influence on the economic situation, and their social action and attitude towards outstanding national and international problems are discussed. The part played by the Iron and Steel Association (*Comité des Forges*) during the war is noted, a list given of welfare societies founded or maintained by employers in the metal industry, and their work in connection with cost of living bonuses, family allowances, credit funds for the improvement of housing, insurance against various social risks, etc. recorded. In an appendix a list is given of the employers' associations in existence in January 1922, also a bibliography.

*Bibliothèque de l'Institut de Droit comparé de Lyon*. Edited by Edouard LAMBERT, Etienne ANTONELLI, and Maurice PICARD.

Under the direction of Mr. Edouard Lambert, Professor of Comparative Law, Mr. Etienne Antonelli, Professor of Political Economy, and Mr. Maurice Picard, Professor of Civil Law, Directors of Research at the Lyons Institute of Comparative Law, a new library is being formed with the object of promoting in France knowledge of common law in Great Britain, the United States, Canada, etc., which is compared with civil law in France and other countries to the end that uniformity in legislation may eventually be attained.

Separate book notes will be found in this issue and this section, under the authors' names, of the three first volumes in the series: *Allen v. Flood*, by Jean FOULLAND; *L'association du barreau américain*, by G. MADIER; and *Les jugements déclaratoires*, by M. MAYNARD.

BÖTCHER, Hans. *Zur revolutionären Gewerkschaftsbewegung in Amerika, Deutschland und England*. Probleme der Weltwirtschaft No. 37. Appendix by Dr. Paul HERMBERG. Jena, Fischer. 1922. xiv, 236 pp.

Dr. Bötcher gives an objective and comprehensive statement of the rise, progress, and purposes of revolutionary trade unionism in the United States, Germany, and Great Britain, the utmost aim of which is the attainment of Communist ideals. Revolutionary unionism originated in the United States of America where in 1905 the Industrial Workers of the World came into existence. In Germany the General Labour Union (*Allgemeine Arbeiter-Union*), having similar tendencies, was established only after the war; the German Syndicalist unions, adhering to anarchist principles, cannot properly be included within this group. In Great Britain dissatisfaction with the old trade union policy gave rise to industrial unionism and the shop steward movement. The difference between revolutionary unionism in the United States and Germany and the principal organisations representing industrial unionism in Great Britain is, however, very marked; the latter do not object to dealing with the state nor do they renounce parliamentary action. The structure and policy of revolutionary trade unions, their attitude towards Socialist political parties, the relations between the rank and file and the leaders are discussed at length. In the last chapter the author analyses the theoretical conceptions held by revolutionary unionists on state and society. An appendix, contributed by Dr. Paul Hermsberg, deals with recent developments.

BRODA, Rodolphe. *Les résultats de l'application du salaire minimum pendant et depuis la guerre*. Monographs of the Institut international pour la diffusion des expériences sociales. Paris, Geneva, 1921. 40 pp.

An analysis of minimum wage policy in various countries during and after the war.



CANINA, Attilio Garino. *Intorno alle premesse economiche della legislazione del lavoro ed alle sue recenti tendenze*. Giornale degli Economisti e Rivista di Statistica, Dec. 1922. Città di Castello, Soc. tip. "Leonardo da Vinci". 1922. 27 pp.

The nature and progress of labour legislation in Europe during the nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth century are reviewed, and the progress made during and since the war, particularly on hours of work and social insurance, noted. The scientific theories advanced to justify or condemn labour legislation are briefly analysed and the economic effects of some principal industrial reforms of recent date discussed.

CASSA CONFEDERALE GRAFICA ASSICURAZIONI SOCIALI, BOLOGNA. *Resoconto finanziario, 1921-1922*. Bologna, Cooper. tip. Mareggiani. 1922. 88 pp.

The financial report of the Printers' Social Insurance Fund of Bologna will be analysed under *Employment and Unemployment* in a future number of the *Review*.

CASSA DI RISPARMIO DEL BANCO DI NAPOLI. *Relazione sull'esercizio del credito agrario nel 1921*. Naples. 1921. 91 pp.

This report gives a general description of the work of the Naples Savings Bank together with statistics relating to the transactions effected during 1921. The Bank of Naples, authorised to undertake agricultural credit operations in sixteen provinces in Southern Italy and in Sardinia, is the most important agricultural credit establishment in Italy. Current financial operations include new discount, direct discount, direct loans, loans to organisations acting as intermediaries, etc. Among these organisations, numbering 176, are 46 agricultural unions, 109 agricultural co-operative banks, 10 peoples' banks, and other institutions of minor importance. The total amount of the loans made during 1921 was about 84 million lire, of which nearly 24 million were advanced by the Savings Bank and its provincial branches, and about 60 by the government. The report furnishes details as to the objects for which the loans were contracted (harvesting, cultivation, sowing, manures, maintenance of farm hands, etc.), and the position of the borrowers (owners farming their own land, farmers, tenant-farmers, or holders of a long lease). A considerable space is allotted to legislation relating to agricultural credit. One chapter contains the text of the various legislative and administrative measures adopted during 1921. The last part of the volume is a commentary and criticism of the interpretation of the laws and regulations actually in force.

CLERC, Lucien. *Le contrat collectif de travail (Art. 322-323 C. O.), précédé d'un exposé historique sur les législations des divers Etats*. Lausanne, Impr. de la Concorde. 1922. 189 pp.

This book is chiefly a legal study of the collective labour contract, preceded by a survey of the legislation on the right of association among workers or persons engaged in an occupation for various European countries. It is regrettable that the author has not defined the very important alterations brought about in recent legislation on the collective labour contract in certain countries; nor has he brought to light the developments made in trade unionism almost everywhere since the end of the war and the rapid evolution of the collective labour contract, which may now be considered, at least in Europe, as the basis of most regulation of labour problems. In the second part he examines the legal safeguards of the collective contract in Switzerland, and then deals with the various problems produced by this form of contract, especially the rights of contracting associations and their members.

*Closed Shop (The)*. Rev. and enlarged edition. Handbook Series. New York, Wilson. 1922. 282 pp.

Articles, addresses, reports, etc., for, against, and explanatory of the open shop. A select bibliography giving references to a wider literature is included.

COMITÉ CENTRAL DES HOUILLÈRES DE FRANCE. (a) *Législation minière et législation ouvrière*. (b) *Supplément*. (c) *2<sup>me</sup> supplément*. Paris. 1920, 1921, 1922. 290, 76, 44 pp.

The first of these publications, issued in 1920, contains the text of the principal French Acts on mines and mine workers, followed by a list of other Acts, of Decrees, Circulars, and other official documents bearing on the subject. It is brought up to date by the two supplements published respectively in 1921 and 1922.

CONGRÈS NATIONAL DES ŒUVRES SOCIALES FÉMININES CHRÉTIENNES DE BELGIQUE, 10-11 SEPTEMBRE 1922. *Mouvement social féminin chrétien. Rapport du secrétariat général, 1912-1922*. Louvain, Ceuterick. 1922. 28 pp., illus.

Report of the General Secretary to the National Congress of Christian Women's Work in Belgium, 10-11 September 1922.

COSSA, Luigi. *Premiers éléments d'économie politique*. Fourteenth edition revised by A. GRAZIANI, translated from the Italian by Alfred BONNET. Paris, Girard. 1922. x, 257 pp.

In the first edition of this work, which appeared in 1875, Mr. Luigi Cossa endeavoured to condense into precise but comprehensive formulæ the most important questions relating to modern social life. The present edition, brought up to date in 1920 by A. Graziani, falls into the four great classical divisions: production, circulation, distribution, and consumption of wealth. An important bibliography of the principal publications in various languages dealing with political economy completes the work.

DAVIS, Jerome. *The Russian Immigrant*. New York, Macmillan. 1922. xv, 219 pp.

There is an increasing output in the United States of monographs dealing with immigrants of a particular nationality. In the book under review, which is concerned with the Russians, Dr. Davis has made a careful and well-documented study of the "main social forces impinging on the Russian in America and their inevitable effect on his mind". He shows that the great majority of the Russians live in urban communities and that to a large extent they provide the lowest forms of labour. In their home environment they live in Russian communities, and hardly come into contact with American influences at all. Among the organised social forces, religious and educational, there is much that is good, but there is also a great deal of dishonesty and fraud which alienates the immigrants. Dr. Davis describes the relation of Russians to the United States Government, and finds it unsatisfactory, due largely to mutual misunderstanding. There is a valuable chapter on the conditions in Russia from which these immigrants have come, a knowledge of which he considers essential to understanding and ultimate assimilation. Finally, there are suggestions for the improvement of the mutual relations between Americans and the Russian immigrants. The book contains a useful bibliography.

DEUTSCHER METALLARBEITERVERBAND. *Der deutsche Metallarbeiterverband im Jahre 1921. Jahr- und Handbuch für Verbandsmitglieder.* Stuttgart, 1922. viii, 202, 272 pp.

Year book and manual of the German Federation of Metal Workers for 1921. The chapters of chief importance relate to membership (in which little variation is recorded), fluctuations in wages, strikes, lock-outs, and collective agreements. The reports of the sections of the Federation are printed in the appendix.

DEWEY, Davis Rich and SHUGRUE, Martin Joseph. *Banking and Credit.* New York, Ronald Press. 1922. 506 pp.

This is a text book for colleges and schools of business administration. It describes the various forms of credit instruments in use in the United States, and gives details of the procedure by which loans are obtained and the methods of determining credit risks. The history of banking and theoretical discussions on the nature and principles of money and credit receive comparatively little attention; the aim of the book is primarily to explain the problems confronting the customers of a bank, and the significant factors that control the terms and conditions upon which credit may be obtained.

DREVER, James. *An Introduction to the Psychology of Education.* The Modern Educator's Library. London, Arnold. 1922. viii, 228 pp.

DRON, Pr. C. *Ce vor Tărânti?* Bukarest. Viata Românească. 1922. 93 pp.

"What do the peasants want?" The author of this work first emphasises the value of productive agricultural co-operative societies (*obsties*) which the peasants, he says, do not fully appreciate and which could be of great service to them, especially since agrarian reform has increased the number of small owners. He examines next the distribution of land in Roumania and points out that large estates cover about 14 per cent. of land fit for cultivation, moderate-sized estates more than 10 per cent., and small estates more than 75 per cent. These figures, however, in his opinion, bear only a theoretical value, and he demands real and effective expropriation of land. Finally, he discusses the delicate problem of compensation for expropriation.

EDDY, Sherwood. *America: its Problems and Perils.* New York, Doran Co. 1922. 31 pp. 10 cents.

The principal political, social, and industrial problems with which the United States are faced today are summarised in this pamphlet. Excerpts from the final report of the Commission on Industrial Relations are appended in support of the facts stated. The views expressed are purely personal. The author suggests no definite scheme for the solution of the problems reviewed, but looks for gradual, evolutionary progress by the patient application of Christian principles.

— *Facing the Crisis: a Study in Present-day Social and Religious Problems.* The Fondren Lectures for 1922. Delivered before the School of Theology of Southern Methodist University. New York, Doran Co. 1922. xii, 241 pp.

An exhortation to spiritualise and socialise the whole of life by the application of Christian principles to the problems confronting humanity today. The questions dealt with fall under two headings — religious and philosophical, social and industrial. A list of books and periodicals treating current social problems is furnished.

EDGERTON, A. H. *Industrial Arts and Pre-vocational Education in Intermediate and Junior High Schools*. Milwaukee, Bruce Co. 1922. 104 pp.

The Industrial Arts Committee of the National Society for the Study of Education in the United States have collected syllabuses of a number of school courses in industrial arts, which are published in this book. The object of these courses is rather to supply the pupils with information on occupations with a view to determining their interests and vocational abilities than to train them for any one occupation. Junior High Schools which organise these industrial arts courses usually arrange that in the last two or three years of his school career a boy will follow eight short courses in different types of industrial work.

EINAUDI, Luigi. *Il problema delle abitazioni*. Biblioteca di scienze economiche Nos. 12-13. Milan, Treves. 1920. 302 pp.

A series of lectures on the housing problem given at the Luigi Bocconi Commercial University from 26 April to 2 May 1920.

FAIRBANKS, Arthur. *Introduction to Sociology*. Third edition revised and in part rewritten. London, Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner. 1922. xvii, 307 pp.

The aim is to initiate the reader into the fundamentals of sociological investigation. In the introduction the author defines the subject-matter of sociology and the relation of sociology to other social sciences, and indicates the main divisions into which he has divided his book, namely, (1) the nature of a society, (2) functions and organs of society, (3) social development. There is a bibliography to guide the student to further material along the lines suggested in the body of the work and arranged according to the headings of the chapters.

FÉDÉRATION NATIONALE DES COOPÉRATIVES DE CONSOMMATION (France). *Annuaire de la coopération 1922 (3<sup>me</sup> année)*. Paris, libr. de la Fédér. nation. 1922. 219 pp.

The first part of this year book summarises by way of introduction the history, organisation, and work of the French National Union of Distributive Co-operative Societies, and adds a series of articles on: Wholesale Societies, by A. J. Cleuet; The French Co-operative Bank (*Banque des coopératives de France*), by Gaston Lévy; The Future of Co-operation, by Charles Gide; The International Co-operative Alliance since the Armistice, by E. Poisson; Co-operation in France in 1922, by Jean Gaumont; Rural Co-operation, by A. Daudé-Bancel; The Act of 14 June 1920, by Paul Ramadier. The second part gives statistical information, including a list of the French co-operative distributive societies by Departments.

FÖLDES, Bela. *Die Hauptströmungen der sozialistischen Gedankenwelt*. Berlin, 1923. 414 pp.

Mr. Bela Földes published in 1910 on behalf of the Hungarian Academy of Science a fully documented work in two volumes on Socialism. This work became the starting-point of the present work in German, which is intended to reach a wider public while yet giving a thorough treatment of the subject; with this in view the former work has been abbreviated, brought up to date and re-arranged so as to emphasise the principal features of Socialist theory. The author's endeavour, indeed, has been to give as clear and as complete an idea as possible of the modes of thought of the chief apologists of Socialism, and to this end he has, wherever possible, let them speak for themselves. The history of the labour movement and the lives of Socialist thinkers are only included in so far as they render a theory more intelligible.

Professor Földes in the introduction concerns himself with the conception and essence of Socialism. In the first chapter he treats of the origins of the Socialist idea in antiquity, Christendom, and the period up to the French Revolution. A chapter each is devoted to the following subjects: The Idealist Tendency (Saint Simon, Fourier, Leroux Pecqueur, Louis Blanc, Proudhon); The Economic-Materialist Tendency namely, the Marxian system, from its forerunners, through an exposition of the individual theories in the system up to the examination of attempts at further development of the system (Neo-Kantianism); The State-Socialist Tendency (Lassalle and Rodbertus); the Anti-State Tendencies (Anarchism and Revolutionary Syndicalism); The Utilitarian Tendency (rational systems, Owen); Secondary Tendencies (Fichti, Weitling, Marlo, Cabet, Lamennais); The Christian Tendency; Agrarian Socialism; Utopian and Fabian Socialism; Ethical Tendencies, from Carlyle to Academic Socialism; and, finally, the Bolshevist Tendency. The last receives, together with Marxism, the author's most searching criticism. The two final chapters explain the relation of Socialism to the great problems of humanity (family, nation, etc.) and lead the author to certain conclusions. A study of Socialist theory, in particular, convinces him that reform is unthinkable without moral regeneration, which in turn would render reform almost superfluous. We are faced, says the author, with the necessity of mediation between capital and labour. A short but select bibliography concludes this work, remarkable alike for its style and construction.

FERENCZI, Emerich. *Die Wohnungsfrage und die Internationale Arbeitsorganisation*. Soziale Praxis No. 41, pp. 1098-1102. Jena, Fischer. 1922.

A short study on the housing problem and the International Labour Organisation.

FONTÈGNE, Julien. *L'activité de l'Office d'orientation professionnelle de Strasbourg pendant l'année 1922*. Strasbourg, 1923. 15 pp.

This pamphlet is reviewed under *Workers' Education*.

FORMER HOUSING COMMISSIONER (A). *The Housing Question*. London, Allen and Unwin. 1922. 125 pp.

This book examines fourteen pleas put forward to account for the failure of the Government to carry out its projected housing schemes; briefly indicates the extent of the Government's actual performance in the clearing away of slums; shows by quotation from speeches by supporters of the Government that extensive housing schemes were necessary; and attacks the Government for not having carried them out.

FOSTER, William Z. *The Bankruptcy of the American Labour Movement*. Labour Herald Library No. 4. Chicago, Trade Union Educational League. 62 pp.

Mr. Foster argues that the labour movement in the United States has been rendered supine by the practice of dual or overlapping unionism, which has drawn the militant workers from the mass labour organisations to ideally conceived unions designed to replace the old ones. He advocates the development of the present craft unions into industrial unions and outlines the efforts of the Trade Union Educational League to this end.

— *The Railroaders' Next Step — Amalgamation*. Chicago, Trade Union Educational League. 1922. 63 pp.

The writer maintains that the supreme need of railroad men at the present time is the consolidation of their many labour organisations into one compact body, as the prevailing type of federated craft unionism is no longer adequate to secure existing labour conditions and altogether impotent in securing further progress. The departmental form of organisation adopted by the

(British) National Union of Railwaymen, in which the national executive committee is composed of four sections representing the four natural divisions of the industry, is suggested as being a suitable model for the United States railroad brotherhoods.

FOUILLAND, Jean. *Les décisions régulatrices de la politique au travail et du commerce des juges anglais (Restrained of trade) : Vol. II, Allen v. Flood; le boycottage, les listes noires et les autres instruments de contrainte syndicale devant la loi civile, les deux courants actuels de jurisprudence; les origines du courant libéral.* Bibl. de l'Inst. de droit comparé de Lyon, études et documents, Vol. III. Paris, Girard. 1922. 320 pp. 15 francs.

This work is a monograph on the judgment delivered 14 December 1897 by the House of Lords in the action brought by Flood and Taylor, carpenters, against Allen, delegate of the boilermakers' federation, for maliciously and unjustly provoking and bringing the Glengall Iron Company to discharge them and to refuse to reinstate or employ them in future. This action brought for the first time before the House of Lords the question of the right of boycott and the decision made established a precedent in similar cases. Particular interest attaches for this reason to the opinion expressed by each of the nine judges in the case. Mr. Fouilland in this work gives an account of the events which led up to the action, quotes the declarations made by the judges, and sets forth the importance and the judicial consequences of the judgment rendered.

FRANCHET, Antonin and Léon. *La culture générale des jeunes gens se destinant à l'industrie.* Paris, Dunod. 1921. 374 pp.

A collection of extracts taken from the works of scientific and industrial writers with the object of giving French boys, who wish to devote themselves to industry, an idea of the economic geography of their own country and the history of technical labour organisation, at the same time increasing their knowledge of their own language. One chapter is devoted to labour legislation and contains the so-called International Labour Charter (Part XIII of the Peace Treaty).

GIDE, Charles. (a) *Le système de répartition dans la société fouriériste;* (b) *l'école de Fourier et les expérimentations fouriéristes;* (c) *dans quelle mesure le mouvement co-opératif se rattache-t-il au fouriérisme?* (d) *ce que peuvent faire les coopératives de consommation pour l'établissement du juste prix.* Paris, Assoc. pour l'enseignement de la coopération. 1922. 23, 27, 31, 35 pp.

These four pamphlets, reprinting lectures delivered at the course opened 1 December 1921 at the Collège de France (*Cours sur la coopération professé au Collège de France en 1921-1922*) by Mr. Charles Gide, form a sequel to the series analysed in the August 1922 number of this Review (p. 307).

GOLDENWEISER, Alexander A. *Early Civilisation : an Introduction to Anthropology.* New York, Knopf. 1922. xiv, 428 pp.

This comprehensive work on the nature of early civilisation contains a close study of industrial processes among primitive communities. These processes are shown to be not only multifarious but requiring considerable skill. Craftsmanship exalted into art is not by any means absent among primitive peoples. The author dilates on the fact that in primitive industries things are so often well made. "Among primitive tribes", he writes in his concluding remarks, "including the lowest, many objects, appliances, tools, are fashioned with great skill, and in a way to fulfil their purpose most effectively, subject of course to certain limitations inherent in the complete theoretical naïveté of their makers".

GREENE, B. M. *Who's Who in Canada, 1922*. Toronto, International Press, 1922. xxvi, 1598 pp., illus.

Gives the name, address, titles, biography, and in many cases the portrait of a large number of prominent people in Canada, Newfoundland, the Bermudas, Barbados, Trinidad, British Guiana, Jamaica, and the Bahamas.

GROVES, Ernest R. *The Rural Mind and Social Welfare*. Foreword by Kenyon L. BUTTERFIELD. Chicago, Univ. of Chicago Press. xiv, 199 pp.

This book attempts to analyse in detail the rural social mind in order to show its significance for rural welfare and national well-being. The author holds that a sympathetic understanding of the mental life of country people is essential for rural leadership. With this in view he analyses certain human instincts, such as gregariousness, self-assertion, sex, fear, pugnacity, workmanship, acquisitiveness, and play, and endeavours to show how they may be sublimated and used in the interest of rural betterment. In bringing about this sublimation the writer gives a large place to the country church and thinks that its influence is likely to be underestimated rather than overestimated. The book concludes with a chapter on the psychology of rural organisation, in which the author points out that, according to the principles of rural psychology, an organisation in the country to be successful must offer to its members (a) opportunities for doing things rather than having things done for them; (b) ample provision for local autonomy; and (c) the assurance of a real voice in the policies and programmes of the central organisation.

GUIDI, Umberto. *I contratti agrari nel diritto vigente*. Milan, 1921. 177 pp. 4 lire.

This pamphlet is a study of Italian legislation relating to agrarian leases and their post-war complexities. Italian legislators have extended a number of agrarian leases to the advantage of the producer; at the same time, land-owners have in some cases been authorised to claim a revision of the rent of land they had leased. The result has been the creation of arbitration commissions and the institution of an exceptional procedure foreign to that of existing ordinary tribunals. Mr. Guidi analyses and comments on various legal points raised.

HAEFNER, Wilhelm: *Motive der internationalen Sozialpolitik. Untersuchungen über ihre Entwicklung*. Berlin, Vereinigung Wissensch. Verleger. 1922. xiv, 154 pp.

The movement in favour of social reform on an international basis has its origin in friction between countries, arising especially from the competition not only of products but of workers in the world-market. This friction led to the demand that countries with a highly developed social legislation should be protected against the competition of those less or not at all restricted in this respect. Consideration is also given to the argument brought forward against the foregoing view, namely, that national ability to compete is strengthened by a national reform policy. Mr. Häfner comes to the conclusion that international economic competition as an argument for the international protection of labour has at least partial validity: international regulation renders national protection of labour easier, but is not an indispensable prerequisite to national labour legislation.

In the second part the author enquires to what degree the common interests of governments and of organisations of their subjects further the idea of international social reform, and the practical measures taken to realise that reform. From the trade unions he apprehends a one-sided class policy. In a final chapter he discusses the tendency towards imperialistic labour policy.

HERRFAHRDT, H. *Das Problem der berufständischen Vertretung*. Berlin, Deutsche Verlagsanstalt. 1921. 193 pp.

The question of occupational representation has been discussed almost continuously in German legal and political literature from the time of the French Revolution. The idea has received a fresh impulse since the war, evidenced by the insertion of Article 165 in the new German constitution. Provision is thereby made for the establishment of district economic councils and a Federal Economic Council "in which all the principal occupational groups shall be represented in proportion to their economic and social importance". The author, whose investigations have been confined to Germany, first considers the question from an historical standpoint; he makes a systematic summary of his results and draws some inferences towards the solution of current problems. In his opinion the future of this type of representation will depend on extending the consultative powers now held by the representatives of various interests, whether in parliament or in the government. This can be done only by close co-operation between the parliament and government, a co-operation which can best be brought about, Mr. Herrfahrdt considers, by setting up legislative commissions for the enactment of further legislation.

*Histoire et préliminaires du 1<sup>er</sup> congrès des sociétés coopératives de France à Paris, en 1885, suivi du discours au congrès de Carlisle en 1887, par de Boyne, et du discours au congrès de 1889, à Paris, de M. Charles Gide.* Préface by E. BENOIT-GERMAIN. Paris, Alcan. 1922. xi, 94 pp.

History and origins of the first congress of French co-operative societies held in Paris in 1885, followed by the address delivered by de Boyne at the congress at Carlisle in 1887 and that by Mr. Charles Gide at the congress at Paris in 1889.

HOBSON, J. A. *The Economics of Unemployment*. London, Allen and Unwin. 1922. 157 pp.

Mr. Hobson points out that, in all its actions, the business world testifies to its conviction that normally the rate of industrial production tends to outrun the rate of consumption. He attempts to account for this tendency by means of his well-known "underconsumption" theory of industrial depressions. This theory maintains that the community attempts to save and utilise for future production a larger proportion of aggregate income than can be saved and utilised. This disproportion between saving and spending is traced to the unequal distribution of income, which leads to a large amount of automatic accumulation and investment of unearned wealth. It is argued that the futile attempt of these idle savings to find a remunerative use in the economic system clogs the system and congests it, causing the periodical gluts and stoppages known as cyclical depressions.

Mr. Hobson maintains that if this diagnosis is correct, the only real remedy is a more equal distribution of income. This, he considers, may be and is actually being attained by progress along the three following lines: the establishment of a common rule of minimum conditions of labour and of living in the shape of wage, hour, and other conditions made obligatory in all employments; the assumption by the state, municipality, or other public body of the ownership and operation of those essential services and industries which, left to private enterprise, exhibit a strongly monopolistic character; and the scientific application of the state powers of taxation so as to secure for public consumption as much as possible of those surplus earnings that accrue from lucrative businesses which it is convenient to leave to private enterprise.

HOSTENCH, Francisco. *Un problema de clases medias (ensayo de derecho social de previsión)*. Preface by S. Valenti CAMP. Madrid, Beltrán, Barcelona, López. 1922. 109 pp.

A study of the question of compulsory insurance for the middle classes. The author considers that, if the duty of the state is to afford legal protection



of a social character, there is no reason why such protection should apply only to the working classes and exclude the middle class. There are chapters on trade unionism and the middle classes, social insurance in Europe, compulsory insurance in Spain, and the extension of the system to the middle classes. In a chapter on *Internationality of Insurance and Assistance Rights* the author refers to the International Labour Organisation as the most efficacious agency for the maintenance of social peace and far superior in this connection to treaties between nations.

HOWARD, Walter. *The Great Industrial Problem*. London, King. 1922. 16 pp.

Takes the view that private enterprise and Socialist aims are not incompatible.

*Industrial Year Book 1922 (The)*. Published at 40 King Street, Covent Garden, London. 1086 pp.

The preface points out that there has hitherto been no work covering the salient acts and essential figures of British economic activity throughout its whole range, recording the actual conditions of industry in all its branches, reviewing the past and assigning due causes to current phenomena. The Industrial Year Book has been compiled to fill this gap. It consists of an industry by industry survey and a series of monographs embodying much statistical information and similar data on labour, trade unions, and the co-operative movement, employers, commerce, insurance, imperial and foreign matters and over-seas trade. The general plan adhered to wherever possible has been to supply data which enable comparisons to be made between the pre-war period, the years of the war, and the period following the war with special emphasis on 1921 or, where complete information is not yet available, on 1920.

INSTITUTO DE ESTUDIOS Y REFORMAS SOCIALES. *Conferencias preliminares organizadas por la Confederacion de Camaras Industriales de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos*. Vol. I. Mexico City. 1922. ix, 32 pp.

Four lectures given under the auspices of the Federation of Chambers of industry in Mexico and published by the Institute of Social Study and Reform. The lecture delivered by Mr. Andr  s Molina Enriquez relates to labour problems and social organisation, that by Mr. Valent  n Gama to land settlement.

JACKSON, Henry E. *Robinson Crusoe, Social Engineer*. New York, Dutton. 1922. 301 pp.

An attempt to show in a popular and picturesque fashion the difference it would make to modern industry if capitalists and labourers discovered their community of interest.

JAUR  S, Jean. *Histoire socialiste de la R  volution fran  aise*. Revised by A. MATHIEZ. Vol. III, *La L  gislativ  *. Paris, libr. de l' "Humanit  ". 1922. 468 pp., illus.

The first and second volumes of this work were analysed in the September number of the *Review* for 1922 (pp. 482-483). Volume III is divided into five sections, which deal with the election of the legislature and the peasant movement, the events which preceded the declaration of war, the Gironde, the colonial question, and the social and economic movement in 1792.

JEAN, O. (Commandant Jean Oursel). *Causeries syndicales. Le syndicalisme, son origine, son organisation, son but*. Fifth edition. Paris, Action populaire. 1922. 118 pp.

The object of this pamphlet, Catholic in tendency, is to explain in a series of informal addresses the principles of trade unionism and the services which

it may render. The author looks upon the trade union as the pivot of modern social reform; he points out the need of international social legislation based in principle on the 'charter' of the working classes (Part XIII of the Versailles Treaty). The importance of apprenticeship is stressed. The final conclusion is that a trade union can only prosper if its members are inspired with the "true trade union spirit", which is the spirit of "sacrifice, love, and harmony".

JONES, Eliot. *The Trust Problem in the United States*. New York, Macmillan. 1922. 598 pp.

A study of monopolistic aggregations of capital under unified management in the United States. An account of early devices employed to restrain competition is given and the history and character of the modern trust movement outlined. The book describes a number of representative trusts; analyses the reasons for their formation and their economic and social results; describes anti-trust legislation, court decisions interpreting it, and dissolution proceedings brought under it; and, finally, briefly considers remedies and discusses the likelihood of their being effective.

KASKEL, W. *Rechtsfälle aus dem Arbeitsrecht*. Berlin, Springer. 1922. vi, 50 pp.

Mr. Kaskel published a few years ago a study under the title *Rechtsfälle aus der Sozialen Versicherung*, in which he discussed various points in law and jurisprudence with regard to social insurance. In the present work he deals with points in legislation relating to labour, a topic which will be of interest to all those dealing with labour problems from a legal standpoint.

KAWAKAMI, K. K. *The Real Japanese Question*. New York, Macmillan. 1921. xvi, 269 pp.

This is a well-written contribution to the question of Japanese immigration into the United States by a Japanese resident in that country. There is a description of the coming of the Japanese to the American continent from the time of their first arrival in Hawaii in 1868 down to the present. All the principal issues which are a matter of dispute between Japanese and Americans on the Pacific coast are dealt with, and in a concluding chapter the author makes an effort to propound "the solution of the question". This is in the nature of a compromise. The Japanese would be guaranteed the enjoyment of all economic privileges accorded to aliens from the "most-favoured country"; on the other hand, Japan would undertake to restrict emigration of her subjects to the United States on lines similar to those of the "gentlemen's agreement". To enforce these arrangements, an American-Japanese commission should be appointed. This is the scheme put forward by the American secretary of the Japanese Association of America. An alternative plan is that of the National Committee for Constructive Immigration Legislation, according to which the number of admissible immigrants of each race or people would be determined upon the basis of a percentage of the number of those individuals of each race already in the United States who have become Americanised. The book concludes with some statistical tables relative to Japanese immigration and the Japanese in Hawaii and on the Pacific Coast.

KRANTZ, Fr. *Sonntagsruhe für Arbeiter und Angestellte in gewerblichen Betrieben*. Bücherei des Arbeitsrechts No. 17. Berlin, Hobbiling. 1921. 115 pp.

A detailed commentary on German legislation relating to the weekly rest day. The Federal laws and regulations on the subject are discussed and, more especially, the provisions of the Federal Decree relating to industry and the Federal and State regulations for its application.

LAFFONT, Paul. *Plan de réorganisation des postes et télégraphes*. Bibl. des annales des P. T. T. Paris, Eyrolles. 1922. 81 pp.

Mr. Paul Laffont, French Under-Secretary of State for Posts and Telegraphs, suggests a plan for the re-organisation of the postal, telegraph, and telephone services. He approves of state monopoly, but proposes to circumscribe and modernise it and insists on the urgency of a three-fold reform — financial, technical, and administrative. This question has recently attracted the attention of the general public, especially of employers and workers.

LAGE, Hans. *Vereinheitlichung industrieller Produktion*. Schriften des Instituts für Weltwirtschaft u. Seeverkehr No. 38, ed. by B. HARMS. Jena, Fischer. 1922. vi, 141 pp., illus.

In the introduction the meaning of standardisation in industry is defined and its methods and technical basis are described. The following chapter gives the history of standardisation in the United States, Great Britain, Germany, and other countries, and notes the efforts to extend it internationally. The last part of the book deals with the advantages of standardisation from the point of view of industrial economy. Its effects on the workers are also considered; they frequently take the form of increased fatigue and dislike of work. Various attempts have been made to counteract such ill effects by improved surroundings, change of work, and other means, but the results were not very satisfactory. The author expects better results from the application of the methods of psychological qualification tests for the selection of workers adapted to conditions existing under standardised production.

One of the principal conditions for the extension of standardisation is that it should not be an obstacle in the way of technical progress and the introduction of new methods of production.

LANDSORGANISATIONENS I SVERGE. *Berättelse över Landsorganisationens i Sverige verksamhet, 1921, avgiven till representantskapets möte i maj 1922*. Stockholm, Arbetarnes Tryckeri. 1922. 206 pp.

Report on the activities of the Swedish National Federation of Labour for 1921, presented to the Assembly of delegates in May 1922, containing information and numerous statistical tables on labour disputes, fluctuation in wages, collective agreements, unemployment among organised workers, and cost of living.

— *Protokoll förda vid Landsorganisationens i Sverige attonde ordinarie kongress i Stockholm den 28 aug. — 4 sept. 1922*. Stockholm, Arbetarnes Tryckeri. 1922. xvii, 374 pp.

Proceedings of the eighth congress of the Swedish National Federation of Labour, which took place from 28 August to 4 September 1922 at Stockholm. Among the questions discussed may be mentioned the reorganisation of the National Federation of Trade Unions, the fusion of trade organisations into industrial federations, the adoption of offensive tactics, unemployment funds and insurance, the world economic crisis, affiliation of trade unions to a political party, and amendment of the constitution of the Federation. The congress decided to meet every three instead of every five years.

LEMONON, Ernest. *L'Italie d'après la guerre (1914-1921)*. Paris, Alcan. 1922. viii, 260 pp.

Twenty pages are given to the social movement in Italy and describe workers' organisations and labour legislation, the peasant and industrial agitation in 1919-1920, fascismo and emigration.

LENNARD, Reginald. *English Agriculture since 1914 : I. The War Period*. The Journal of Political Economy. Chicago, 1922. 26 pp.

This survey deals with agricultural conditions in England and Wales from before the outbreak of the European war until the Armistice. The chief changes in cropping in the years 1916 to 1918, and the estimated yield of the increased arable area as compared with the average yield of the years 1909-1918 are shown in tables. The clear statement of the economic position of the country wage earners before the minimum wage came into force adds to the value of an article which, in a condensed form, supplies the chief facts which are indispensable to the consideration of conditions in English agriculture today.

LICHTENBERGER, Henri. *L'Allemagne d'aujourd'hui dans ses relations avec la France*. Le nouveau monde économique; enquête du Musée social. Paris, Crès. 1922. 280 pp.

Mr. Lichtenberger, the author of various books on Germany published before and during the war, attempts a psychological study of Franco-German relations; he aims at making the French point of view clear to readers of other nationalities and at describing the German point of view as accurately as possible for the enlightenment of the French public. Some pages are devoted to social questions, such as the difficulties connected with food supply, the housing crisis, and the absorption of the middle classes by the proletariat.

LIEBIG, Otto. *Organisations- und Arbeitsverhältnisse im Baugewerbe. Eine volkswirtschaftliche Studie*. Berlin, Elsner. 1922. 143 pp.

Aims at filling a gap in the social and political literature of the building industry by completing down to the present day the work of Habersbrunner entitled *Die Löhne-Arbeits- und Organisationsverhältnisse im deutschen Baugewerbe*, published in 1903, dealing with questions affecting wages, labour, and organisation in the building industry in Germany. The two chief divisions of the book describe the origins and history and the effect of political movements on workers' and employers' organisations, on collective agreements and militant tactics, and on the work and wages conditions of unorganised labour. The study is limited to the large-scale building industry.

LIGUE NATIONALE BELGE CONTRE LE PÉRIL VÉNÉRIEN. *Rapports présentés au premier congrès de la Ligue tenu à Bruxelles les dimanche 8 et lundi 9 octobre 1922, au Palais des Académies*. Brussels, 1922. 128 pp.

Reports submitted to the first congress of the Belgian League for the Prevention of Venereal Diseases held at Brussels 8 and 9 October 1922.

LORIS-MÉLICOFF, Jean. *La Révolution russe et les nouvelles républiques transcaucasiennes. Bolchevisme et antibolchevisme*. With a preface by Mr. Albert THOMAS. Paris, Alcan. 211, xvi pp.

The author of this work, who is an Armenian educated in France and French by naturalisation, endeavours to present Western readers with a view of the intellectual, social, and political development of Transcaucasia. Dr. Loris-Melicoff was charged with a mission to General Denikin by the French Government and played a leading part in the later events with which his book deals. There are chapters on the political and social evolution of Russia and the Russian Revolution, but the greater part of the book is devoted to Transcaucasia (i. e. Georgia, Azerbaijan, and Armenia) before and after the Russian conquest, to the influence of the Russian Revolution upon the destinies of that state, and to its subsequent internal policy.

LEVERMORE, Charles H. *Second Year Book of the League of Nations, 1 January 1921-6 February 1922; including the complete Story of the Washington Conference, with the complete Texts of Treaties and Agreements.* Brooklyn, New York, Brooklyn Daily Eagle; London, King. 1922. 423 pp. 7s. 6d.

The purpose of this volume is to "observe and chronicle the contributions which international forces and organisations year by year make to the life of the League of Nations". The author interprets the phrase "League of Nations" in a very broad sense. Among the principal factors in international affairs the first place is assigned to the Supreme Council; the League of Nations as constituted at Geneva, the British Empire, the Pan-American Union are described as so many "Leagues of Nations", whose policy and chief activities in relation to a variety of important questions are recorded.

LYNCH, Joseph. *Business Methods and Accountancy in Trade Unions.* London, Labour Publishing Co. 1922. 183 pp.

A text book designed to give the trade union official the requisite knowledge of business procedure and office organisation.

MADIER, G. *L'Association du barreau américain.* Preface by E. LAMBERT. Bibl. de l'Institut de droit comparé de Lyon, études et documents, Vol. I. Paris, Girard. 1922. xv, 110 pp. 7.50 francs.

Mademoiselle Madier has written a history of the American Bar Association and its activities. In a few short chapters she describes the organisation and methods of the Association, the activities of its principal committees and its attitude towards the problems which have exercised United States opinion during the last few years. She dwells particularly on the efforts of the Association to secure "uniform law" and the important part it plays as "guardian of the Constitution".

MAUVÉZIN, F. *Avant de choisir son métier ou sa profession. Conseils aux enfants, aux parents, aux éducateurs.* Edit. littéraires et politiques. Bordeaux, Bière. 94 pp. 2 francs.

In the form of advice addressed chiefly to parents and teachers the choice of a calling or profession is shown to be a delicate matter and one requiring a great deal of reflection. At the end of the pamphlet the tract issued by the Department of Vocational Training for the Gironde and South West district is reproduced, entitled *Conseils aux enfants sur le choix d'un métier.*

MAYNARD, Michel. *Les jugements déclaratoires. Une nouvelle forme d'activité judiciaire : la justice préventive.* Bibl. de l'Institut de droit comparé de Lyon, études et documents. Vol. II. Paris, Giard. 1922. 132 pp. 7.50 francs.

Declaratory procedure, almost unknown in countries of Roman law, but more frequently adopted in Anglo-Saxon and some other countries, is a form of "preventive procedure" aiming at avoiding rather than settling litigation. Mr. Maynard explains its object, character, and origin, and points out that declaratory judgment corresponds in the legal sphere to certain recent social laws in the economic field.

MERRITT, Walter Gordon. *The Struggle for Industrial Liberty.* Industrial Liberty Series No. 2; reprints from *Law and Labour.* New York, League for Industrial Rights. 1922. 98 pp.

A short industrial history of the period of organised agitation and action in the United States covering the last quarter of a century, and a plea for better

industrial relations in each factory as the best means of securing industrial liberty. Written from the point of view of extreme individualism and the importance of the enterpriser in economic organisation.

MICHEL, Henri. *Organisation et rénovation nationale*. Preface by Marshal LYAUTEY. Paris, Colin. 1922. 14, 161 pp.

A collection of notes on organisation and organisers. The author stresses the importance of good organisation from a national and an international point of view, declares that democracy seeks for men but does not train them, and outlines an educational programme he considers suitable to this end.

MONTESSUS DE BALLORE, R. de. *Index generalis, annuaire général des Universités, années 1920-1923*. Paris, 56, rue de Vaugirard et Gauthier-Villars. 1923. xxiv, 2110, xlviii pp.

This year book, towards the publication of which a grant was received from the Ministry of Education, gives detailed information about the universities, large schools, academies, archives, libraries, scientific institutions, botanical and zoological gardens, museums, observatories, and learned societies in all countries.

MONTORNÉS, Comte de. *Comision de Emigracion de la Oficina internacional del trabajo. Resumen de las deliberaciones y acuerdos*. Publications of the Supreme Emigration Council of Spain. Valencia, Tip. Moderna. 1922. 69 pp.

The Comte de Montornés, Spanish employers' delegate at the International Emigration Commission, has published a summary of the debates and conclusions of this Commission. It is an accurate and instructive account aiming at making known in Spain the work accomplished. In drawing attention to the problem of workers' emigration it emphasises the importance of the efforts of the International Labour Organisation in this field. One of the suggestions made by the Comte de Montornés is the recommendation made to the Spanish Government to undertake the translation and printing of the publications on emigration issued by the International Labour Office, in order that "this work may become properly known and the information included in the publications of the International Labour Office may be available". A detailed summary is given of the reports presented to the Commission by the Office, by the German workers' delegate, the Director of the Netherlands Emigration Association, the Spanish Emigration Council, and by himself. A report of the sittings of the Commission, the text of the resolutions passed, some general considerations, and several appendices are contained in the following chapters. This work can be recommended to all readers of Spanish who wish for a summarised review of the fundamental points involved.

MOURA, Americo Brasiliense Antunes de. *Quaes os principios scientificos a adoptar na formação da legislação social do Brasil?* Dissertation presented to the Faculty of Law of São Paulo. São Paulo, Siqueira. 1922. 126 pp.

This clear and learned work is a study of the fundamental principles which the author regards as the necessary basis of Brazilian social legislation. The chapter devoted to the development of social legislation in Brazil is a fund of information. Another chapter explains the principles of the International Labour Organisation.

MUMFORD, Lewis. *The Story of Utopias*. New York, Boni and Liveright. 1922. 315 pp.

This book is made up of interesting and scholarly descriptions and criticisms of the different Utopias men have imagined from Plato to Walter Rathenau. The various conditions of modern existence frequently held up as ideal are typified under the names of the 'country house' — the paradise

of the exploiters of mankind; 'Coketown'—the fine product of industrial efficiency and superproduction; and 'Megalopolis'—the great business city and capital of the national state; and are tellingly satirised. In the concluding chapters the writer denounces what he considers to be the false ideas of present-day Utopianism, and discusses the general principles on which the genuine Utopia might be constructed.

NACHIMSON, M. *Die Weltwirtschaft vor und nach dem Kriege. Band I: Die Weltwirtschaft vor dem Kriege.* Berlin, Laub'sche Verlagsbuchhandlung. 1922. 211 pp. Basic price: 5 marks.

In this first volume Dr. Nachimson offers a comprehensive account of the condition of the export industries of the leading Western peoples just before the war, and deals with the deeper economic problems arising out of that condition. Treating, for instance, of the prime causes of economic crisis, he attaches considerable importance to the relation between the movement of wages and the growth in the means of production. He also refers in some detail to the nominal and real wages of workers in a number of industries and countries during the years immediately preceding the war. The second volume referring to the post-war period is to appear shortly.

NATIONAL BUILDING GUILD (THE). *Labour-Saving Houses.* 47 pp.

A particularly well got up book giving a brief description of the principles and work of the (British) National Building Guild together with illustrations of the types of houses it builds.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD. *Taxation and National Income.* Research Report No. 55. New York, Century Co. 1922. vii, 86 pp.

A study of various aspects of taxation in the six principal manufacturing countries of the world—the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Germany, and Japan—with an analysis of the growth of public expenditure and taxation and the relation between taxation and national income in these countries. The subject is dealt with as an industrial problem of the first importance.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE PENSION COMMITTEE. *Pensions in Public Employment.* By Paul STUDENSKY. National Municipal Review, Vol. XI, No. 4, April 1922. Concord, National Municipal League. 29 pp.

This report embodies the result of the investigations made by the Pension Committee of the National Municipal League with a view to directing attention to the defects of some existing pension systems and formulating the fundamental principles which should govern pension laws. The appendix contains actuarial tables, and a brief bibliography on pensions follows.

NEDERLANDSCH VERBOND VAN VAKVEREENIGINGEN. *Verslag van de Elfde Algemeene Vergadering van het Nederlandsch Verbond van Vakverenigingen, gehouden op Maandag 17, Dinsdag 18, en Woensdag 19 Juli 1922 in het Genootschap "Natura Artis Magistra" te Amsterdam.* Rotterdam, "Voorwaarts". 1922. 50 pp.

An account of the eleventh General Congress of the General Confederation of Labour for the Netherlands, which took place at Amsterdam on 17, 18, and 19 July 1922. The bulk of the report consists of the opening addresses by Mr. Stenhuis, President of the Congress, and Mr. Edo Fimmen, Secretary of the International Federation of Trade Unions, together with the reports of Mr. van de Walle on unemployment and of Mr. Kupers on the struggle against militarism.

OERTMANN, Paul. *Die Gesetzgebung über Lohn- und Gehaltsbeschlagnahme*. Bücherei des Arbeitsrecht, No. 25. Berlin, Hobbing. 1922. 104 pp.

Although this work follows a former study by the author in the same series (No. 16), it is nevertheless an independent contribution to the study of the rights, practical and theoretical, of the German worker. Its aim is to explain and comment on the laws of 21 June 1869, 25 June 1919, and 23 December 1921 relative to the garnishment of wages as well as on the law for the attachment of salaries. A lucid introduction places the question within the reach of the uninitiated reader.

OTTLIK, László. *A Marxizmus Társadalomelmélete Elméleti Kritika és Történelmi Tanulmányok*. Budapest, Franklin-Társulat 1922. 136 pp.

This short study is based upon a careful examination of sources and deals especially with political aspects. The parts of the Marxian system selected for discussion are the Materialist Theory of History and the theory of the Catastrophe, and it is sought to prove deductively and inductively that these are untenable. The conception of history adopted by the author is characterised by the following sentence: "The masses have power only to destroy". He sums up his scientific conviction thus: "Whatever be the future development of the capitalist state, increasing wealth and increasing poverty will always be incompatible. Revolution will be opposed to increasing wealth, and a form of non-commercial society founded on collective production will be a check on increasing poverty".

PLUMON, *Guides techniques*. Vol. XXVI: *Travaux publics. Tome II, Ponts et routes*. Paris, Liège, libr. polyt. Bérenger. 1922. xxxiii, 735 pp.

The general arrangement and purpose of the Plumon series of technical illustrated dictionaries of technical terms in French, English, German, Italian, Spanish, and Dutch has been indicated in this *Review*, Vol. VI, No. 2, August 1922 (p. 311). The present volume is devoted to the general examination of girders, independent and dependent girders, construction and erection of metallic bridges, construction of masonry bridges, roads, and means of transport.

POISSON, E. *Socialisme et coopération*. Bibliothèque Socialiste. Paris, Rieder. 1922. 128 pp. 3 francs.

After indicating the various problems raised by the definition of collective ownership, the author examines the different forms which collectivism may assume. He seeks to show that state control under a bourgeois or proletarian government, or management in any way conducted on political principles, presents serious drawbacks leading to disorder and incompetence. He deprecates also control by the producers tending, in his opinion, to social disorganization and the worst economic consequences. On the other hand, consumers' control, the latest form of co-operative management, appears to him perfect both in principle and in practice, and it has the merit of being based on experience. Nevertheless, there remains to be found some practical means of ensuring a just share to the producer and safeguarding the rights of society.

POLISH NATIONAL COMMITTEE OF AMERICA. *Economic Life of Poland*. Published by the Committee for the Polish Encyclopaedic Publications at Fribourg, Switzerland. 1922. 747 pp.

A survey accompanied by maps, diagrams, and statistical tables of the natural wealth of Poland and the state of agriculture, industry, commerce, communication, finance, co-operative societies, and labour in the different divisions of the country.



RAMADIER, Paul. *Les éconômats patronaux devant la loi*. Bibliothèque de l'Ecole coopérative, No. 6. Paris, libr. de la Fedér. nation. des coopér. 74 pp. 3 francs.

Brief commentary on the French Act of 25 March 1910 (a sort of Truck Act), the text of which is given in the appendix.

RAYNAUD, Barthélemy. *Manuel de législation industrielle*. Paris, de Boccard, 1922. v, 427 pp. 15 francs.

Addressed not only to students of law but to those in general who come into contact with labour legislation, and attempts to give in a compact form the broad outlines and fundamental principles of French labour legislation. The book is planned to correspond to the French Labour and Social Welfare Code. The introduction defines industrial legislation and gives a short account of its historical development. Part I, under the heading *Labour Contracts*, deals with contracts of apprenticeship, contracts of work, wages, and placement of workers. Part II deals with regulation of labour, workshop conditions, hygiene, industrial safety, and inspection. Part III discusses the workers' right of association and trade unionism at the present time; Part IV, individual and collective disputes; Part V, various forms of industrial insurance — accident, old age, invalid, sickness, death, and unemployment. Finally, Part VI gives a hundred pages to international labour organisation and legislation. Each chapter is preceded by a short bibliographical note.

REVERE, Giulio. *L'Insegnamento popolare professionale in Italia*. (Work crowned by the Royal Institute of Science and Letters, Milan). Milan, Treves. 1922. 173 pp.

Mr. Revere examines the problems connected with vocational education in Italy and, in particular, that of legislation relating to schools. Primary schools, he explains, are in Italy organised solely as a preparation to secondary education, whereas for the children of the working classes they should be a preparation to adult life. The establishment of a school for workers' education in every commune, attendance being made compulsory, is today the principal question to be considered. It is, moreover, necessary to train competent teachers and to revise curricula. Finally, reforms should be effected in schools of the second and third grade, especially in higher schools for workers. The conclusion forecasts a campaign of propaganda throughout Italy to inform the public on the subject of the national school.

RICHARDSON, H. J. *A Lecture on Wealth and Work*. Foreword by Sir Wm. J. NOBLE. From *Industrial Life*. Newcastle-on-Tyne, Reid. 1922. 20 pp.

One out of a series of lectures written in 1921 on the subject of *Industrial Economics* considered from an objective standpoint. The lectures were addressed to "all, whatever their position, who are directly or indirectly engaged in wealth-producing activities of body or mind".

RISLER, Georges. *La crise du logement*. Preface by Alexandre RIBOT. Bibliothèque du Musée social. Paris, Plon-Nourrit. 1921. 125 pp. 3 francs.

A clear and concise study of the housing question in France, showing an understanding of the question in other countries. The author reminds us that the war precipitated and increased the gravity of the housing problem, which had already begun before 1914. He suggests means to remedy the present situation and makes a distinction between measures which are merely palliative and those which appear to him really efficacious. He finally outlines certain measures for future reconstruction and lays stress upon the urgent nature of the problem.

ROBBINS, Hayes. *The Labour Movement and the Farmer*. In the series *The Farmer's Bookshelf*, ed. by Kenyon L. BUTTERFIELD. New York, Harcourt Brace. 1922. vi, 195 pp.

This volume is intended to give farmers a sympathetic and accurate account of the labour movement. The author outlines briefly the causes that led up to the development of labour organisation in England, traces the history both of American trade unionism and of progressive labour movements in the United States, gives a description of the European labour movement and international labour relations. The aims of labour, the place of the public, and various labour solutions also receive considerable attention. The author's references to international labour relations are rather inadequate and not entirely accurate.

In the opening and closing chapters of the book the author strives to let the farmers see the industrial worker's point of view; he disagrees with the argument that lower industrial wages would mean better times for agriculture, maintaining that consuming power rather than a low standard of living is the basis of progress. He emphatically denies, except under emergency circumstances, that the public must pay for whatever progress labour is able to make. Industry and agriculture, he maintains, are closely knit together and agriculture will not be helped by insisting that labour takes a step down in the scale of civilised living in order to produce more cheaply for agriculture. He believes that a solution is to be found in the way of co-operation rather than of pulling down, in using every legitimate means of raising productivity, in saving waste products, and in utilising the larger opportunities in the factory, in commerce, and on the land.

ROPER, R. E. *The Individual and the Community*. London, Allen and Unwin. 1922. 224 pp.

"We need a community where none go hungry and none are slaves". The failure of past and present civilisations to bring about such desirable conditions points, in the author's opinion, to the desirability of further experiment along new lines, which it is the purpose of this book to indicate. From the principles of "co-existence" and "co-operation" underlying human evolution he deduces certain conclusions regarding the means whereby the world may be made "safe for humanity". These imply absolute freedom of the individual and negation of all authority. "Authority is an unnatural control, producing discord and disease, and destroying community — which cannot exist under compulsion". Individual effort, untrammelled by external direction or control, will, it is assumed, eventually accomplish what neither state, government, organisation, nor armament have been able to achieve.

SAVORGNAN, Francesco. *Demografia di guerra ed altri saggi*. Bologna, Manichelli. 1921. 219 pp.

Mr. Savorgnan has published a study on war and population, in which he discusses the most recent phenomena. An introductory historical sketch points out that in ancient times the growth of the population was considered as one of the primary concerns of the state. The principal features of Italian emigration are discussed, as well as the economic position of the new states formerly part of the Austrian Empire; in general, the volume deals with the principal aspects of war-time population movements.

SHADWELL, A. *The Engineering Industry and the Crisis of 1922*. London, Murray. 1922. 90 pp.

A brief history of trade union organisation in the British engineering industry leading up to the great lock-out in the spring of 1922, the points at issue in which are described. The texts of a number of the most important agreements, memoranda, and regulations between the engineering workers and employers are reprinted in appendices.

SIREY, J. B. (Recueil). *Recueil général des lois et des arrêtés en matière civile, criminelle, administrative et de droit public (France). Année 1921.* Paris, Soc. du Recueil Sirey. 1922.

The texts of legal enactments passed in France during 1921.

— *Lois annotées ou lois, décrets, ordonnances, avis du Conseil d'Etat, etc. avec notes historiques, de concordance et de jurisprudence (France).* New Series, Vol. V, first year, 1921. Paris, Soc. du Recueil Sirey. 1921. 400, 300 pp.

A commentary on the legal enactments reprinted in the work mentioned in the preceding note.

SOCIÉTÉ DES AMIS DE L'ÉCOLE NORMALE SUPÉRIEURE. *Bibliothèque normalienne, 1919-1922.* Paris, Presses universitaires de France. 1922. 184 pp.

Gives, under authors' names, the titles of works, published in 1919, 1920, and 1921, of ex-pupils of the *Ecole Normale Supérieure de Paris*.

TAWNEY, R. H. *Secondary Education for All : a Policy for Labour.* Edited for the Education Committee of the Labour Party. London, Labour Party and Allen and Unwin. 1922. 155 pp.

This work is analysed in this issue under *Notes on Workers' Education*.

THOMAS, Dr. *Die Entwicklung der orthopädischen Versorgung der Kriegsbeschädigten.* Reprinted from *Archiv. für Orthopädische und Unfallchirurgie*, Vol. XXI. Munich, Bergmann; Berlin, Klinger. 1922.

This pamphlet, written by a doctor holding an important post in the Ministry of Labour in Berlin, describes the administrative organisation of orthopaedic and prosthetic aid to the wounded during and since the world war in Germany. With regard to the question of apparatus for the wounded living outside Germany, the author suggests that the recommendations drawn up by the meeting of experts for assistance to the wounded held at the International Labour Office from 2 to 4 March 1922 be adopted. The pamphlet concludes with statistics concerning the number of invalids supplied with prosthetic and orthopaedic appliances and the nature of their infirmities.

TITTONI, Tomaso. *Modern Italy.* New York, Macmillan. 1922. 236 pp.

A series of eight lectures delivered at the request of the Institute of Politics, Williams College, Massachusetts, on the intellectual, cultural, and financial features of modern Italy. Dealing with industrial problems, Mr. Tittoni refers to the important part played by Italy in the setting up of the International Labour Organisation, gives a brief history of the labour movement in Italy, outlines the various proposals put forward to meet the problem of the international distribution of raw materials, and defines the attitude of Italy towards emigration.

TOYNBEE HALL. *Unemployment in East London. The Report of a Survey made from Toynbee Hall.* Preface by J. J. MALLON. London, King. 1922. 63 pp. 1s.

TROTSKY, Léon. *Entre l'impérialisme et la révolution. Les questions fondamentales de la Révolution à la lumière de l'expérience géorgienne.* Bibliothèque communiste. Paris, libr. de "l'Humanité". 1922. 4.50 francs.

The question of Georgia, written from the Russian Bolshevik point of view.

TUCKER, Donald S. *The Evolution of People's Banks*. Studies in History, Economics and Public Law; Faculty of Political Science of Columbia University, Vol. CII, No. 1. New York, Columbia Univ.; London, King. 1922. 272 pp.

An historical account of the development of co-operative credit institutions throughout the world and the changes effected within them to secure adaptation to changing environment, the contributions made to the progress of the movement by prominent co-operators in various countries, the various types of co-operative credit, and the future open to co-operative credit in the United States. The author mentions a type of co-operative credit, which serves "a new purpose, the making of remedial as well as of business loans", and which is being attempted in the United States.

UNION DES INDUSTRIES MÉTALLURGIQUES ET MINIÈRES, DE LA CONSTRUCTION MÉCANIQUE, ÉLECTRIQUE ET MÉTALLIQUE, ET DES INDUSTRIES S'Y RATTACHANT (France). *Annuaire 1922*. Paris. 1922. 715 pp.

Year book giving information on the Association of Metal and Mining Industries in Mechanical, Electrical, and Metal Engineering, on the Ministries and great official bodies of France, institutions for social welfare and mutual help, and on labour, social, and fiscal legislation. Tables aid the work of reference.

VAGNETTI, Leonida. *Questioni operaie alla conferenza internazionale del lavoro di Ginevra* (25 October-19 November 1921). Rome, Centenari. 1922. 51 pp. 2 lire.

Professor Vagnetti here publishes the lectures delivered by him in the spring of 1922 at the School of Social Culture in Rome. He traces the history of the international movement for the protection of the worker from its pioneers, Owen and Daniel Le Grand, to the first official efforts in that direction. He then proceeds to describe the International Labour Organisation provided for in the Treaty of Versailles and the work accomplished by the International Labour Conference at Washington. The greater part of the pamphlet is devoted to the Third International Labour Conference held at Geneva in 1921, its programme, discussions, and decisions.

WARREN, Charles. *The Supreme Court in United States History (1789-1918)*. Vols. I-III. Boston. Little, Brown. 1922. xvi, 540; x, 551; and x, 532 pp.

A history of the Supreme Court of the United States, written in greater detail for the earlier years 1789 to 1887, but also giving a general outline of leading cases and arguments for the whole period 1789 to 1918. Emphasis is laid on the views of contemporary writers and statesmen, and the effect on the status of the Court of the attacks directed against it. Among the latter are those made by the labour organisations with a view to the abolition of the Court's power to decide upon the constitutionality of statutes; the doctrine of the Court in this matter is indicated and attention drawn to the general recognition by the judges of their "duty to keep in touch with the progressive economic, social, and philosophical ideals of the day". Other subjects of particular interest are the laws relating to the regulation of immigration, cases involving impairment of obligation of contract, the law relating to corporations, their history and development.

WELLS, Louis Ray. *Industrial History of the United States*. New York, Macmillan. 1922. 584 pp., illus.

The story of the development of industrial life in the United States from the colonial period to the period immediately preceding the world war. A

number of references to other books and of questions on the subject matter of each chapter, together with a quantity of illustrations and maps, enhance the value of this text book.

WILLIAMS, Whiting. *Horny Hands and Hampered Elbows*. New York, Scribner. 1922. xi, 285 pp.

A study of the life and work of the unskilled labourer in the basic industries of iron, steel, and coal, made in the devastated areas of France in 1921, impressions gathered from a visit to Belgium and to the Ruhr District, and a comparison of the working conditions of the French and German populations. The standard of living, efficiency, and attitude of the European workers observed towards the social problems of today are contrasted with those of men of a similar standing in the United States. Attention is called to the activities of the League of Nations and the International Labour Office and the vital necessity of the co-operation of all nations for the peace of the world and the building up of industrial and social conditions indispensable to this end.

ZWING, Karl. *Geschichte der deutschen freien Gewerkschaften*. Jena, Volksbuchhandlung. 1922. x, 171 pp.

An account of the progress of the German 'free' trade unions from their start down to the present day, purposely confined to historical facts. Contains a chronological table of the German trade union congresses from 1892 to 1922, with a summary of the resolutions passed.

The following publications have also been received by the International Labour Office:

FERRI, Carlo E. *Il pensiero economico del conte di Cavour*. Biblioteca di scienze economiche, No. 20. Milan, Treves. 1921. 150 pp. — FRANÇOIS, E. *Cours élémentaire d'électricité, première année*. Bibliothèque d'enseignement technique et professionnel. Paris, Dorn. 1922. vii + 336 pp. 12 francs. — JOSEY, Charles Conant. *The Social Philosophy of Instinct*. New York, Chicago, Boston, Scribner. 1922. 274 pp. 2 dollars. — MACARA, Sir Charles W. *Social and Industrial Reform. Some International Aspects*. Eighth edition (enlarged) containing important articles on the Cotton Trade Boom. Manchester, Sherrat and Hughes. 1920. 472 pp. — MAHAÏM, Ernest. *Le droit international ouvrier. Leçons professées à la Faculté de droit de l'Université de Paris en février 1912*. Paris, Société du Recueil Sirey. 1913. vii + 384 pp. — ROBINSON, Harvey James. *The Mind in the Making: the Relation of Intelligence to Social Reform*. New York and London. Harper. 1921. 235 pp. — SEIGNOBOS, Ch. *Histoire politique de l'Europe contemporaine. Evolution des partis et des formes politiques, 1814-1896*. Ouvrage couronné par l'Académie française; prix Théroutanne. Sixth edition. Paris, Colin. 1921. 814 pp.

The *Bibliographical Notes on Industrial Hygiene* (recent literature on industrial hygiene), the last section of which appeared in the November 1922 number of the *Review*, will in future be issued as a separate quarterly publication at the price of 1/- per number.