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PREFACE

For its second year of issue the *Annual Review* appears under a new and more distinctive title. As was explained in a foreword to the first issue, this publication is an offshoot of the Report presented annually to the International Labour Conference by the Director of the International Labour Office, the Report itself having been lightened of documentary detail in order the better to concentrate attention on the broad aspects of a few paramount problems.

The *I.L.O. Year-Book* is designed to serve as a work of reference on the International Labour Organisation and the wide range of movements and problems with which the Organisation is in contact. It presents, in a compendious form, a record of the principal events and developments in the economic and social realms, summarises the national and international legislative measures of the year, and brings out the trend of social policy in all countries.

There has been no change in the general scheme of this work. In spite of some criticisms, it has been thought best to adhere generally to the original plan for the sake of maintaining continuity and facilitating comparison from year to year. An effort has been made to compress certain chapters, in order to keep the volume within convenient limits. At the same time, it has been found necessary to devote more space to the economic situation and its social repercussions—the chief theme, in present circumstances, of any such work—and the volume is therefore slightly larger this year than last. For this edition, also, the index has been enlarged and improved.

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FIRST PART

GENERAL ACTIVITY OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION

CHAPTER I

THE STATES MEMBERS

Composition of the International Labour Organisation

At the end of 1931 the International Labour Organisation was composed of the following 56 States:

Albania
Argentina
Australia
Austria
Belgium
Bolivia
Brazil
British Empire
Bulgaria
Canada
Chile
China
Colombia
Cuba
Czechoslovakia
Denmark
Dominican Republic
Estonia
Ethiopia
Finland
France
Germany
Greece
Guatemala
Haiti
Honduras
Hungary
India
Irish Free State
Italy
Japan
Latvia
Liberia
Lithuania
Luxemburg
Mexico
Netherlands
New Zealand
Nicaragua
Norway
Panama
Paraguay
Persia
Peru
Poland
Portugal
Rumania
Salvador
Siam
South Africa
Spain
Sweden
Switzerland
Uruguay
Venezuela
Yugoslavia

The strength of the International Labour Organisation in 1931 was increased by one Member—*Mexico*.

The United States of Mexico had been represented by an observer at the 1930 Session of the International Labour Conference. On that occasion a number of delegates expressed the hope that Mexico would soon be included among the Members of the Organisation. A similar manifestation took place in 1931 at the Fifteenth Session of the Conference, at which a Mexican observer was also present. The hope expressed on this occasion, however, by the President in the name of the Conference became an accomplished fact some weeks later when, in the following September, the Twelfth Assembly of the League of Nations invited Mexico to accede to the Covenant, and this State became a Member of the League of Nations. Mexico thus also became a Member of the International Labour Organisation, in accordance with Article 387, paragraph 2, of the Treaty of Peace [1].

It may perhaps be mentioned in this connection that the procedure followed for the admission of Mexico into the League of Nations was of a somewhat exceptional legal character. Mexico made no request for admission. It was the Assembly itself that, in a resolution of 8 September 1931, expressed the view that the non-inclusion of Mexico in the list given in the Annex to the Covenant enumerating the States invited to accede to the Covenant was an omission which should in justice be repaired, and accordingly decided to repair this omission. Mexico having responded unreservedly to the invitation of the Assembly, became a Member of the League of Nations, and its delegates sat for the first time in the Assembly on 23 September 1931.

The International Labour Organisation cannot but cordially welcome the admission of Mexico, for the Government of this country has taken very noteworthy measures on labour and social questions. Articles 27 and 123 of the Constitution of 1917 already laid down the principles of a labour charter. Since then, on 26 August 1931, a Labour Code has been passed which provides, *inter alia*, for an eight-hour day, protection of women and children, protection of agricultural workers, railway workers, domestic servants and seamen, freedom of association, compulsory collective agreements, workmen's compensation for accidents and occupational diseases, and the setting up of conciliation and arbitration tribunals for the solution of collective disputes.

---

[1] *Mexico:* 760,300 square miles, 16,404,030 inhabitants (1930), 17,670 miles of railways. — Important agricultural production: sugar cane (3,934,443 tons in 1929), maize, rice cotton, corn, coffee. — Considerable mineral production: silver (3,327 tons in 1929, value about 300,000,000 gold francs, 42 per cent. of the world production), lead (130,000,000 gold francs in 1929), copper (180,000,000 in the same year). — Very rich oil fields (44,687,500 barrels in 1929—record: 194,000,000 barrels in 1921). — Industrial establishments: 8,440 in 1930, including 1,355 textile mills (capital invested in industry about 600,000,000 gold francs; value of production about 600,000,000 in 1930). — International trade: more than 2,000,000,000 gold francs in 1928.

Delegations at Geneva

For the purpose of ensuring closer relations with the different bodies of the International Labour Organisation, a considerable number of States Members have set up permanent delegations in Geneva, most of which are also accredited to the Secretariat of the League of Nations.

In 1931 there were certain changes in the list of these delegations. As foreshadowed in last year's *Annual Review*, the Republic of Liberia has established a Legation accredited to the League of Nations and the International Labour Office. The head of the Legation is Mr. Antoine Sottile, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary, who has represented his Government on various occasions at the Assembly of the League of Nations and the International Labour Conference. Further, the admission of Mexico to the League of Nations has involved the transformation of the post of observer of the Mexican Government at Geneva into a post of permanent delegate. This position is held by Mr. Martinez de Alva, who was present as an observer at the 1931 Session of the Conference. Lastly, Mr. Choumenkovitch, Minister Plenipotentiary of Yugoslavia, accredited to the League of Nations, has been replaced by Mr. Ivo Andritch, Chargé d'Affaires.

With these additions and modifications the list of the permanent delegates accredited to the institutions of the League of Nations is as follows:

Albania: Mr. Lec Kurti, Resident Minister.
Canada: Dr. W. A. Riddell, Permanent Advisory Officer.
China: Mr. Woo Kaiseng, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Colombia: Mr. A. J. Restrepo, Permanent Delegate.
Cuba: Mr. G. de Blanck, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Denmark: Mr. W. Borberg, Permanent Delegate.
Finland: Mr. R. Holsti, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Greece: Mr. R. Raphaël, Permanent Delegate.
Hungary: Mr. J. Pelenyi, Resident Minister.
Irish Free State: Mr. Sean Lester, Permanent Representative.
Japan [1]*:* Mr. Shunzo Yoshisaka, Permanent Delegate, Member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
Latvia: Mr. J. Feldmans, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Liberia: Mr. A. Sottile, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Mexico: Mr. Martinez de Alva, Permanent Delegate.
Persia: Mr. A. K. Sepahbody, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Peru [1]*:* Mr. P. Paulet, Permanent Delegate.
Poland: Mr. F. Sokal, Minister Plenipotentiary, Member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office.
Portugal: Mr. de Quevedo, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Rumania: Mr. Antoniade, Minister Plenipotentiary.
South Africa: Major F. F. Pienaar, Permanent Delegate.
Sweden [1]*:* Mr. E. Sjöstrand, Social Adviser.
Yugoslavia: Mr. I. Andritch, Chargé d'Affaires.

To this list should be added the following diplomatic or consular representatives at Berne or Geneva responsible for relations with

[1] Accredited to the International Labour Office only.

the International Labour Office and the Secretariat of the League of Nations, or with the International Labour Office alone:

Bulgaria: Mr. D. Mikoff, Chargé d'Affaires.
Czechoslovakia: Mr. Z. Fierlinger, Minister Plenipotentiary.
Italy: Mr. F. Labriola, Counsellor of Legation.
Norway: Mr. H. Birkeland, Chargé d'Affaires.
Uruguay: Mr. O. Deffeminis, Consul-General in Geneva.

Relations with the States

Relations with the States Members. — It is difficult to give a general survey of the relations of the States Members with the International Labour Organisation or to endeavour to express in words or figures the value of the collaboration of individual States in the common work. In any case, the Second Part of this volume gives under its different headings information on the advance of labour legislation in the various States and on the developments in them in social reform [1]. All the same it may be useful to give here for each State Member some facts as to its representation at the Conference or in the Governing Body, and its progress in ratifications, besides indicating events of special note and showing the volume of correspondence exchanged with the Office. Such notes are of course quite inadequate for the more important industrial States, which are really in daily communication with the Office. They are also incomplete for distant countries which are less important industrially and only communicate with the Office at irregular intervals. Incomplete as they are, however, it is to be hoped that they will enable the reader to form some general idea of the interest taken by the States Members in the work of the Organisation.

The following notes indicate in the order named for each State Member:

(1) Its representation at the Conference (Fifteenth Session, 1931): number of delegates and advisers, number of women included in the delegation;
(2) Its representation on the Governing Body of the International Labour Office;
(3) Its representatives accredited to the International Labour Office (permanent delegations or representatives accredited to the Office or to all institutions of the League of Nations at Geneva; liaison by diplomatic or consular representatives at Berne or at Geneva);
(4) Its progress in ratifications in 1931;
(5) One or two facts mentioned either because they are important or because they are characteristic of the attitude of

[1] See in this connection the index at the end of this volume. This index gives as far as possible references to the notes on each country scattered throughout the different chapters of the Second Part of this volume.

the country or its Government towards the International Labour Organisation;

(6) The number of letters received and despatched [1].

Albania. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and to the Office. — Approval by Parliament of the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night, minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment, and night work of young persons. — Visit of the Director and contact established for the first time with the authorities and the press. — Proposal to create a Labour Office for the protection of the workers. — Letters received by the Office, 21; despatched, 37.

Argentina. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, three advisers. — The Convention on hours of work in coal mines laid before the competent technical authorities. — The National Labour Conference decided in favour of close collaboration with the International Labour Organisation and ratification of the international labour Conventions. — On the occasion of the Presidential elections the parties supported the policy of constant and active collaboration with the International Labour Organisation. — Creation of a National Welfare Institute. — The Railwaymen's Congress adopted a resolution favouring international action to combat unemployment and addressed a message to the International Labour Conference. — Letters received by the Office, 213; despatched, 266.

Australia. — Delegation to the Conference: one employers' delegate and one workers' delegate. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning the simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship, the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery, and the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels. — Convention concerning the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament and communicated to the Provincial Governments. — The Convention on forced or compulsory labour ratified by an Order in Council dated 2 November 1931. — Letters received, 228; letters despatched, 386.

Austria. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates and four advisers. — Represented on the Governing Body by a workers' deputy member. — Submission to Parliament of the Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and hours of work in commerce and offices, the Government proposing to postpone ratification. — Invitation by the Austrian Government to hold the 1932 Session of the Conference at Vienna. — Letters received, 657; despatched, 529.

Belgium. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, eleven advisers, and three substitute advisers. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member, a workers' member, and an employers' deputy member. — Mr. Mahaim, Government delegate, elected Chairman of the

[1] The value of the statistics for each country of letters received and despatched is only relative. Some circular letters sent out by the Office relating to the Conference or to Conventions do not always call for a reply from Governments. Besides, the Office has National Correspondents' Offices or Correspondents in some eighteen countries, and this explains to some extent the difference between the number of letters received and those despatched. (It should also be noted that the figures for these eighteen countries are only approximate, as letters exchanged between the Correspondents of the Office and national Government offices, amounting sometimes to a considerable number, are not included in the figures.) In some countries there are important central industrial organisations, and this increases the volume of correspondence with such countries. Moreover, the fact that the Office is in Switzerland involves a very considerable exchange of correspondence with authorities, individuals, and tradespeople in the country.

Governing Body. — Senate adopted a Bill for the regulation of home work which gives effect to the Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery. — Preparation of a draft Royal Decree concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages. — Participation of the Office in the International Exhibition at Elisabethville (Belgian Congo). — Letters received, 1,654; despatched, 1,474.

Bolivia. — Inclusion of labour clauses in the Bolivian Constitution. — Letters received, 13; despatched, 44.

Brazil. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, two Government advisers, including one woman. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member. — The Conventions adopted at the various Sessions of the Conference referred for examination to a committee appointed by the Minister of Labour. — Creation of a National Labour Department in the Ministry of Labour. — Creation of a Department of Agricultural Labour and a Department of Industrial Labour in the State of Sao Paulo. — Publication of the first draft Bills, the whole of which will constitute the Labour Code. — The Minister of Labour, Mr. Lindolfo Collor, makes a statement on the extent to which the national labour legislation is based on the principles of the International Labour Organisation. — Letters received, 229; despatched, 292.

British Empire. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, one substitute Government delegate, nineteen advisers, and two employers' substitute advisers (the Government delegates being the Parliamentary Secretaries to the Ministry of Labour and the Mines Department of the Board of Trade). — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member, an employers' member, and a workers' member. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants, sickness insurance for agricultural workers, and forced or compulsory labour. — His Majesty's Government accepts the obligations of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour on behalf of Newfoundland. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines submitted to Parliament. — Government decides not to accept the Convention regulating hours of work in commerce and offices. — The Director attends the Trades Union Congress at Bristol and makes a further official visit to Great Britain. — Development of the Office's relations with a number of private associations and institutions. — Letters received, 3,900; despatched, 2,424.

Bulgaria. — Represented at the Conference by one Government delegate. — The diplomatic representative of Bulgaria at Berne maintains relations with the League of Nations and the Office. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the Sobranje by a decision of the Cabinet. — The Labour Section in the Ministry of Commerce, Industry and Labour transformed into a Directorate of Labour and Social Insurance. — Creation of a national group of the International Association for Social Progress. — Appointment by the Office of an expert for the Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance. — The first Mercantile Marine Code adopted by Parliament. — Letters received, 146; despatched, 155.

Canada. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, one Government adviser. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member and a workers' member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices, and Orders-in-Council on the competence thereon of the Dominion Parliament and the Provincial Legislatures, submitted to Parliament. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines examined by the legal advisers of the Crown. — The Canadian Ministry of Labour communicated memoranda showing to what extent labour legislation in Canada takes account of the Conventions and Recommendations of the International Labour Conference. — Letters received, 374 despatched, 735.

Chile. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night; workmen's compensation for accidents; equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents; sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants; and sickness insurance for agricultural workers. — Unification of the social legislation in force. — Letters received, 75; despatched, 272.

China. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates and four advisers. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Ratification of the Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels. — On the request of the Chinese Government, an official of the Office sent to China to study the establishment of a factory inspection system. — Observers sent by the Office to the Fourth Biennial Conference on Pacific Relations. — The provisional Constitution of China contains a special section dealing with labour questions. — Letters received, 212; despatched, 295.

Colombia. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Conventions adopted at the first eleven Sessions of the Conference approved by Parliament and the Senate. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines studied by the General Labour Office. — The Senate adopted a draft Labour Code. — The Ministry of Industries to be known in future as the Ministry of Industry and Labour. — Discussion of a proposal to create an Economic Council to assist the Government in solving industrial and commercial problems. — Creation of a Scientific Management Office and a Vocational Guidance Section. — Letters received, 37; despatched, 73.

Cuba. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the Senate. — Letters received, 102; despatched, 187.

Czechoslovakia. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, fifteen advisers, including one woman. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government deputy member and an employers' deputy member. — The Diplomatic Representative of Czechoslovakia at Berne responsible for liaison with the League of Nations and the Office. — Ratification of the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases proposed to the Cabinet, and a draft Bill to apply the Convention submitted for inter-departmental examination. — Labour Chambers set up. — A visit of the Director to Prague received considerable publicity in the press. — Letters received, 768; despatched, 698.

Denmark [1]. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, four substitute delegates and advisers, two Government advisers including one woman. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member and an employers' member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Draft resolution in favour of ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour adopted by the Rigsdag. — The Conventions concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels, protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships, and hours of work in coal mines laid before the Rigsdag. — The associations, whether of workers or others, for adult education in Denmark take increasing interest, as in the other Northern countries, in the study of international questions. — Letters received, 185; despatched, 242.

Dominican Republic. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Letters received, 18; despatched, 49.

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[1] See also " Northern Countries ".

Estonia. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates. — The Riigikogu adopted an Act on hours of work in industrial establishments and an Act for ratification of the Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels. — The Riigikogu took note of the Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour, hours of work in commerce and offices, and the employment of women before and after childbirth. — The Convention concerning the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships laid before the Riigikogu. — A Bill for the reorganisation of sickness insurance withdrawn from Parliament and an alternative Bill in course of preparation. — Letters received, 88; despatched, 97.

Ethiopia. — Letters received, 1; despatched, 27.

Finland [1]. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates and one Government substitute delegate and adviser. Represented on the Governing Body by one deputy Government member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The new General Labour Federation favourably disposed towards the International Labour Organisation. — Letters received, 154; despatched, 177.

France. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, one Government substitute delegate and adviser, eleven advisers, including two women, and five substitute advisers. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member, an employers' member and a workers' member. — Ratification of the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases. — Act for conditional ratification of the Convention concerning the simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship. — Chamber of Deputies adopts a Bill for ratification of the Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents, and a Bill amending section 54 (*a*) of Part II of the Labour Code (non-employment of women before and after childbirth). — French Government represented at the funeral of the Chairman of the Governing Body, Mr. Arthur Fontaine, by the Minister of Public Works who made a speech recalling the high qualities of the deceased and his work in connection with the International Labour Organisation. — The Director of the Paris Office continues to take part as an expert in the work of the National Economic Council and its Standing Committee. He is also a member of the Board of Management of the State Radiotelephonic Stations: Eiffel Tower and P.T.T. He was recently appointed member of the board of management of the new Colonial Radio Station. — Like the Paris and provincial broadcasting stations, the Strasburg broadcasting station, which has been open for some months, has agreed to broadcast communiqués supplied by the Paris Office. — Letters received, 3,950; despatched, 2,811.

Germany. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, one substitute Government delegate, eighteen advisers including three women. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member, an employers' member and a workers' member. — Visit of the Director to Berlin, when he interviewed the Chancellor of the Reich and other important persons in the political world, as well as representatives of employers' and workers' organisations. He also visited Magdeburg and Dresden. — The Office took part in the Health Exhibition at Dresden, and was represented at various congresses. — Letters received, 3,539; despatched, 2,724.

Greece. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, three advisers. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The programme of the Republican Union Party in accordance with the principles of the International Labour Organisation. — Relations established with the Association of Manufacturers and Independent Workers, the Musicians' Association and the Theatrical Artistes' Association. — Letters received, 143; despatched, 227.

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[1] See also " Northern Countries ".

Guatemala. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Letters received, 27; despatched, 61.

Haiti. — Two Government delegates to the Conference. — Letters received, 4; despatched, 30.

Honduras. — Letters received, 1; despatched, 28.

Hungary. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, three advisers, including one woman. The workers' adviser was also a substitute delegate. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Ratification of the Convention concerning the simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship. — Letters received, 267; despatched, 305.

India. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, two Government advisers and substitute delegates, seven advisers. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member, an employers' deputy member and a workers' deputy member: Sir Atul Chatterjee, the Government member, elected Vice-Chairman of the Governing Body. — Ratification of the Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels. — The Council of State and the Legislative Assembly recommended that the Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and hours of work in commerce and offices should not be ratified. — The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted an amendment to the Merchant Shipping Act which, *inter alia*, gives effect to Article 14 of the Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement. — Mr. Joshi, who has several times been workers' delegate to the International Labour Conference, submitted a memorandum to the Federal Structure Committee, which drew attention to the necessity of dealing with the question of labour regulation on a federal basis. — The Report of the Royal Labour Commission which was presented to Parliament refers to the influence of the International Labour Organisation on the trade union movement and labour legislation. The same Commission recommended the creation of an Industrial Council based on the constitution and methods of the International Labour Organisation. — The Government of India passed resolutions in favour of the recommendations of the Labour Commission, and addressed a circular on this subject to the various Local Governments and Administrations. — Letters received, 611; despatched, 571.

Irish Free State. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, two advisers, including one woman. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour. — Submission to Parliament of the Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines. — Letters received, 160; despatched, 183.

Italy. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, eleven advisers. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member and an employers' member. — One of the Diplomatic Representatives of Italy at Berne responsible for liaison with the Office. — The Conventions adopted by the Tenth, Twelfth and Fourteenth Sessions of the Conference submitted to Parliament. — The Director of the Rome Office invited to attend as an observer at the session of the National Council of Corporations. — The Office took part in the International Conference for the Study of Population Questions and the International Conference on the use of the Cinematograph in Education, which were held at Rome. — Letters received, 1,891; despatched, 1,242.

Japan. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, seven advisers. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member, an employers' member and a workers' deputy member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the Office. — Ratification of the Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the Privy Council. — The Japan Labour Club created, representing some 75 per cent. of the organised workers and supporting the principles of the International Labour Organisation. — Letters received, 526; despatched, 425.

Latvia. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and regulating hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the Cabinet. — Letters received, 96; despatched, 166.

Liberia. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour. — Creation of a permanent delegation accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Letters received, 14; despatched, 37.

Lithuania. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning hours of work in industrial undertakings, the employment of women during the night, the night work of young persons, weekly rest in industrial undertakings, and sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines submitted to the competent authority. — Progress of the trade union movement. — Preparation of an Industrial Labour Code to replace the older Russian Labour Code. — Letters received, 48; despatched, 76.

Luxemburg. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, three advisers. The principal Government delegate was the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels and the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines submitted to the authorities, and organisations in the industry, for their opinion. — Visit of the Director to Luxemburg and contact established with the Government and trade unions: Visit to the Emil Metz Institute. — Letters received, 116; despatched, 135.

Mexico. — Entry of Mexico into the League of Nations. — Adoption of the draft Federal Labour Code by the National Congress. — Visit to the Office of Mr. Emilio Portes Gil, former President of the Republic and Mexican Minister at Paris. — Creation of permanent delegation accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Letters received, 74; despatched, 183.

Netherlands. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, ten advisers including two women. — Represented on the Governing Body by an employers' deputy member. — Ratification of the Convention concerning the minimum age of admission of young persons to employment as trimmers and stokers. — A Bill for the approval of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General. The Volksraad of the Dutch Indies was consulted and declared in favour of ratification of the Convention (modifications in accordance with Article 26 of the Convention are contained in section 2 of the Bill). — The Convention regulating hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the States-General. — A Bill amending the 1919 Factory Act being prepared. — Act on placing in employment came into force on 1 January 1932. — A Bill on protective measures during employment in general which would, *inter alia*, apply the Convention on the use of white lead in painting, submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General. — The Higher Labour Council considering a new draft Bill amending that part of the Labour Code which deals with work in bakeries. — The Second Chamber adopted a Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention on the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels, and passed an Act amending the Act on the loading and unloading of vessels and applying this Convention. — The Speech from the Throne referred to fresh progress in Dutch labour legislation. — Letters received, 893; despatched, 776.

New Zealand. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and hours of work in commerce and offices laid on the table of the Houses of Parliament. — The Government decided to postpone ratification of the Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels. — Letters received, 107; despatched, 151.

Nicaragua. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Letters received, 26; despatched, 41.

Northern Countries [1]. — The Northern countries continue to collaborate with each other on social questions. The Stockholm Conference on Social Policy again emphasised the great importance of discussion in common of questions relating to the activities of the International Labour Organisation.

Norway [2]. — Represented at the Conference by two Government delegates including one woman, one employers' delegate and three advisers, of whom one was also the employers' substitute delegate. — The Norwegian Diplomatic Representative at Berne is responsible for liaison with the League of Nations and the Office. — In a report to the Storting the Government proposes to consider at a later date the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour, at the same time as the other Conventions not ratified by Norway, and to postpone the ratification of the Convention regulating hours of work in commerce and offices until the Workers' Protection Act has been revised. — The study on the constitution and work of the International Labour Organisation which was decided upon by the Trades Union Congress has been postponed to a later date. — Letters received, 150; despatched, 173.

Panama. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Letters received, 8; despatched, 35.

Paraguay. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — Letters received, 18; despatched, 36.

Persia. — One Government delegate and one substitute delegate to the Conference. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Berne Convention on the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches and the Convention on the use of white lead in painting examined by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with a view to their being submitted to Parliament. — Several resolutions on labour conditions adopted at the General Conference on Roads and Communications. — The Persian Government has consulted the Office on measures to further the immigration of foreign settlers. — Letters received, 22; despatched, 64.

Peru. — Represented at the Conference by one Government delegate and one substitute delegate. — Permanent delegate accredited to the Office. — A Commission appointed for the purpose of framing a draft Labour Code. — Letters received, 23; despatched, 65.

Poland. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, eight advisers and substitute delegates, five advisers, including one woman. Mr. Sokal, Government delegate, was elected President of the Conference. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member and a workers' deputy member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning seamen's articles of agreement and the repatriation of seamen. — Bills for ratification of the following Conventions introduced in Parliament: marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels, and regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices. — The Conventions concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth, sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants, sickness insurance for agricultural workers, and the creation of minimum wage-fixing machinery, laid upon the table of the Diet. — The Government also forwarded to the President of the Diet the Convention concerning the simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship, stating that it was opposed to ratification. — The Polish University Association for the League of Nations sends in rotation a male or female student to Geneva in order that they may study the working of the Office. — Letters received, 570; despatched, 554.

[1] See also Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden.
[2] See also " Northern Countries ".

Portugal. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — Decrees ratifying the Conventions concerning the employment of women during the night and the night work of young persons. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines laid before the Cabinet. — A Higher Committee on National Economy created, as well as a Committee on the Revision and Reform of Labour Legislation. — A Labour Economic Conference summoned. — Letters received, 91; despatched, 187.

Rumania. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, one substitute Government delegate, and eight advisers, including two women. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government deputy member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Legislative Council adopted a Bill for ratification of the Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels, and for the adjournment of ratification of the Convention concerning protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships. — The Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines submitted to the public authorities and the organisations in the industry for their opinion. — The Ministry of Labour published a pamphlet containing the Draft Conventions and Recommendations adopted in 1929 and 1930. — A volume on the International Labour Organisation published by the Rumanian Social Institute. — Mr. Counesco, Director-General of Labour, gave a lecture on the relations between Rumania and the Office. — The Ministry of Labour published a volume entitled *Ten Years of Social Policy in Rumania*, one chapter being devoted to relations between Rumania and the Office. — Letters received, 388; despatched, 362.

Salvador. — Letters received, 19; despatched, 45.

Siam. — One Government delegate to the Conference. — The Conventions concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels and the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships submitted to the competent authorities; as the mercantile marine is so small, the Government decided not to take steps in the matter for the moment. — Letters received, 40; despatched, 43.

South Africa. — One Government delegate to the Conference, one employers' delegate accompanied by an adviser, and one workers' delegate. — Represented on the Governing Body by an employers' deputy member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The Conventions concerning forced or compulsory labour and the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices submitted to the competent authorities. — Letters received, 157; despatched, 264.

Spain. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, twelve advisers, including three women (one in each group). The Minister of Labour attended a number of the sittings, and the first Government delegate was the Under-Secretary of State for Labour. — Represented on the Governing Body by a Government member and a workers' deputy member. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning facilities for finding employment for seamen, workmen's compensation in agriculture, seamen's articles of agreement, and the repatriation of seamen. — Unconditional ratification of the Convention on hours of work in industrial undertakings. — The Republican Government is undertaking the revision of social legislation with a view to harmonising it with the international labour Conventions. — The new Constitution lays down that all international labour Conventions ratified by Spain and registered by the League of Nations are to be considered as forming an essential part of Spanish legislation. — Teachers have been officially instructed to explain to their pupils the importance of the new labour legislation and the work of the International Labour Organisation. — Visit to the Office by the Minister for Foreign Affairs. — Letters received, 832; despatched 694.

Sweden [1]. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, one substitute Government delegate (a woman), six advisers, including one woman. — Represented on the Governing Body by a workers' member and a Government deputy member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the Office. — Ratification of the Conventions concerning the weekly rest in industrial undertakings and forced or compulsory labour. — In a report to the Riksdag, the Government proposed to adjourn ratification of the Convention regulating hours of work in commerce and offices until the present enquiries into hours of work of various categories of salaried employees have been concluded. — Liaison with the International Labour Organisation ensured by a Swedish Joint Delegation; publication of reports on its work and distribution and bringing to public notice of the Office publications. — The further adaptation of national labour legislation to the international labour Conventions continues to be called for by the trade unions. — The post of permanent correspondent, instituted at Geneva by the Swedish workers' movement (General Labour Federation and Social-Democratic Press) has been maintained. — The Government dissolved the Industrial Peace Committee which had been created in 1929, as the General Labour Federation had withdrawn its representatives from the Committee. — Letters received, 337; despatched, 378.

Switzerland. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, nine advisers, including one woman. — Represented on the Governing Body by an employers' deputy member and a workers' deputy member. — The Federal Houses of Parliament adopted a Federal Act on the weekly rest which gives effect to the Convention concerning the weekly rest in industrial undertakings. — The Conventions adopted at the Fourteenth Session of the Conference submitted to the Federal Assembly; ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour to be proposed after the ratification of the principal colonial Powers; the ratification of the Convention regulating hours of work in commerce and offices depends on the adoption of a law on work in industrial and commercial establishments which is being prepared. — Meetings for studying the safeguarding of family economic interests organised at Zurich by the Swiss Association for Social Policy. — Letters received, 5,632; despatched, 3,892.

Uruguay. — Represented at the Conference by two Government delegates. — The National Labour Office of Uruguay is represented for liaison with the International Labour Office by the Consul of Uruguay in Geneva. — The President issued a Message dealing with unemployment and calling for urgent measures. — A Parliamentary Commission has been appointed to carry out an enquiry into alleged breaches of the laws protecting the labour of women and children. — Letters received, 84; despatched, 81.

Venezuela. — Represented at the Conference by two Government delegates. — Letters received, 32; despatched, 40.

Yugoslavia. — Complete delegation to the Conference: four delegates, eight advisers, including one woman. — Represented on the Governing Body by an employers' deputy member. — Permanent delegate accredited to the League of Nations and the Office. — The majority of the organisations concerned have expressed an opinion unfavourable to ratification of the Conventions on the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels, forced or compulsory labour, and hours of work in commerce and offices; these Conventions subsequently submitted to the National Assembly. — The Director visited Yugoslavia and interviewed employers' and workers' organisations as well as the national authorities at Belgrade, Ljubljana, Zagreb, Sarajevo, Doubrovnic and Cettinje. — Letters received, 244; despatched, 280.

Relations with Non-Member States. — Most of the States which are not Members of the International Labour Organisation maintain relations with it, exchange information and publications with the

[1] See also " Northern Countries ".

Office, or are in some cases unofficially represented at the Conference. Notes are given below on the co-operation of these States in the work of the International Labour Organisation and on the more important developments in labour matters which took place in these countries in 1931.

Egypt. — The Office visited by Mr. Graves, Director of the Department of Labour. — The Office asked for its opinion on the draft labour legislation. — The Egyptian Government asked that the Office should send a Mission to Egypt. — Development of relations between the Office and the Labour Department. — Letters received, 56; despatched, 57.

Iceland. — At the 1931 Session of the Alting, the Government introduced a Bill to authorise it to request admission to the League of Nations. — Participation in the work of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, and at the Conference of Northern Countries on Social Policy. — Letters received, 1; despatched, 10.

Turkey. — Represented unofficially at the Fifteenth Session of the Conference by His Excellency Kemal Husnu Bey, Minister of the Turkish Republic at Berne. — Development of relations with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Ministry of National Economy. — A copy of the draft Labour Code, submitted by the Ministry of National Economy to the Grand Assembly of Angora, forwarded to the Office for its opinion. — Letters received, 44; despatched, 53.

U.S.S.R. — The Office's relations with the U.S.S.R. remained stationary, the negative attitude of the Soviet Government as regards the League of Nations and the International Labour Office being maintained. — The exchange of publications continued to develop. — Letters received, 104; despatched, 131.

United States of America. — The Commissioner of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics, who has previously collaborated with the Office in connection with the Ford-Filene enquiry, attended the Fourth International Conference of Labour Statisticians. This was the first instance of official representation of the United States at the International Conference of Labour Statisticians, and the first time that the Department of Labor has officially participated in a Conference called by the International Labour Office.

The Federal Department of Labor continues regularly to fill out a monthly statistical form submitted by the Office, and other departments both in the Federal and the State Governments have made ready response to enquiries from Geneva or the Washington Office.

In the field of non-official relations there are new *rapprochements* to record, as well as the active maintenance of established relations. The Secretary of the National Women's Trade Union League attended the Conference as the authorised representative of that organisation. This League is endorsed by the American Federation of Labor and the Canadian Trades and Labour Congress. The Conference was also attended in a personal capacity by a staff member of the National Industrial Conference Board (an employers' research organisation) and by members of other research, academic and social reform organisations.

The Industrial Relations Counselors Inc. have maintained a representative at Geneva to follow the work of the International Labour Organisation and to collaborate with the Office on questions concerning industrial relations. This representative was also present at an unofficial meeting of chiefs of staff branches in a number of important undertakings which was held for comparing their methods and experience in regard to industrial relations.

At the Conference of the American Federation of Labor a resolution was moved by Mr. William P. Clark, President of the American Flint Glass Workers' Union of North America, with a view to initiating negotiations with President Hoover and other representatives in order that the Government of the United States should have unofficial observers stationed in the International Labour Office. This resolution was referred to the Committee on International Labor

Relations, which unanimously adopted a recommendation to the same effect. Further, the American League of Nations Association, on the occasion of its Annual Conference, adopted a resolution urging local branches to undertake systematic study and teaching of the contributions made by the International Labour Office and the Economic Section of the League of Nations towards the fuller economic integration of the world.

The Social Science Research Council continues its work in connection with the studies of the Office on comparative wage statistics.

A number of Americans serve in a personal capacity on various committees (e.g. Hygiene Advisory Committee, Permanent Migration Committee, Sub-Committee on Industrial Safety, Committee on Native Labour).

The continuance and intensification of the economic depression are causing numbers of people to give increased consideration to economic and social problems.

The general slowing up of enterprise which inevitably attends economic depression has called forth increased public demand for concerted action in the pursuit of constructive long-range policies. This demand has not yet become sufficiently focussed to produce collective action, but it has caused an interest in the effects of social legislation in other countries sufficiently widespread to lead to a discussion of foreign experience in popular periodicals and daily papers. There has been wide extension of interest both in the degree to which contemporary economic problems are common to all industrial regions and in the increasing economic interdependence of nations.

The sale of Office publications in the United States on the whole increased appreciably in 1931. Letters received, 1,457; despatched, 1,046.

CHAPTER II

THE ORGANISATION AT WORK

Under Article 388 of the Treaty of Peace the International Labour Organisation includes (1) a General Conference of representatives of the States Members (the International Labour Conference) and (2) an International Labour Office under the control of a Governing Body.

The International Labour Conference

The International Labour Conference held its Fifteenth Session at Geneva from 28 May to 19 June 1931. This Session was attended by delegations from 49 States, as against 51 States for the Fourteenth Session in the previous year, the number of delegates and advisers being respectively 143 and 216 [1].

As at previous sessions, the Conference had to deal with a number of objections lodged against the credentials of employers' and workers' delegates. Four objections were submitted to the Credentials Committee, against the credentials of the workers' delegates of Italy, Poland and Portugal and against the nomination of an adviser to the Indian employers' delegate. On the proposal of the Credentials Committee, however, the credentials of these representatives were approved by the Conference.

Composition of delegations. — Out of 49 delegations which took part in the Fifteenth Session 29 were complete in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, i.e. they included employers' and workers' delegates in addition to two Government delegates. In 1930 there were 33 complete delegations out of the total of 51, and at the general Session in 1929, 35 out of 50. The following table shows the figures for each year:

[1] These figures, totalling 359, include substitute delegates and substitute advisers.

Session	Number of States represented by complete delegations	Number of States represented by one or more Government delegates only	Number of States represented by incomplete delegations composed otherwise	Total number of States represented
Washington, 1919.	24	14	2	40
Genoa, 1920	16	7	4	27
Geneva, 1921	25	14	0	39
Geneva, 1922	20	17	2	39
Geneva, 1923	23	16	3	42
Geneva, 1924	24	14	2	40
Geneva, 1925	29	13	4	46
Geneva, 1926 (Ordinary Session)	28	8	3	39
Geneva, 1926 (Maritime Session)	27	8	3	38
Geneva, 1927	32	8	3	43
Geneva, 1928	35	8	3	46
Geneva, 1929 (Ordinary Session)	35	13	2	50
Geneva, 1929 (Maritime Session)	22	9	3	34
Geneva, 1930	33	16	2	51
Geneva, 1931	29	17	3	49

In 1931, 23 women were nominated either as delegates or advisers.

At the same session the delegations from the British Empire, Luxemburg, Spain and Sweden were headed by the Ministers or Parliamentary Secretaries for Labour or Social Affairs in charge of the department dealing with labour questions. The British delegation was headed by the Parliamentary Secretaries of the Ministry of Labour and tbe Board of Trade. The Danish Government was represented by the Finance Minister.

Work of the Conference. — The Fifteenth Session of the Conference had the three following questions on its Agenda: the age of admission of children to employment in non-industrial occupations, hours of work in coal mines, and the partial revision of the Convention concerning employment of women during the night.

In the first of these cases the object in view was to give the Conference the opportunity of completing the circle of international regulations on the age of admission of children to employment contained in the three Conventions of Washington (1919), Genoa (1920) and Geneva (1921), by extending similar regulations to non-industrial occupations. The Fifteenth Session held the first discussion of the question, adopted conclusions on the basis of which the Governments were to be consulted, and decided, *nem. con.*, to place the question on the Agenda of the Sixteenth Session of the Conference for the second and final discussion.

As regards the question of hours of work in coal mines, this question, it will be remembered, had been on the Agenda of the

Fourteenth Session in 1930. At that Session considerable discussion took place, *inter alia*, on the application of the proposed Draft Convention to lignite mines and on the subject of overtime. When the final vote was taken on the Draft Convention, the necessary two-thirds majority was not obtained, but the Conference immediately decided to place the question on the Agenda of the Fifteenth Session. At this latter Session agreement was reached on these outstanding points, and the Draft Convention as a whole was adopted by 81 votes to 2 [1].

In the third item on its Agenda the Fifteenth Session had to consider for the first time the revision of a Convention—the Convention concerning employment of women during the night. The partial revision of this Convention, as placed on the Agenda by the Governing Body on the occasion of its consideration of the ten-yearly report on the application of the Convention, covered two points, viz. whether persons holding positions of supervision or management should be excluded from the Convention, and whether it should be permitted to substitute the interval 11 p.m. to 6 a.m. for the interval 10 p.m. to 5 a.m., as the period during which night work has to be prohibited. The required two-thirds majority was not obtained when the final vote was taken on these points, and the amendments proposed were therefore not adopted.

The Governing Body

Under Article 393 of the Treaty of Peace the Governing Body of the International Labour Office consists of 24 members, 12 representing Governments (8 of these are appointed by the States of chief industrial importance), 6 elected by the employers' delegates to the Conference and the other 6 by the workers' delegates. The period of office of the Governing Body is three years.

The term of office of the Governing Body elected in 1928 expired in 1931. Fresh elections to the Governing Body accordingly took place at the Fifteenth Session of the Conference, with the following results:

Government Group:

Governments of the eight States of chief industrial importance:

Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, India and Japan.

Governments of the four States elected by the Government delegates to the Conference, excluding the delegates of the above-mentioned States:

Brazil, Poland, Spain and Denmark.

The Governments thus elected nominated the following persons as their representatives on the Governing Body:

Belgium: Mr. E. Mahaim. — *Canada:* Mr. G. Robertson (regular substitute: Mr. Riddell). — *France:* Mr. C. Picquenard. — *Germany:* Mr. O. Weigert. — *Great Britain:* Mr. F. W. Leggett. — *Italy:* Mr. G. de Michelis. —

[1] For further details cf. *post*, Second Part: *Hours of work in coal mines.*

India: Sir Atul Chatterjee. — *Japan:* Mr. S. Yoshisaka. — *Brazil:* Mr. de Barros-Pimentel. — *Poland:* Mr. F. Sokal. — *Spain:* Mr. L. Araquistain. — *Denmark:* Mr. C. V. Bramsnaes.

In accordance with the terms of paragraph 1 of Article 3 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body, a certain number of Governments have appointed for their regular members deputy members of a different nationality. These deputy members are as follows:

Czechoslovakia: Mr. Brablec (deputy for the Polish representative). — *Rumania:* Mr. Cantacuzène (deputy for the French representative). — *Sweden:* Mr. Hammarskjöld (deputy for the German representative). — *Finland:* Mr. Mannio (deputy for the Spanish representative). — *China:* Mr. Woo Kaiseng (deputy for the Belgian representative).

EMPLOYERS' GROUP:

Regular members:

Mr. Gemmill (South Africa). — Mr. Lambert-Ribot (France). — Mr. Oersted (Denmark). — Mr. Olivetti (Italy). — Mr. Forbes Watson (British Empire). — Mr. Vogel (Germany).

Deputy members:

Under paragraph 2 of Article 3 of the Standing Orders of the Governing Body, the Employers' and Workers' Groups of the Governing Body are each entitled to appoint six deputy members. In order to give effect to the claims of oversea countries, the Employers' Group decided to reserve two deputy members' seats for extra-European Members, and nominated the following persons to fill them:

Mr. Erulkar (India). — Mr. Miyajima (Japan).

The four other seats will be filled, under a system of rotation agreed upon by the group, by the following persons:

Mr. Cort van der Linden (Netherlands). — Mr. Čurčin (Yugoslavia). — Mr. Gérard (Belgium). — Mr. Tzaut (Switzerland). — Mr. Vaněk (Czechoslovakia).

WORKERS' GROUP:

Regular members:

Mr. Hayday (British Empire). — Mr. Johanson (Sweden). — Mr. Jouhaux (France). — Mr. Mertens (Belgium). — Mr. Moore (Canada). — Mr. Müller (Germany).

Deputy members:

The Workers' Group has nominated the following deputy members:

Mr. Carrillo (Spain). — Mr. Joshi (India). — Mr. Schorsch (Austria). — Mr. Schürch (Switzerland). — Mr. Suzuki (Japan). — Mr. Zulawski (Poland).

The Workers' Group has also nominated as substitutes, if required, the following six persons:

Mr. Cerutti (Argentina). — Mr. Jensen (Denmark). — Mr. Krekitch (Yugoslavia). — Mr. Nemeček (Czechoslovakia). — Mr. Roberts (New Zealand). — Mr. Wischna (Latvia).

During 1931, the International Labour Organisation suffered an irreparable loss in the death of Mr. Arthur Fontaine, who represented the French Government on the Governing Body and who for ten years had filled the office of Chairman of the Governing Body. At the Fifty-fifth Session representatives of the three groups of the Governing Body paid a tribute to the memory of the

late Chairman, and recalled the valuable work which he had performed for the improvement of legislation for the protection of the workers, and for the International Labour Organisation.

The Governing Body, called upon at that same Session to elect a new Chairman, unanimously appointed Mr. Ernest Mahaim, Professor of International Law at the University of Liége and representative of the Belgian Government on the Governing Body.

The Governing Body also elected Sir Atul Chatterjee, Mr. Oersted and Mr. Mertens as Government, Employers' and Workers' Vice-Chairmen respectively.

In order to enable all the Governments represented on the Governing Body, and particularly the Governments of extra-European countries, to be more closely connected with the duties of its Officers, the Governing Body added to its Standing Orders new provisions whereby in future the post of Chairman is to be filled by a system of rotation.

In 1931 the Governing Body held the following Sessions: the Fifty-first Session from 28 to 31 January, the Fifty-second Session from 18 to 22 April, the Fifty-third Session on 26 May and 12 June, the Fifty-fourth Session on 12 June and the Fifty-fifth Session from 12 to 17 October. All the Sessions took place in Geneva.

Amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Peace. — Quite early in the history of the Organisation the need for widening the composition of the Governing Body in order to allow a larger number of States to take part in its work began to be felt. This led the Conference in 1922 to adopt an amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Peace raising the number of Government representatives on the Governing Body from twelve to sixteen and the number of members of the employers' and workers' groups respectively from six to eight. The amendment further laid down that six out of the sixteen seats in the Government group and two out of the eight seats in each of the two non-Government groups should be reserved for representatives of non-European States.

Under Article 422 of the Treaty, the amendment does not come into force until it has been ratified by the States whose representatives compose the Council of the League of Nations and by three-fourths of the Members of the Organisation.

The Conference has been kept informed from year to year of the progress made as regards ratification of the amendment to Article 393. At the beginning of 1931 all that was required to realise the two conditions laid down by Article 422 was ratification by four States represented on the Council of the League of Nations, including one State which has a permanent seat, Italy, and three others which had temporary seats—Guatemala, Peru and Venezuela. As the Conference was to re-elect the Governing Body at its 1931 Session, the Office made an additional effort in the early months of the year to obtain the outstanding ratifications in time to allow the Conference at its Fifteenth Session to re-elect the Governing Body on the basis of the amended text of Article

393. Its endeavours were not without success, since, at the time when the Conference met, the ratifications of Peru and Venezuela had been formally registered, and the Government of Guatemala had declared that it accepted the amendment, and stated that it would complete the necessary formalities for depositing a ratification as soon as possible. Italy, however, stated that the reasons which had hitherto prevented it from ratifying the amendment still existed. The conditions required to bring the amendment into force were therefore not realised, and the Conference once again had to re-elect the Governing Body on the basis of the original text of Article 393.

At the same Session the Conference adopted a resolution moved by Mr. Tchou, Chinese Government representative, expressing " its deep disappointment that this amendment has not been put into application after nine years " and requesting the Governing Body " to make all possible fresh efforts to ensure that there may be no further delay in bringing the amendment into operation ".

When the Assembly of the League of Nations met in September, the situation was altered by the annual partial re-election of the Council of the League. The place of Venezuela on the Council was then taken by Panama. This made a further ratification necessary, for Venezuela had ratified the amendment but Panama had not done so.

A new development took place at the Fifty-fifth Session of the Governing Body. The Italian Government representative informed the Governing Body that his Government intended to propose a new amendment to Article 393 of the Treaty of Peace, as well as amendments to the Standing Orders of the Conference. In the letter on the subject which he sent to the Chairman of the Governing Body, he asked that the question should be placed on the Agenda of the Fifty-sixth Session, and announced his intention of sending in the text of the Italian Government's amendments. The amendments came before the Governing Body at its Fifty-sixth Session. It did not discuss their substance, but decided to refer the Italian Government's proposals to its Standing Orders Committee.

Committees

As in the 1930 edition, a list of the Committees of the Organisation, their present composition, and the meetings held in 1931, is given below [1].

I. — *Committees consisting of Members of the Governing Body*

In addition to its regular Committees—the Standing Orders Committee, the Finance Committee and the Accommodation

[1] In future issues, the complete composition of each Committee will not be given every year, but any changes which have occurred during the year will be mentioned. A complete list of the members of Committees will only be given every three years, after the re-election of the Governing Body.

Sub-Committee—which hold their meetings in connection with its Sessions, the Governing Body has set up a certain number of Committees which consist entirely of members of the Governing Body, although some of them may, if necessary, have recourse to the consultation of experts.

1. *Finance Committee*

The number of members of this Committee has been raised from three to four for each group.

Chairman: The Chairman of the Governing Body.

Government Group: Mr. Leggett; Mr. de Michelis; Mr. Picquenard; Mr. Weigert.

Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson; Mr. Olivetti; Mr. Miyajima; Mr. Vogel.

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Mertens; Mr. Schürch.

2. *Accommodation Sub-Committee*

Chairman: The Chairman of the Governing Body.

Government Group: Mr. Leggett.

Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut.

Workers' Group: Mr. Schürch.

3. *Standing Orders Committee*

Government Group: Sir Atul Chatterjee, Chairman; Mr. de Michelis; Mr. Yoshisaka (substitute, Mr. Araquistain); Mr. Riddell (substitute, Mr. Sokal).

Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson; Mr. Oersted; Mr. Olivetti; Mr. Vogel.

Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Müller; Mr. Schürch.

4. *Unemployment Committee*

Government Group: Mr. Leggett; Mr. de Michelis; Mr. Weigert; Mr. Yoshisaka (substitutes, Mr. Picquenard and Sir Atul Chatterjee).

Employers' Group: Mr. Cort van der Linden; Mr. Lambert-Ribot; Mr. Olivetti; Mr. Vogel (substitutes, Mr. Čurčin, Mr. Forbes Watson, Mr. Gérard, Mr. Miyajima).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Müller; Mr. Schürch (substitutes, Mr. Mertens, Mr. Johanson, Mr. Joshi).

This Committee met in connection with the Fifty-first Session of the Governing Body (January 1931). It held a second meeting on 7 and 8 December 1931.

5. *Committee on Social Charges*

Government Group: Mr. Weigert; Mr. Yoshisaka.

Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson; Mr. Vaněk.

Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson; Mr. Müller.

This Committee held no meeting in 1931.

6. *Committee on Conditions of Work in the Textile Industry*

Government Group: Sir Atul Chatterjee; Mr. Leggett; Mr. de Michelis; Mr. Yoshisaka.

Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson; Mr. Miyajima; Mr. Olivetti; Mr. Vaněk (substitutes, Mr. Čurčin, Mr. Erulkar).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Müller; Mr. Nemecek (substitute, Mr. Joshi).

The third session of this Committee took place on 19 and 20 October 1931. It discussed the observations and criticisms sent in by various Governments on the draft Questionnaire which was sent them with a view to ascertaining the position of workers employed in the textile industry in the various countries.

7. *Committee on Cost of Living and Wage Statistics*

Government Group: Mr. Leggett; Mr. Riddell; Mr. Sokal; Mr. Weigert.
Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson; Mr. Lambert-Ribot; Mr. Oersted; Mr. Vogel (substitutes, Mr. Balella, Mr. Vaněk).
Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Mertens; Mr. Zulawski.
The Committee did not meet in 1931.

8. *Committee on Conditions of Work in Coal Mines*

Government Group: Mr. Leggett; Mr. Sokal; Mr. Weigert.
Employers' Group: Mr. Forbes Watson; Mr. Lambert-Ribot; Mr. Vogel.
Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Müller.
The Committee did not meet in 1931.

9. *Committee on Correspondents' Offices*

Government Group: Mr. Leggett; Mr. Yoshisaka.
Employers' Group: Mr. Čurčin; Mr. Olivetti.
Workers' Group: Mr. Mertens; Mr. Schürch.
The Committee did not meet in 1931.

10. *Committee on the Language Question*

Government Group: Mr. Araquistain; Mr. Leggett; Mr. Picquenard; Mr. Weigert.
Employers' Group: Mr. Čurčin; Mr. Oersted; Mr. Olivetti; Mr. Vogel.
Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Müller; Mr. Schürch.
The Committee did not meet in 1931.

11. *Preparatory Sub-Committee on Handicraftsmen*

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis.
Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted.
Workers' Group: Mr. Johanson.
This Committee held two meetings on 24 January and 20 April 1931.

II. — *Mixed Committees consisting of Members of the Governing Body and Experts or Representatives of Other Institutions*

1. *Joint Maritime Commission*

Chairman: The Chairman of the Governing Body.
Regular members:
Representatives of the Governing Body:
Employers' Group: Mr. G. Olivetti (substitute, Mr. J. Lecocq).
Workers' Group: Mr. Hermann Müller (substitute, Mr. Hayday).
Shipowners: Mr. Brunelli (Italian); Mr. E. Deckers (Belgian); Mr. Cuthbert Laws (British); Mr. Kojiro Matsukata (Japanese, substitute, Mr. Kakasuke Urata); Mr. F. Odfjell (Norwegian); Mr. Hans Rehmke (German); Mr. P. de Rousiers (French).

Seamen: Mr. Brandt (Belgian); Mr. Ehlers (French); Mr. Edo Fimmen (Dutch); Mr. J. Henson (British); Mr. F. Kohler (German); Mr. S. Lundgren (Swedish); and Mr. Mahlman (Belgian).

Deputy members:

Shipowners: Mr. A. J. M. Goudriaan (Dutch); Mr. E. de Cortina y Arteta (Spanish).

Seamen: Mr. François Mas (French), Mr. T. Narasaki (Japanese).

The Committee did not meet in 1931.

2. *Mixed Advisory Agricultural Committee*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Picquenard; Mr. Riddell (substitute, Mr. Araquistain).

Employers' Group: Mr. Oersted; Mr. Vaněk.

Workers' Group: Mr. Müller; Mr. Schürch.

Representatives of the Permanent Committee of the International Institute of Agriculture:

Mr. de Michelis (Italian); Mr. Bilbao (Spanish); Mr. Brebbia (Argentina); Mr. Dop (French); Mr. Hobson (United States); Mr. Van Rijn (Dutch).

Substitutes: Mr. Porn (Rumanian); Mr. Rovira (Uruguayan); Mr. de Vuyst (Belgian).

The Committee did not meet in 1931.

3. *Migration Committee*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Bramsnaes; Mr. Picquenard; Mr. Sokal; Mr. Yoshisaka.

Employers' Group: Mr. Erulkar (substitute, Mr. Miyajima); Mr. Gérard; Mr. Lambert-Ribot (substitute, Mr. Cort van der Linden); Mr. Olivetti (substitute, Mr. Okolski).

Workers' Group: Mr. Hayday; Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Moore; Mr. Zulawski (substitute, Mr. Suzuki).

Permanent Experts:

Mr. de Michelis (Italian); Dr. Fernando Sanchez de Fuentes (Cuban); Miss Françoise de Bacourt (French); and Dr. Fritz Rager (Austrian).

The Committee did not meet in 1931.

4. *Advisory Committee on Professional Workers*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis.

Employers' Group: Mr. Lambert-Ribot.

Workers' Group: Mr. Müller.

Representatives of the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation:

Mr. Destrée (Belgian)—substitute, Mr. Castillejo (Spanish); Mr. A. Einstein (German)—substitute, Mr. Kruss (German).

Representatives of the International Confederation of Professional Workers:

Mr. Everling (German); Mr. Gallié (French); Mr. Koller (Czechoslovak); Mr. Lathan (British); Mme. Nisot (Belgian); Mr. Rygier (Polish).

Representative of the International Federation of Journalists:
Mr. Valot (French).

Representative of Italian Professional Workers' Organisations:
Mr. Bodrero (Italian).

Representatives of Professional Workers of Oversea Countries:
Mr. R. P. Paranjpye (Indian); Mr. Inazo Nitobe (Japanese).

Representatives of the International Organisation of Industrial Employers:
Mr. Lecocq; Mr. Olivetti.

This Committee held its third session on 18 and 19 May 1931. It considered various reports dealing with collective contracts of employment for journalists, the rights of performers as regards broadcasting, the recruiting and placing of professional workers, and statistics relating to professional workers. It also considered two points on which the Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees had already expressed an opinion—namely, the question of restraint of trade clauses and the question of inventions by wage earners.

5. *Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene*

Representatives of the Governing Body:
Government Group: Mr. Bramsnaes.
Employers' Group: Mr. Gérard.
Workers' Group: Mr. Müller (substitute, Mr. Schorsch).

(1) *Experts on questions of industrial hygiene:* Prof. E. Agasse-Lafont (French); Dr. B. Albert (Czechoslovak); Dr. Bauer (German); Prof. Biondi (Italian); Dr. Bogo Koinuma (Japanese); Dr. Brezina (Austrian); Dr. Bridge (British); Dr. Chajes (German); Prof. Christiani (Swiss); Mr. E. L. Collis (British); Dr. Grant Cunningham (Canadian); Dr. O. P. Geier (United States); Dr. Glibert (Belgian); Dr. Hamilton (United States); Dr. Heim de Balsac (French); Dr. Jinnosuke Hoshiai (Japanese); Dr. L. Irvine (South African); Dr. Kabrehl (Czechoslovak); Dr. Karaffa-Korbutt (Polish); Dr. Koelsch (German); Dr. Kranenburg (Dutch); Sir Thomas Legge (British); Dr. J. Loewy (Czechoslovak); Dr. O. Lorange (Norwegian); Dr. G. Loriga (Italian); Dr. Madsen (Danish); Dr. Mavrogordato (South African); Prof. Etienne Martin (French); Dr. Meyer-Brodnitz (German); Dr. Keith Moore (Australian); Sir Thomas Oliver (British); Dr. A. J. Orenstein (South African); Dr. Pieraccini (Italian); Dr. Rajchman (Polish); Dr. Joseph Rocek (Czechoslovak); Prof. Stampar (Yugoslav); Dr. M. Sternberg (Austrian); Dr. Teruoka (Japanese); Dr. C. Tovo (Italian); Mr. H. Wegmann (Swiss); Prof. C. E. A. Winslow (United States); Prof. C. Wirgin (Swedish).

(2) *Experts on questions of industrial fatigue:* Mr. Forster (Czechoslovakia); Mr. F. Lee (United States); Mr. J. S. R. MacLeod (British); Mr. Charles S. Myers (British); Prof. M. L. Patrizi (Italian); Mr. Rubner (German); Mr. John Tait (Canadian); Mr. D. R. Wilson (British).

At its sixth session, which took place from 30 July to 1 August 1931, the Committee considered various questions relating to the prevention of lead poisoning, the prevention of anthrax in industries other than the hides and skins industry, and the pathology and hygiene of workers using solvents.

6. *Correspondence Committee on Accident Prevention*

Representatives of the Governing Body:
Government Group: Mr. Araquistain.
Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut.
Workers' Group: Mr. Hermann Müller.

Experts: Sir Gerald Bellhouse (British); Mr. P. Boulin (French); Mr. J. Caen (French); Mr. L. Deladrière (Belgian); Mr. Delauney (French); Mr. Eichhorn (Polish); Dr. Fischer (German); Mr. Gorter (Dutch); Mr. H. Kresta (Czechoslovak); Mr. F. Massarelli (Italian); Mr. R. B. Morley (Canadian); Mr. Neitzel (German); Mr. Onni A. Pyykkö (Finnish); Major Henry A. Reninger (United States); Mr. H. J. Scholte (Dutch); Mr. G. Stevenson Taylor (British); Mr. Tzaut (Swiss); Mr. G. van de Weyer (Belgian); Mr. Shunzo Yoshisaka (Japanese); Dr. Zöllner (German).

This Committee met at London on 8 and 9 May 1931, and discussed the draft monograph on *Safety in the Manufacture and Use of Celluloid.*

7. *Committee on Automatic Coupling*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Araquistain.

Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut.

Workers' Group: Mr. Schürch.

Members of the Committee:

Government Group: Mr. Besser (German); Mr. Livio Ciardi (Italian); Mr. Colens (Belgian); Mr. Czapski (Polish); Mr. Grimpret (French, substitute, Mr. Roy, French); Mr. Hunziker (Swiss); Mr. Charles Simpson (Canadian); Mr. Okiiye Yamashita (Japanese, substitute, Mr. Seijito Onoye, Japanese).

Employers' Group: Dr. A. Ackermann (German); Mr. Duchatel (French); Mr. B. O. Ekman (Swedish); Mr. Francisco Gomez Rojas (Spanish, substitute, Mr. Gutierrez, Spanish); Mr. Jenkin Jones (British); Mr. Riccardo Luzzatti (Italian, substitute, Mr. Anghileri, Italian); Mr. de Tolnay (Hungarian); Dr. R. Zehnder (Swiss).

Workers' Group: Mr. C. T. Cramp (British); Mr. A. Forslun (Swedish); Dr. Grenczer (Hungarian); Mr. E. Held (Swiss); Mr. H. Hermann (German); Mr. J. Jarrigion (French); Mr. N. Nathans (Dutch); Mr. R. J. Tallon (Canadian). *Substitutes:* Mr. V. Brodecky (Czechoslovak), Mr. Issaieff (Bulgarian), Mr. T. Gomez (Spanish), Mr. K. Maxamin (Polish), Mr. P. Moltmaker (Dutch), Mr. A. Schmidt (German), Mr. J. Smeykal (Austrian).

This Committee held a meeting on 2 and 3 February 1931, at which it set up a sub-committee to follow the question of automatic coupling in connection with the studies undertaken by the International Railway Union. This sub-committee is composed as follows:

Government Group: Mr. Ciardi (Italian, substitute, Mr. Colens, Belgian); Mr. Grimpret (French).

Employers' Group: Mr. Tzaut (Swiss, substitute, Mr. Duchatel, French); Mr. Ackermann (German).

Workers' Group: Mr. Schürch (Swiss); Mr. Nathans (Dutch).

8. *Mixed Committee on Inland Navigation*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Weigert.

Employers' Group: Mr. Cort van der Linden (substitutes, Mr. Čurčin, Mr. Vanek).

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux.

Representatives of the Transit and Communications Organisation (League of Nations):

Mr. Sylvain Dreyfus; Mr. Seeliger; Mr. Winiarski.

The Committee did not meet in 1931.

9. *Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees*

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. Weigert.

Employers' Group: —

Workers' Group: Mr. Mertens.

Members representing Salaried Employees: Mr. Afhäuser (German); Mr. Brost (German); Mr. Christophe (Belgian); Mr. Hallsworth (British); Mr. Horand (Swiss); Mr. Klein (Czechoslovak); Mr. Landi (Italian); Mr. Raabe (Polish); Mr. Rössiger (German); Mr. G. J. A. Smit (Dutch); Mr. Tessier (French); Mr. Bunji Suzuki (Japanese).

The first session of this Committee took place on 14 and 15 April 1931. It discussed various questions relating to unemployment among salaried employees and the protection of inventions of wage earners, and adopted a resolution in favour of the abolition of the restraint of trade clause.

10. *Technical Committee on Glass Works*

Government Nominations

Representative of the Governing Body: Mr. Yoshisaka.

Experts: Mr. Wodon (Belgian); Mr. William Williams (British); Mr. Pokorny (Czechoslovak); Mr. Berthiot (French); Mr. Schmidt (German); Mr. Malusardi (Italian).

Employers' Nominations

Representative of the Employers' Group of the Governing Body: Mr. Oersted (substitute, Mr. Vaněk).

Experts: Mr. Baugnies (French, substitute, Mr. Franchon, French); Mr. Benedetti (Italian, substitute, Mr. Cornaz, Swiss); Mr. Larson (Swedish, substitute, Mr. Weinberg, Swedish); Mr. Meigh (British, substitute, Mr. Marchand, British); Mr. Muhlig (Czechoslovak); Mr. Otto Seeling (German).

Workers' Nominations

Representative of the Workers' Group of the Governing Body: Mr. Mertens.

Experts: Mr. Caprasse (Belgium); Mr. Charles Delzant (French); Mr. Emile Girbig (German, substitute, Mr. Krebs, German); Mr. John Stoke (British); Mr. Karl Viktora (Czechoslovak, substitute, Mr. G. Neumann, Czechoslovak).

Expert nominated by the Director of the International Labour Office: Mr. Fromm (German).

The first meeting of this Committee took place on 20 and 21 May 1931. The Committee was asked to consider systems of providing rest in glass works where work is necessarily carried on continuously over the week-end.

11. *Committee on Unemployment of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union*

In accordance with a request made by the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, the Governing Body at its Fifty-third and Fifty-fourth Sessions appointed six of its members to constitute, together with six members of the Commission of Enquiry, an Unemployment Committee which was to study the possibilities of immediate development of international placing and emigration of workers in Europe. The Committee met on 1 and 2 July 1931.

Representatives of the Governing Body:

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis; Mr. Sokal.

Employers' Group: Mr. Olivetti (substitute, Mr. Lambert-Ribot); Mr. Vogel.

Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Schürch.

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12. *Committee of Enquiry on Questions relating to Public Works and National Technical Equipment, of the Communications and Transit Organisation*

The Governing Body was also invited to be represented on the Committee set up by the Communications and Transit Organisation of the League of Nations to study questions of public works and national equipment. It appointed the following members for this purpose at its Fifty-fifth Session:

Government Group: Mr. de Michelis (substitute: Mr. Sokal).
Employers' Group: Mr. Lambert-Ribot (substitute: Mr. Vogel).
Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux (substitute: Mr. Schürch).

III. — *Committees of Experts*

1. *Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance*

List of experts: Mr. Agalopoulos (Greek); Mr. T. Andersson (Swedish); Mr. Argeseanu (Rumanian); Dr. Aurin (German); Mr. S. Aznar (Spanish); Mr. R. R. Bannatyne (British); Dr. Bauer (German); Dr. J. Baumgartner (Polish); Mr. A. Begault (Belgian); Mr. Birkmose (Danish); Mr. Bohren (Swiss); Mr. L. P. Borberg (Danish); Mr. C. von Borsig (German); Dr. Brablec (Czechoslovak); Mr. Breit (Austrian); Dr. Bresky (Czechoslovak); Professor Brezina (Austrian); Dr. Buchgraber (Austrian); Mr. Calamanni (Italian); Professor Cantelli (Italian); Mr. E. F. Carnevali (Italian); Mr. J. Collie (South African); Dr. C. H. Cramer (Swedish); Mr. Daugirdas (Lithuanian); Mr. Delvaux (Belgian); Mr. Demeur (Belgian); Prof. Dersch (Belgian); Mr. Dewandre (Belgian); Mr. Georges Drecki (Polish); Mr. J. F. Dreyfus (French); Mr. Stanley L. Duff (British); Mr. le Chanoine Eeckhout (Belgian); Mr. E. A. R. van Eimeren (Dutch); Mr. Enescu (Rumanian); Mr. G. S. W. Epps (British); Mr. Emile Fleury (French); Mr. Friedli (Swiss); Prof. Fuster (French); Dr. Gallas (Czechoslovak); Prof. Cesare Giannini (Italian); Dr. Giorgio (Swiss); Mr. Gisiger (Swiss); Dr. Milan Glaser (Yugoslav); Dr. Glibert (Belgian); Sir Joseph Glynn (Irish); Dr. Grieser (German); Mr. Edgar Hackforth (British); Mr. Onni Hallsten (Finnish); Mr. Hampl (Czechoslovak); Dr. Heimann (German); Mr. J. M. Hendrie (British); Mr. Michael Heseltine (British); Mr. Powl Holck (Danish); Dr. Hermann Horowitz (Polish); Mr. Jablonski (Latvian); Mr. Joseph Janelli (Polish); Mr. Arthur Jauniaux (Belgian); Mr. Inociencio Jimenez y Vicente (Spanish); Mr. Léopold Johanson (Estonian); Mr. Armand Kayser (Luxemburger); Sir Walter S. Kinnear (British); Dr. Béla Kovrig (Hungarian); Dr. Kretschmer (Austrian); Dr. Richard Kunicki (Polish); Mr. Giuseppe Landi (Italian); Mr. Lange (French); Mr. Per Larssen (Norwegian); Mr. Helmuth Lehmann (German); Mr. Karl Levinson (Swedish); Mr. K. Lindner (Dutch); Mr. William Maguire (Irish); Mr. Medolaghi (Italian); Mr. Mochanoff (Bulgarian); Prof. Moldenhauer (German); Mr. J. A. Newrick (British); Mr. Oermestad (Norwegian); Mr. H. Paavilainen (Finnish); Dr. Géza Pap (Hungarian); Dr. Joseph Pasternak (Polish); Dr. A. Pfisterer (Hungarian); Dr. Picek (Czechoslovak); Dr. Joseph Potyka (Polish); Dr. Resch (Austrian); Mr. Ribbing (Swedish); Mr. Gaston Roussel (French); Mr. Roze (Latvian); Mr. Saccasyn (Belgian); Prof. Schoenbaum (Czechoslovak); Dr. Schroeder (German); Mr. Schromm (Austrian); Mr. Gen Shimizu (Japanese); Mr. V. A. Sinclair (Canada); Mr. J. Sonin (Estonian); Miss Stemberg (Dutch); Mr. Störvold (Norwegian); Mr. Paul Sumien (French); Mr. Taub (Czechoslovak); Mr. H. Terlet (Dutch); Mr. Th. Théate (Belgian); Dr. Trnka (Czechoslovak); Mr. Jonas Vilkaitis (Lithuanian); Dr. Winter (Czechoslovak); Mr. I. Wyslouch (Polish); Mr. Douchan M. Yeremitch (Yugoslavian); Mr. André Zakkas (Greek).

Before the Office drew up the conclusions of the Grey Report on *Invalidity, Old-Age and Widows' and Orphans' Insurance*, this Committee was asked for its view on the social insurance points which might form the subject of inter-

national regulations. It held a meeting for this purpose from 22 to 24 June 1931.

A meeting of a certain number of actuaries belonging to this Committee was held at Geneva from 14 to 16 December 1931 to study the possibility of international regulations on the maintenance of pension rights.

2. *Committee of Experts on Native Labour*

Mr. Domingo de las Barcenas (Spanish); Mr. Cayen (Belgian); Prof. J. C. Chamberlain (United States); Mr. Camille Lejeune (French); Sir Selwyn Fremantle (India); Mr. Gohr (Belgian); Mr. Nobubumi Ito (Japanese); Lord Lugard (British); Madame Marzorati (Belgian); Mr. Merlin (French); Mr. Pollera Orsucci (Italian); Mr. von Rechenberg (German); Mr. van Rees (Dutch); Mr. Sampaio de Mello (Portuguese); Mr. Taberer (South African).

This Committee did not meet in 1931.

3. *Committee of Experts on Article 408*

Mr. Erich (Finnish); Sir Selwyn Fremantle (India); Mr. Jules Gautier (French); Mr. Gini (Italian); Prof. Ignacy Koszembar-Lyskowski (Polish); Dr. A. D. McNair (British); Mr. von Nostitz (German); Prof. Quadrat (Czechoslovak); Prof. William Rappard (Swiss); Mr. Paul Tschoffen (Belgian).

This Committee held a meeting from 10-15 April in the course of which it examined 332 reports on the application of Conventions.

4. *Technical Committee on Dockers*

Mr. Broquaire (French); Mr. Williams (British); Mr. Winter (German).

This Committee did not meet in 1931.

5. *Committee of Experts on Conditions of Work on the Principal European International Waterways*

Experts nominated by the Employers' Group: Mr. Cort van der Linden; Mr. Vogel (substitute, Mr. Vanek).

Experts nominated by the Workers' Group: Mr. Jouhaux; Mr. Rudolph.

Independent experts: Mr. Eugène Botez (Rumanian); Mr. Houpeurt (French); Mr. Alfred Konopka (Polish); Mr. Sitzler (German); Dr. Westhoff (Dutch).

This Committee did not meet in 1931.

The International Labour Office

The International Labour Office is the permanent administrative body of the International Labour Organisation. The principles of its working are laid down in Articles 394 et seq. of the Treaty of Peace.

No changes in the organisation of the Office were made in 1931: no services were modified, set up or abolished. The number of the staff remained the same as in 1930: 411 members. Its composition as regards nationality did not vary very much, although efforts to increase the number of nationalities represented were systematically continued: permanent or temporary posts which fell vacant

were reserved for nationals of the following oversea countries: Brazil, Colombia, India, Persia and Venezuela.

National Offices and Correspondents. — In 1930 there were eight National Offices (Berlin, Delhi, London, Nankin, Paris, Rome, Tokyo and Washington) and eight National Correspondents (Brussels, Bucarest, Budapest, Madrid, Prague, Rio de Janeiro, Vienna and Warsaw). In 1931, two new Correspondents were appointed: in Belgrade, Mr P. Blascovic, official of the Central Federation of Yugoslav Employers' Organisations (with Mr. L. Steinitz, of the Central Secretariat of Yugoslav Chambers of Commerce, as assistant), and in Buenos Aires, Mr. R. C. Migone, former Vice-Consul of the Argentine Republic in Geneva. Mr. O. Sulik, Commissioner in the Czechoslovak Ministry of Social Welfare, has been appointed Correspondent at Prague in place of Mr. J. Drbohlav, who has come to Geneva.

The Rome Office has been moved to the Villa Aldobrandini, in which the International Institute of Educational Cinematography and the Rome Office of the League of Nations were already established.

Accounts for 1931. — The financial administration of the Office in 1931 was affected by the financial difficulties encountered by the League of Nations, which were in turn the result of the general economic and financial depression through which the world is passing. The Office only expended 96.8 per cent. of its budget (8,878,966 francs out of 9,157,715). The receipts, however, including contributions for the current year, supplementary receipts and arrears, only amounted to 91.1 per cent. of the budget. This resulted in a cash deficit of 5.7 per cent. which had to be met from the Working Capital Fund. The arrears of contributions due to the Office on 31 December 1931 amounted to 5,718,198 gold francs, or 772,264 francs more than in 1930.

Budget for 1932. — This state of affairs and the fact that it will certainly continue and probably become worse led the Assembly of the League of Nations to make considerable reductions in the estimates for 1932.

The budget, as approved by the Governing Body, amounted to a total of 9,554,210 francs. This total was 396,495 francs more than the 1930 budget. The greater part of the increase resulted from decisions of the Governing Body or of the Assembly itself. This included estimates for two Sessions of the Conference (156,500 francs), an increase in the number of members of the Governing Body whose expenses are paid by the Organisation (32,000 francs), and the administrative reforms (190,530 francs). No new posts were asked for, though slight increases were provided for temporary staff and for the China Office.

The Office subsequently submitted to the Assembly a request for supplementary credits amounting to a total of 412,480 francs, of which 350,000 francs represented the expense of holding two

consecutive Sessions of the International Labour Conference at Vienna. The Office had been obliged to submit these estimates in case the Disarmament Conference should be meeting at Geneva uninterruptedly for nearly the whole of 1932. The remainder represented special credits for the application of certain provisions of the administrative reforms. The total estimates for 1932 thus amounted to 9,966,690 francs.

The Assembly made the following reductions in this budget:

	Francs
Estimates drawn up by the Governing Body. .	302,400
Supplementary credits.	377,000
Total	679,400

The reductions affected almost all the headings of the budget. The main reduction, however, consisted in making provision for only one Session of the Conference to be held at Geneva during an interruption of the Disarmament Conference: a total saving of 515,000 francs out of the above figure was effected in this way.

The budget finally passed for 1932 was as follows:

			Francs
	Section I: Ordinary Expenditure		
Chapter I: Sessions of the Conference and the Governing Body .			460,500
Chapter II: General services of the International Labour Office			8,594,790
Chapter III: Profit and loss on exchange			—
	Section II: Capital Expenditure		
Chapter IV: Premises, permanent equipment, etc.			82,000
	Section III: Unforeseen Expenditure		
Chapter V: Unforeseen expenditure under Chapters I-IV . . .			150,000
	Total		9,287,290
Less:			
(*a*)	Estimated receipts from publications . .	230,000	
(*b*)	Various receipts	3,471	
(*c*)	Interest	10,000	
(*d*)	Brazilian contribution.	251,529	495,000
	Net total		8,792,290

The International Management Institute

In spite of the depression, the International Management Institute increased its membership in 1931. The number of Associate Members increased by 126 (there are now 714 such members, belonging to forty-five countries), while the number of full Members rose from nine to twelve.

The work of the Institute itself was also extended. The number of persons who consulted the Information Section was considerably larger than in 1930. The Publications Section issued, in addition

to the *Monthly Bulletin*, seven studies reserved exclusively for members of the Institute. These studies were published in three languages, and occupy thirty-one volumes.

Members of the staff continued to carry out publicity work in the form of lectures given at Geneva and elsewhere. Mr. Urwick, the Director of the Institute, paid a visit to the United States of America, mainly in order to attend the Congress of the International Chamber of Commerce at Washington, for which he prepared a report on distribution in Europe. He was also able to visit a large number of institutions interested in scientific management, at which he gave twenty-five talks and lectures.

The Washington Congress decided to set up a committee for the improvement of distribution statistics, and Mr. Urwick was asked to draw up a report for the committee.

The Institute is thus establishing increasingly close relations with all countries, and useful exchanges of ideas have taken place. Institutes affiliated to the Geneva organisations have been set up in the Dutch East Indies and Brazil; their object is to promote the wider application of rationalised methods of working.

The Institute held its second international Conference at Geneva from 1 to 4 July 1931. It was attended by 192 experts, drawn from twenty countries, who discussed the advantages and disadvantages of rationalisation. In the conclusions which they formulated, the members of the Conference unanimously recognised that the present economic situation is not due to rationalisation as such, but to defective and faulty application of it as well as to various economic and political causes.

The contract under which the International Labour Office and the Twentieth Century Fund undertook to support the Institute expires on 30 June 1932. It has, however, been agreed that the contract shall be extended until 31 December, so that a careful study may be made of the means by which the Institute can be enabled to continue working in the future and maintain close collaboration with the Secretariat of the League of Nations. The principal representatives of the International Labour Office and the Twentieth Century Fund have stated that they were entirely satisfied with the work of the Institute, and expressed their belief that, in the interests of world economy and international collaboration, it was necessary that that body should continue its research work on scientific management and its endeavours to arrange for a constant exchange of experience between producers, distributors and consumers.

Relations with the League of Nations

The International Labour Office is in constant touch with the Secretariat of the League of Nations, and also collaborates with the various technical organisations set up by the League. Owing to the cordial assistance which it receives from the Secretariat, the Office is often able to act as intermediary between the various

Committees of the League of Nations and the great international workers' federations, so as to secure for the latter direct representation at international meetings held under the auspices of the League, and also acquaint the League with the views of the authorised representatives of the workers on the great questions which form the subject of international Conventions.

The present section of this volume is simply intended to show how collaboration is continued from year to year. It indicates the principal forms which such collaboration has taken and the new spheres in which it has been exercised during the year in question. As regards the most important questions, however, such as unemployment and insurance, for example, the reader will find more detailed information in the chapters of the Second Part which deal with those questions.

Economic Organisation. (a) *Economic Crisis.* — The Secretariat undertook an investigation of this question, as was stated in the *Annual Review* for 1930, in pursuance of a resolution of the Eleventh Assembly. The International Labour Office has been associated with the work in two ways. It has supplied information on questions coming within its competence, and has been represented at two meetings of representatives of national economic councils and economic research institutes. The first of these meetings, held in March, was devoted to consideration of the general programme of the investigation, and the second, in July, to the discussion of the principal results. Professor Ohlin, of the University of Stockholm, was asked to take charge of the work. The Report was published in September under the title *" The Course and Phases of the World Economic Depression ".*

(b) *The Coal Question.* — The delegation which was instructed by the Economic Committee to investigate the coal problem received a deputation of the International Miners' Federation, accompanied by representatives of the International Labour Office, on 18 June. The deputation asked the Economic Committee to resume its enquiries into the coal question as actively as possible, and suggested that a joint meeting should be held between Government, employers' and workers' representatives to consider the situation of the coal industry, and to try to find means of preventing or alleviating crises. It was pointed out that from the labour standpoint progress had been accomplished by the adoption of a Convention on hours of work in coal mines, and the hope was expressed that further progress would be made in the economic field, and that the League of Nations would be able to take action as soon as possible in order to alleviate the serious crisis through which the coal industry is passing.

The meeting of the Committee of Experts on the coal question, which was fixed for 22 October 1931, as a result of this interview, was adjourned until 11 January 1932.

(c) *European Union.* — The *Annual Review* for 1930 stated that the Office had prepared a memorandum for the second session

of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, which met from 16 to 21 January. At the third session of the Commission (15 to 21 May), the Director, in accordance with a desire previously expressed by the Commission, submitted a memorandum for a programme of action to deal with unemployment in Europe.

The Office also took part in the work of the various sub-committees set up by the Commission of Enquiry: the Economic Experts Sub-Committee (24-25 June and 24-29 August), the Sub-Committee on Credit Problems (24-26 August), and the Economic Co-ordination Sub-Committee (31 August-2 September). The Office submitted a memorandum on public works to the Sub-Committee on Credits [1].

The Committee on Unemployment, which consists of six members of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union and six members of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, met at the Office on 1 and 2 July 1931. An account of the Committee's work will be found later on, in Chapter V (" Unemployment, Placing, Migration ").

Hygiene [2]. — The Industrial Hygiene Service of the Office has continued to collaborate closely with the Health Section of the Secretariat. It has supplied information requested by the Health Section, and has made suggestions on a number of interesting questions investigated by the Health Committee of the League, including alcoholism, diet, mental hygiene and the fumigation of ships. It has also assisted in putting persons sent on mission by the Health Section of the League of Nations in touch with experts on industrial medicine in the various countries.

Protection of Children and Young Persons. — Close collaboration has been maintained between the Office and the two committees of the Advisory Commission for the Protection and Welfare of Children and Young People.

And the Seventh Session of the Child Welfare Committee (Geneva, 14-20 April 1931) the representative of the Office laid before the Committee, for information, a report on those aspects of the work of the International Labour Organisation in 1930 which were of special interest to the Committee (age of admission of children to non-industrial occupations, prohibition of forced or compulsory labour for children). It also submitted to the Committee, at the latter's request, a report on the position of illegitimate children as regards social insurance. The Committee asked the Office to prepare for its next session two reports dealing respectively with the introduction, application and results of family allowances in the different countries (continuing previous reports on this question), and with the protection of children of seasonal workers.

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[1] Cf. the Director's Report to the Sixteenth Session of the Conference, pp. 36 et seq.

[2] Cf. *post*, Chapter III, " Social Insurance ", for an account of the European Conference on Rural Hygiene, in the work of which the Office took part.

At the Tenth Session of the Committee on the Traffic in Women and Children (Geneva, 21-27 April 1931) the representative of the Office submitted for information a report on the aspects of the work of the International Labour Organisation in 1930 which were of special interest to the Committee (replies to the Questionnaire on seamen's welfare in ports—prohibition of the employment of young persons of either sex under a certain age as attendants in public houses, etc., and suppression of soliciting in the neighbourhood of ports). The Committee asked the Office to continue to lend its collaboration in regard to the protection of young female artistes.

Mandates. — The Organisation continued its regular participation in the work of the Permanent Mandates Commission during 1931. Two sessions of the Commission were held, much time being devoted to consideration of the general conditions for the termination of a Mandate and to examination of the progress achieved by Iraq, the admission of which as a Member of the League is proposed by the Mandatory Power for next year.

Slavery. — The 1931 Assembly of the League of Nations was again asked to consider a proposal of the British Delegation for the re-establishment of the Temporary Slavery Commission on which the Organisation was represented. The Fourth Committee referred this suggestion to a sub-committee, which unanimously adopted a draft resolution requesting the Council of the League of Nations to appoint a small committee of experts for one year, to study the material upon slavery supplied or transmitted by Governments since the signature of the 1926 Convention, and to submit to the Council suggestions with a view to recommending to the next Assembly such assistance measures as the League of Nations could give to countries which have agreed to abolish slavery and which requested such assistance. The resolution was adopted successively by the Fourth Committee and by the Assembly [1].

Calendar Reform. — This question was discussed in detail at the Fourth General Conference on Communications and Transit, held at Geneva from 12 to 24 October 1931. Two items relating to calendar reform were on the agenda—the stabilisation of movable feasts and the simplification of the Gregorian calendar.

The Conference considered that the stabilisation of movable feasts was desirable for economic and social reasons. A preference was expressed for the Sunday following the second Saturday in April as the date for Easter.

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[1] The Council of the League of Nations, at its session of January 1932, decided to set up this Committee. The reporter for the question stated in his report that the Committee would not have to study " the question of public or private compulsory labour, which has been entirely separated from the problem of slavery ".

The Council of the League was asked to bring these declarations to the notice of the religious authorities concerned, and to inform the Governments by 30 April 1933 of any suggestions communicated by such authorities.

On the question of the simplification of the Gregorian calendar, the Conference decided to send a statement to Governments explaining the economic and social aspects of the question. The statement points out that the Conference did not think fit to express an opinion on the actual principle of calendar reform, but that the Advisory and Technical Committee on Communications and Transit will continue its work on the question, which has always been to provide public opinion with impartial information.

Work in Prisons. — On the suggestion of the Howard League for Penal Reform and various other organisations, the Council of the League decided in January 1930 to propose that the Assembly should include in its agenda the question of penal administration. The resolution of the Council recommended that the Assembly should consider the possibility of co-operation in this field between the League of Nations and the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission (Berne Commission) with a view to improving the social, economic and health conditions of prisoners.

The two organisations mentioned above each submitted a memorandum to the Eleventh Session of the Assembly in 1930. The memorandum of the Berne Commission was accompanied by a set of rules for the treatment of prisoners, drawn up by the Commission in 1929. The Eleventh Assembly instructed the Secretary-General to ask the Governments of the States Members and various international organisations, including the International Labour Office, for their views on these rules.

In accordance with the Assembly resolution, the Office, during the first half of 1931, drew up a memorandum on those problems of penal administration which come within its competence, i.e. work in prisons. The memorandum begins by discussing the legal basis and organisation of work in prisons, and goes on to give a general account of the question of competition between free and prison labour. The second part deals with the living and working conditions of prisoners from the social standpoint.

The matter was discussed by the Fifth Committee of the Twelfth Assembly in September 1931. Most of the speakers laid stress on the importance of the questions raised in the Office's report. The Assembly itself unanimously decided to submit all the replies received to the International Penal and Penitentiary Commission, and to ask it to reconsider the set of rules. Governments will be further consulted as regards the procedure to be followed on the basis of the views of this Commission. The Assembly also requested the Office to continue its research work on the question of work in prisons.

CHAPTER III

RELATIONS

The International Labour Organisation needs external support for its work. It obtains such support in the first place from employers' and workers' organisations, which are constitutionally associated with its work, under the provisions of Part XIII. It also gets support from private organisations which promote and spread a knowledge of the objects and the work of the Organisation and of the League. It is also helped by the big religious or charitable movements and different groups of individuals or interests which in some form or other are working for objects similar to those of Part XIII and which give their support in varying degrees to the work of social justice.

Workers' Organisations

Workers' organisations are represented at the International Labour Conference and on the Governing Body of the International Office. One of the four delegates to the Conference of each State Member has to be nominated, as well as his or her advisers, in agreement with the industrial organisations which are most representative of the workpeople. Six of the twenty-four members of the Governing Body are elected by the workers' delegates as a whole at Sessions of the Conference at which periodical elections of the Governing Body take place.

In practice, with the one exception of the Red International of Labour Unions, the Office maintains relations with all the international federations and also with the national organisations which are not affiliated to them. Some notes are given below on these various groups as well as on the trade union movement in oversea countries. Statistical tables are also subjoined to show the numerical strength of the international trade union movement, classified according to orientation. Defects and omissions are readily acknowledged; but the tables are an initial effort the value of which as a guide to the many intricacies of international trade union affairs will, it is hoped, be recognised, and at any rate furnish a basis for extension and improvement. One outstanding difficulty has been that trade unions are known to exist in certain countries, but no figures or other data are available.

The names, addresses and membership figures of all the important international organisations of the trade union movement are compiled from data available on 1 January 1931.

Table I gives the names and addresses of international organisations which admit to affiliation only trade union centres.

Table II gives the names and addresses of international organisations which embrace only trade unions providing for specified industries or crafts. Indication is given in a special column of the number of countries in which such international organisations have affiliated unions.

Table II, moreover, is confined to organisations which subscribe to the constitution of the International Federation of Trade Unions (I.F.T.U.). These organisations, however, are quite autonomous and do not form an organic part of the International Federation of Trade Unions. On the other hand, the organisations and bodies specified in table III are in tendency and orientation associated with the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions (I.F.C.T.U.).

Table IV is merely a tentative effort to show the numerical strength of the various national organisations on 1 January 1931. The figures are classified according to orientation.

"Free" trade unions refer to organisations which endorse the constitution and aims of the International Federation of Trade Unions. Under the heading "Christian" are comprised the national organisations accepting the aims of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions.

In many cases the figures given under these two headings exceed the number specified as being affiliated to either international Federation. This is due to the circumstance that certain trade unions, although in agreement with the constitution of these organisations, are not a component part of them.

The column "other orientations" contains figures relating to trade unions which are not associated with any of the five main international trade union groups.

TABLE I

Name	Headquarters	Membership (1 January 1931)
International Federation of Trade Unions	Berlin	13,550,547
International Federation of Christian Trade Unions	Utrecht	1,485,065 [1]
Red International of Labour Unions	Moscow	12,910,000 [2]
International Working Men's Association	Berlin	—
International Federation of Neutral Trade Unions	Utrecht	—

[1] Plus 840,000 members of International Trade Secretariats not affiliated to national trade union centres constituting the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions.
[2] *Calendar-Ezhjagodnik Kommunista na 1931 god.*

TABLE II. — MEMBERSHIP OF THE PROFESSIONAL SECRETARIATS (ORIENTATION I.F.T.U.)

Name	Membership (1 January 1931)	Countries affiliated
Bookbinders and Kindred Trades, International Federation of, Berne	88,872	—
Building Workers, International Federation of, Berlin	969,249	19
Clothing Workers' Federation, International, Amsterdam	352,794	19
Diamond Workers, Universal Alliance of, Antwerp	22,229	7
Employees, International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical, Amsterdam	874,857	20
Factory Workers, International Federation of General, Amsterdam	569,152	14
Food and Drink Trades, International Union of Federations of Workers in the, Zurich	386,722	21
Glass Workers, International Federation of, Paris	102,971	16
Hairdressers, International Union of, Berlin	10,892	8
Hatters, International Federation of, Altenburg	34,400	11
Hotel, Restaurant and Bar Workers, International Union of, Berlin	74,000	17
Land Workers' Federation, International, Berlin	354,951	14
Lithographers and Kindred Trades, International Federation of, Amsterdam	64,477	18
Metal Workers' Federation, International, Berne	1,859,938	21
Miner's International Federation, Brussels	1,363,485	17
Painters and Kindred Trades, International Secretariat of, Hamburg	241,734	13
Postal International, Vienna	423,397	23
Pottery Workers, International Federation of, Berlin-Charlottenburg	146,734	7
Boot and Shoe Operatives and Leather Workers, International Federation of, Nüremberg	290,505	14
Public Services, International Federation of Employees in, Berlin	353,183	14
Stone Workers, International Secretariat of, Zürich	123,774	12
Teachers' International Trade Secretariat, Amsterdam	110,600	6
Textile Workers' Associations, International Federation of, London	917,853	15
Tobacco Workers, International Secretariat of, Bremen	122,031	13
Transport Workers' Federation, International, Amsterdam	2,375,000	40
Typographical Secretariat, International, Berne	231,994	23
Wood Workers, International Union of, Berlin	950,689	25

TABLE III. — MEMBERSHIP OF INTERNATIONAL PROFESSIONAL FEDERATIONS AFFILIATED TO THE I.F.C.T.U.

Name	Membership (1 January 1931)	Countries affiliated
Agricultural Workers' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Haarlem	116,286	4
Building Operatives, International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	±110,000	8
Clothing Workers' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	± 30,000	5
Employees' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Paris-Strasburg	701,474	11
Factory, Transport and Food Workers' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, The Hague	±150,000	9
Food and Drink Trades, International Federation of Trade Unions of Christian Workers in the, Utrecht	22,335	4
Graphical Trades, International Federation of Trade Unions of Christian Workers in the, Amsterdam	21,866	7
Metal Workers' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	202,200	9
Miners' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Brussels	±150,000	9
Post Office Workers' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Vaals	± 20,000	5
Public Services, International Federation of Christian Organisations of the Staff of, Antwerp	71,650	5
Railwaymen's and Tramwaymen's Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	±260,000	10
Textile Workers' Trade Unions, International Federation of Christian, Utrecht	±210,000	7
Tobacco Workers, International Federation of Christian, Eindhoven	42,000	6
Wood Workers, International Federation of Christian, Brussels	± 50,000	8

TABLE IV. — MEMBERSHIP ON 1 JANUARY 1931.

Country	" Free "	Christian	Communist	Syndicalist	Neutral	Other orientations
Austria	655,204	111,939	—	—	—	—
Belgium	544,232	203,788	—	—	—	—
Bulgaria	31,522	—	—	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	600,419	115,132	113,702	—	95,844	288,231 [1]
Denmark	339,170	—	—	—	—	—

[1] National-Socialist.

TABLE IV. — MEMBERSHIP ON 1 JANUARY 1931 *(continued)*

Country	" Free "	Christian	Communist	Syndicalist	Neutral	Other orientations
Estonia	5,275	—	—	—	—	—
Finland	24,000	—	—	—	—	—
France	882,250	102,000	294,000	3,000	—	—
Germany	5,369,919	1,370,383	—	15,000	595,045	1,019,855 [1]
Great Britain	3,719,401	—	—	—	—	—
Greece	52,575	—	—	—	—	—
Hungary	88,780	52,100	—	—	—	—
Irish Free State	101,880	—	—	—	—	—
Italy	—	—	—	—	—	3,732,930
Latvia	25,524	—	—	—	—	—
Luxemburg	15,377	2,238	—	—	—	—
Memel	1,064	—	—	—	—	—
Netherlands	275,796	234,604	—	2,400	41,100	17,457 [2]
Norway	—	—	—	—	—	140,632
Poland	228,301	77,695	—	—	—	450,000 [3]
Rumania	30,141	—	—	—	—	—
Russia	—	—	13,489,000 [4]	—	—	—
Spain	274,000	40,000	—	632,000	—	—
Sweden	602,679	—	—	28,150	20,322	—
Switzerland	259,933	29,992	—	—	1,269	—
Yugoslavia	42,157	3,927	—	—	—	2,815 [5]
Extra-European countries						
Argentina	—	—	—	30,000	—	250,000
Dominican Republic	—	—	—	—	—	35,000
Dutch East Indies	32,000	—	—	—	—	—
India	66,400	—	—	—	—	104,500 [6]
Japan	300,000	—	10,000	—	—	60,000
Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	1,836,530
New Zealand	40,000	—	—	—	—	—
South Africa	7,000	—	—	—	—	8,934
South-West Africa	600	—	—	—	—	—
Uruguay	600	—	—	5,000	—	—
U.S.A.	—	—	—	—	—	2,889,550

[1] Deutscher Beamtenbund.
[2] N.A.S.
[3] In five national centres.
[4] On 1 April 1931.
[5] Nationalists.
[6] All-India Trade Union Congress, end 1931.

The year under review has been characterised by continued international activity on the part of the trade union movement to secure the introduction of universal measures to meet the emergency arising from the world economic crisis and the ever-growing volume of unemployment it has entailed. Indeed, it may be stated that the very keynote of trade union effort in inter

national affairs has been in this direction. The movement has to all appearances pooled its united resources to combat unemployment and to secure as its immediate object the reduction of working hours of those in industrial employment to a general level of forty in the week. In all countries the trade union movement has been constrained to assume the defensive against large-scale attempts to impose reductions of wages, more onerous working conditions and the curtailment of social services.

International Federation of Trade Unions

This organisation continues to be the most authoritative and representative federation in the international movement. During the year it transferred its permanent headquarters from Amsterdam to Berlin in accordance with a decision ratified by its last Congress held at Stockholm in 1930. Matters of outstanding importance to trade unionism were reviewed by the annual session of the General Council of the Federation which met at Madrid last April, when the Council endorsed the demands formulated by the Joint Committee of the International Federation of Trade Unions and the Labour and Socialist International for a forty-hour working week. The resolution in favour of the forty-four-hour working week adopted by the Stockholm Congress of the Federation in 1930 was thus superseded.

Organisation of the International Federation of Trade Unions. — At the Annual Joint Conference of the Executive Committee of the International Federation and the International Trade Secretariats held in Madrid immediately after the General Council meeting, preliminary consideration was given to the proposal made at the Stockholm Congress to incorporate the International Trade Secretariats within the organisational framework of the International Federation of Trade Unions. As the result of the exchange of views which took place, the Executive Committee of the Federation undertook to draft a report for submission to the next session of the Joint Conference to be held in March 1932.

Investigations into the position of the trade unions in the Balkan countries and Egypt have also been undertaken, on the instructions of the Executive Committee, by the General Secretary of the Federation, Mr. W. Schevenels, whose efforts appear to have led to a move to consolidate the trade union movement in the Balkans and also to initial steps to establish a trade union movement in Egypt.

A mission has been appointed to proceed to the Far East and will probably leave for that destination in the autumn of 1932.

The problem of extending the scope and influence of the Federation in Latin-American countries is also still engaging the earnest attention of the Executive Committee. It is hoped that a co-ordination conference of Latin-American trade union organisations will shortly be held under the auspices of the International Federation of Trade Unions.

The World Crisis and the International Federation of Trade Unions. — Interest was shown by the Executive Committee in the action taken by President Hoover to secure a moratorium in the payment of war debts, which the Committee regarded as a step towards political conciliation and economic rehabilitation. At a further session the Committee decided to telegraph to the American Federation of Labor inviting it to participate in an international trade union conference to prepare for joint trade union action with the object of surmounting the economic crisis. The Committee intends to give active support to the plan proposed by the Director of the International Labour Office for an international programme of public works for providing work for the unemployed, and to take steps for the realisation of a policy for securing the necessary capital to inaugurate this plan. The Committee foresees, however, the desirability for State control of credit in all countries, with workers' participation, and a wages policy which will restore to the masses a volume of purchasing power proportionate to the increase of economic productivity.

National Federations. — Below are given summaries of the outstanding activities of a number of national federations, which, with the exception of Norway and the Unitarian Federation in France, are affiliated to the International Federation of Trade Unions.

Austria. — The Austrian Federation has voiced the necessity for the concentration of larger trade union groups and the amalgamation of the Austrian trade union press.

As regards its policy on unemployment, the Federation subscribes to a legal reduction of working hours to forty in the week, compulsory employment exchanges under the joint control of workers', employers' and Government representatives, maintenance of the unemployed, and legislation to prevent double employment of persons who are in receipt of adequate income from one source.

Belgium. — The Belgian Trade Union Centre has been in the forefront with practical demands to combat unemployment. It has pronounced in favour of the forty-hour working week with maintenance of the present standard of purchasing power of the workers, the raising of the school-leaving age to sixteen and the lowering of the age limit for old-age pensions. The Belgian centre has also suggested that the Belgian Government member of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office should propose the question of the forty-hour working week for inclusion in the Agenda of the International Labour Conference with a view to the adoption of a Convention. If action by the Governing Body was not possible under existing procedure, the Centre proposed that the Director of the International Labour Office should be authorised to convene the Governments of industrial countries to a special tripartite conference for the purpose of concluding an agreement providing for the forty-hour working week.

Czechoslovakia. — The united central Czechoslovak and German trade union organisations have taken every opportunity to stress the importance and urgency of the Bill before the Czechoslovak Parliament to establish the forty-hour working week. Strong opposition is promised by the trade unions to any attempt to impose reductions of wages. The trade unions also advocate *inter alia* the inauguration of extensive emergency public works, reorganisation of job-finding and placement, improved credit facilities for the State

and State-controlled enterprises, grants in aid to the unemployed through the medium of the trade unions, and public supervision of cartels and trusts.

Denmark. — The Danish Federation of Trade Unions in 1931 succeeded in averting a national lock-out, although the settlement led to a measure of friction between itself and one of its affiliated unions. A vote of confidence in the course taken by the Executive Committee of the Federation was carried by the Triennial Conference held at Copenhagen last May. The Federation has called for legislation to prescribe shorter working hours than are stipulated in the Washington Hours Convention.

Finland. — The provisional organisation founded in 1930 in opposition to the organisation which accepted a Communist platform has now been definitely established, although owing to unemployment and general economic distress no great expansion of activities was witnessed in 1931.

France. — Attempts were made to re-constitute trade union unity in France. It was hoped by the promoters of these attempts to establish a working relationship with the supporters of the Unitarian (Communist) Federation of Labour. The General Confederation of Labour, whose position as the most representative workers' organisation of France was strengthened in 1931, re-affirmed its point of view that trade union unity in France can only be achieved by other trade union federations merging themselves with the General Confederation of Labour; it has urged its affiliated bodies to apply themselves with even greater purpose than hitherto to promoting peace and reconciliation in the ranks of French trade unionism.

Criticism of the activities of the Confederation's Executive by Left Wing supporters was not upheld by the Congress of the Confederation which was held in Paris last September, when the vote of confidence in favour of the policy pursued by the Executive was carried by 5,131 votes to 124.

The Confederation is still actively pursuing its demands for labour legislation, especially for the ratification of the international labour Conventions and the extension of the Eight Hours Act. It is also seeking an improvement of the administrative services set up under the Social Insurance Act as well as an extension of the existing legislation in order to embrace unemployment insurance.

To ensure the re-employment of the greatest possible number of unemployed, the policy of the Confederation is to press for a reduction of the working week to forty hours, spread over a period of five days, with a corresponding increase of wages; holidays with pay; extension and improvement of unemployment relief; raising of the school-leaving age; and the lowering of the age limit of persons eligible to receive pensions.

Continuing its efforts to develop the trade union movement in North Africa, the Confederation held under its auspices a second Congress of North African Trade Unions at Tunis last March. The programme formulated at this Congress included demands for the legal recognition of trade unions in North Africa, the eight-hour day, and holidays with pay.

In contrast to the constructive activity of the General Confederation of Labour, the influence of the General Federation of *Unitarian* Labour appears to be definitely on the decline. There has been an acknowledged loss of 100,000 members during the past two years. This Federation is also torn by internal dissensions owing to the growing resentment of syndicalist sympathisers at the policy of the Communistic Executive and its virtual dictatorship by the Red International of Labour Unions. At its Congress in Paris last November the Federation replied to the overture implied in the resolution adopted by the Congress of the General Confederation of Labour held previously, by stating that the *Unitarian* Federation would never re-unite its forces with the General Confederation of Labour, as this would betoken abdication to the bourgeoisie. The *Unitarian* Federation also attacked the International Federation of Trade Unions for acting in co-operation with the Labour and Socialist International to secure measures which it was alleged were intended " to rescue decadent capitalism ". It also called for the rejection by the workers of collaboration with the National Economic Council of France, the International Labour Office and the League of Nations.

Germany. — The General Federation of German Trade Unions during 1931 engaged the whole of its resources to stave off the consequences of reductions of wages, a lowering of working conditions and a retrenchment of certain social services imposed under the terms of various Emergency Decrees issued by the Government of the Reich.

The exceptional nature of the situation may be gauged by the formation of a united front of the whole German trade union movement, namely, of the Socialist, Christian and neutral trade union federations. These three organisations have acted together in offering resistance to the inroads made on the results of trade union efforts over many decades. This collaboration was also extended in an attempt to induce the German Government to implement measures for the introduction of the forty-hour week as a means of mitigating the acute distress and destitution among millions of unemployed German workers.

Resentment was expressed that the claims of the German trade unions to participate in negotiations with regard to the Young Plan had been ignored, although two representatives of the German Federation of Industries had been sent to take part in the Paris negotiations. At the Frankfurt Congress, too, held in September 1931, it was deplored that attempts on the part of the German trade unions to take part in the planning of economic policy had hitherto failed.

This Congress afforded the opportunity for an address by Dr. Stegerwald, the German Minister of Labour, who was not, however, in a position to indicate any fundamental alteration in the attitude of the Government of the Reich. The forty-hour working week, according to him, signified for a number of trades, industries and undertakings an increase in costs of production which would act as an impediment to German export trade. He considered, however, that there were cases where a shortening of working hours would be possible without any notable effect on economic stability, and envisaged negotiations at an early date with regard to such cases, in which negotiations the Federation has since taken part.

The Federation continues to attach great importance to the development of labour law. It desires to see the building up of a system of labour jurisprudence based on the collective bargaining power of the trade unions, which system it regards as a guarantee of social justice to working people. The Federation hopes to secure legislative support for compulsory general application of collective agreements and preventing any attempts that may be made to evade their provisions. Other legislative measures sought by the Federation in 1931 were legal holidays with pay, extension of the right of trade unions to participate as representatives of the workpeople in the management of undertakings, recognition of the legal status of collective agreements and legal recognition of trade unions in determining conditions of apprenticeship.

The Federation has again emphasised the importance of the promotion of public enterprise, which it regards as the right method of transforming capitalist private enterprise into a planned economic system based upon human needs. It proposed, in particular, to lend every effort to ensure that public savings banks and other banking undertakings should be called upon to serve the financial needs of public bodies, since it believes that the liquidation of public financial needs through extended participation of the Government in ordinary economic activity would produce less friction than by making immediate levies upon the population by means of taxation.

Great Britain. — The British Trades Union Congress was to the forefront in concentrating public attention on the financial position of unemployment insurance. It voiced the conclusion that the Unemployment Insurance Fund in Great Britain could not be balanced on an insurance basis and, moreover, that the principles of insurance were not applicable to unemployment, at any rate during the present economic depression. The trade union movement therefore advanced the demand for a State scheme of unemployment benefit payable out of national revenue and derived from taxation or levies on earned and unearned incomes. Strenuous opposition was also raised to proposals to reduce the scales of benefits paid to the unemployed. In the course of negotiations with the Government prior to the dissolution of Parliament last

autumn, the General Council of the Trades Union Congress declared itself opposed inflexibly to all-round reductions of wages and salaries. If favoured the inflation of sterling as the most effective course for Great Britain to pursue if that country was compelled to act alone in dealing with the economic problems arising from post-war international conditions.

Last September the British Trades Union Congress at Bristol unanimously demanded a forty-hour week, stating that modern methods of production as well as the need for absorption of the unemployed gave every justification for the speedy realisation of this reform.

The Congress also ratified the scheme of organised consultations between the Trades Union Congress and the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations and the Federation of British Industries. A subject now being discussed jointly by the three bodies is displacement of labour as a result of rationalisation.

The General Council has been authorised to advance nationally and internationally a policy of comprehensive economic planning and regulation of trading relations.

Profound regret has been voiced on behalf of the trade unions at the inability of the British Labour Government to implement its undertaking to ratify the Washington Hours Convention.

Greece. — The difficulties of the Greek trade union movement in 1931 were the subject of close attention by the International Federation of Trade Unions, whose general secretary assisted in making the material arrangements for the Sixth Trade Union Congress held last October, under the Presidency of Mr. L. Jouhaux, Vice-President of the International Federation. The Greek Confederation of Labour claims that as a result of this intervention the movement in Greece has been consolidated, although certain trade unions have broken away from the Confederation.

Hungary. — The efforts of the trade unions have been largely mobilised to prevail upon the Government to give grants in aid to the unemployed, in the absence of a system of unemployment insurance.

The Netherlands. — Conforming to its traditional policy, the Netherlands Federation has acted in conjunction with the Dutch Social-Democratic Labour Party to secure legislative measures for the relief of unemployment. At a joint Congress of the two bodies it was demanded, *inter alia*, that the question of the forty-hour working week be referred to the International Labour Organisation as soon as possible.

The Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions, in accordance with a decision of its last Congress, sent a mission to the Dutch East Indies in the spring of 1931. A full report is not yet available, but it may be stated that success has attended the efforts of the mission to induce certain native workers' organisations to affiliate with the International Federation of Trade Unions.

Norway. — Once again the question of the representation of Norwegian workers' interests at Sessions of the International Labour Conference has been keenly debated within the trade union movement of Norway. Last year it was the Norwegian Seamen's Union that urged the necessity of being represented at Geneva in view of the importance of the discussion on hours of work at sea. At its Thirteenth General Congress held at Oslo last February the Norwegian Federation was also faced with a further demand that special attention should be given to the relations between Norwegian labour legislation and the decisions of the International Labour Conference.

Whilst the Executive Committee was adamant in its opposition to representation at the Conference, basing its attitude on a decision of the Norwegian Trade Union Congress held in 1925, the Congress agreed by 161 votes to 133 that the seamen should " participate in the work at Geneva ", and by a large majority that the Executive Committee should prepare a report on labour legislation in Norway in relation to the decisions of the International Labour Organisation.

The Federation Executive still hesitates to make a bold move towards complete and logical reconciliation with the International Federation of

Trade Unions. Indeed, it has thrust the responsibility for the first step in this direction on the membership of its affiliated unions by stipulating that a general ballot shall determine the question of Norwegian affiliation to the International Federation. This, however, it has coupled with a further condition that " trade union unity shall be first established ".

Palestine. — The organisation and progress of the Jewish trade unions in 1931 may be seen in their successful endeavours to establish and maintain a working alliance with the Arab workers of Palestine. The policy of the General Federation of Jewish Labour as well as various Arab sections is to work for the establishment of one Federation and in this way to achieve unity of all the workers in Palestine without distinction of religion or race.

Sweden. — It was ascertained at the quinquennial Congress of the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions, held in August 1931, that the growth of the Confederation since 1926 was not less than 26.5 per cent. The Swedish unions, under the aegis of the Confederation, are signatory to no less than 5,736 collective agreements contracted on behalf of 492,895 workers.

Efforts are being made to induce the Riksdag and local government authorities to grant larger sums for the relief of unemployment and for public works to be carried out by unemployed persons.

Switzerland. — The Swiss Federation of Trade Unions has decided to act with the Swiss Social-Democratic Party to secure the State control of trusts and cartels. Action has also been taken to secure the adoption of a policy of shorter working hours and legislation on paid holidays.

Yugoslavia. — The United Federation of Yugoslav Trade Unions has endeavoured to cope with the difficulties with which the trade union movement in that country has to contend owing to the existence of a breakaway movement. At the second ordinary Congress of the Federation held at Zagreb last September, resolutions were adopted protesting against the non-application of labour legislation. The Congress also demanded the appointment of a permanent economic council with representation of workers' and employers' interests.

International Federations of Crafts and Industries (International Trade Secretariats). — International secretariats endorsing the principles of the International Federation of Trade Unions are indicated, together with their membership, on page 39.

International Transport Workers' Federation. — Of outstanding importance is the mission of the General Secretary of the InternationalTransport Workers' Federation, Mr. Edo Fimmen, to the Far East, where it is hoped that new contacts between Eastern and Western trade unionism may be established.

Co-operation is being sought with the International Federation of Public Service Workers on questions affecting the organisation of workers engaged in municipal transport undertakings.

General support is being given to the International Federation of Trade Unions in its attempt to secure a forty-hour working week.

Dockers' Section. — Close attention is being devoted by this section to the progress of the international Convention for the protection of dock workers. An endorsement has been forthcoming for a revision of this Convention on the basis of amendments proposed by the British Government.

There is a regular exchange of information between the various national dock workers' unions, in view of possible steps to impose on them more onerous conditions and rates of wages.

Motor Drivers' Section. — An international programme has been formulated by this section, which has co-operated to secure the establishment of an international road traffic code under the auspices of the League of Nations. Repre-

sentatives of the section attended the European Conference on Road Traffic held for that purpose at Geneva last March.

Further international action is foreshadowed to secure the abolition of level crossings.

Tramwaymen's Section. — A Consultative Committee has been formed to deal with tramwaymen's interests. An international programme is to be prepared giving prominence to the need for a seven-hour working day and the occupational ailments and diseases to which tramwaymen are particularly exposed.

Seamen's Section. — This section still continues to act in close collaboration with the International Federation of Mercantile Marine Officers' Associations on maritime questions which are being dealt with through the International Labour Organisation. A protest has been made by the two bodies against the postponement of the second discussion by the Conference of the maritime questions on which the first discussion took place in 1929.

Miners' International Federation. — This Federation played a most important part in the adoption by the International Labour Conference of the Draft Convention on hours of work in coal mines. After the Fifteenth Session of the Conference, the Committee of the Federation placed on record its appreciation of the work of the International Labour Office on behalf of the mining industry. The Committee has followed with close attention the negotiations between various Governments for simultaneous ratification of the Convention, and is employing the influence of affiliated national organisations for promoting this object.

Constant aggravation of the economic position in the coal-mining industry has constrained the Federation to continue its policy of seeking international remedies for the problems at present inherent in the production, distribution and marketing of coal. The Federation has been interested in securing, under the auspices of the Economic Committee of the League of Nations, the resumption of negotiations, left off in 1929, for effecting international regulation of coal production, prices and marketing. At its numerous meetings held in 1931, the Executive Committee emphasised the urgent and imperative character of these problems.

The Federation has now voiced a desire that the question of the employment of women and children in mines should be dealt with by the International Labour Conference. Attention is to be devoted in the near future to the situation of ore miners and special action is envisaged for strengthening their organisations.

International Typographical Workers' Federation. — In accordance with suggestions made by the representatives of the Federation, an informal meeting of Governments', employers' and workers' representatives from Germany, France, Great Britain and Czechoslovakia was held last summer in Geneva under the chairmanship of the Director of the International Labour Office. Initial steps were taken to arrange for international exchanges of young typographical workers.

Acting in conjunction with the International Federations of Bookbinders and Lithographers, the Federation also met the British printers' unions in joint conference, for the purpose of fixing a mode of procedure to facilitate the affiliation of the British printers' organisations with their respective international federations. At least two large British printers' organisations since this conference have notified their intention to link up with the international movement.

International Clothing Workers' Federation. — The furriers' section of this Federation has taken preliminary steps to secure arrangements with the U.S.S.R. for fixing a quota of finished fur exports from Russia. It is urged that the conclusion of such an agreement is of the utmost importance to the fur workers of Western European countries, for maintaining continued employment in the industry. The necessity for this agreement has arisen from the

fact that skins are now being treated and made up in Russia, where the fur industry was hitherto confined exclusively to the exportation of raw materials.

International Federation of Boot and Shoe Operatives. — This Federation has called for action by its affiliated unions against unfair competition and dumping. Home work, prison labour and the prohibition of trade unionism in workshops and factories are regarded by the Federation as forms of unfair competition.

International Painters' Secretariat. — This Secretariat, in addition to reiterating its demand for speedy ratification of the international Convention prohibiting the use of white lead in internal painting, has formulated draft international proposals which, if adopted, would, it is hoped, help to restrict the sale of white lead and its compounds.

International Tobacco Workers' Secretariat. — The Tobacco Workers' Secretariat has rejected a proposal to amalgamate its forces with the International Federation of Workers engaged in the Food and Drink Trades. Its headquarters have been transferred from Amsterdam to Bremen.

International Federation of Pottery Workers. — The protection of the health of pottery workers is under close consideration by this Federation, especially in view of the suffering caused by the exposure of pottery workers to excessive heat and by poisonings due to the use of oils and turpentine.

The proposal to amalgamate with the Factory Workers' International Federation is not considered to be sufficiently ripe for immediate realisation.

International Federation of Hat Workers. — The International Labour Office has been approached for assistance in inducing national health authorities to prohibit the use of injurious mercurial corrosives in the manufacture of hats. This Federation has decided not to amalgamate for the time being with the International Federation of Clothing Workers.

International Union of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades. — Apprehension was expressed by the Congress of the Union, which was held at Prague last June, at the delay of various Governments in ratifying the Convention on night work in bakeries. In the opinion of the Union the attempt to require bakery workers to commence work before 6 a.m. means practically the reintroduction of night work. The Union again laid stress on the necessity of placing the question of prohibiting the carrying of loads over 150 pounds by one person on the Agenda of the International Labour Conference of 1933.

It has been proposed that the International Labour Office be requested to lend its support to international exchanges of young workers in the food and drink trades.

International Federation of Textile Workers' Associations. — The International Federation of Textile Workers' Associations has voiced the opinion that in the interests of the health and family life of textile workers the working day should fall between the hours of 7 a.m. and 6 p.m. The system of shift working should only be tolerated when the technical processes will not permit of interruption in the work. At the Congress of the Federation, held in Berlin last August, it was urged that the time had now arrived when a determined effort should be made to secure a uniform system of shorter hours of work in all the textile centres of the world.

On the subject of rationalisation, the Federation recognises that technical measures and improved methods of organisation for increasing production are inevitable under existing economic conditions. Regret has been expressed that the international enquiry into the situation of textile workers, undertaken by the International Labour Office, has not up to the present given any practical results.

International Federation of General Factory Workers. — This Federation convened an international congress of paper workers' organisations in various

European countries which was held at Stockholm last October. At this conference the situation arising from the crisis in the paper industry was discussed. It was urged that the International Labour Office should be approached in an effort to secure the following measures by means of international Conventions:

(1) Statutory introduction of the four-shift system in continuous processes;
(2) Statutory prohibition of Sunday work;
(3) Introduction of the forty-hour week;
(4) Strict prohibition of all overtime beyond the six- or eight-hour working day.

Christian Trade Unions

The International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, which has its headquarters at Utrecht (Netherlands), registered no change in its composition during the year. It still comprises fourteen national federations in eleven countries, and fifteen international trade federations with affiliated organisations in thirteen countries. In spite of approaches made during the year, Christian unions in certain European countries, in Canada, and in Latin America have not yet become affiliated to the International Federation.

As the table on page 38 shows, the membership of the International Federation, i.e. the sum of the members of the affiliated federations, was 1,485,065 on 1 January 1931. To this figure should be added some 840,000 Christian trade unionists, principally in Germany, Austria and Poland, who are members of national federations of railway employees, agricultural workers, miners and iron and steel workers, and who belong to the Christian International only through their international trade federations. The total membership—some 2,325,000—represents an increase of some 25,000 over the membership for the previous year.

National membership increased during the year in certain countries (Belgium, Netherlands, Switzerland), but considerable losses were sustained in other countries, particularly in Germany. While in the latter country there was an increase of nearly 10,000 in the membership of the Christian Salaried Employees' Federation (the membership on 1 January was 591,520), and while the Railwaymen's Federation was practically stationary with 165,000, the Federation of Christian Workers' Unions, so far as can at present be foreseen, will have suffered a loss of 80,000 to 90,000 members out of 658,707 by 1 January 1931. In these circumstances it can be said already that the 1931 statistics, which in any case will only be available about the middle of 1932, will show an appreciable falling off in the membership of the Christian trade union movement.

The situation is much the same with the finances of the different Christian organisations. In countries where membership has increased, the balance sheet is satisfactory, while in other countries the organisations have difficulty in balancing their accounts and are more and more obliged to draw upon reserves to meet current obligations, particularly those arising out of the trade union

unemployment insurance system. Moreover, in order to maintain their existence these organisations cannot avoid restricting their activities in every direction. They have, for instance, to impose a strict limit on technical, economic and trade union training courses. They have to dispense with several scientific and other collaborators, reduce their staffs and publications, close welfare institutions created when times were better, and, generally speaking, adapt their cadres to their reduced membership. Some of these measures of adaptation are particularly keenly felt, and are not without danger to the development of the movement and the character of its future activities, if not to its very existence.

Such measures, however, are inevitable in face of the fact that the unemployed who try at first to continue their trade union membership are being more and more obliged by the increasing distress to give it up. Further, many of them are unlikely to find fresh employment, even if the depression comes to an end, particularly in their former occupation or corporation. This applies not only to the older workers but also to comparatively young ones, especially in the mining and iron and steel trades.

The German coal-mining industry, for instance, which before the war employed 1,200,000 workers, including 434,000 in the Ruhr, only employed 470,000 in 1931, including 225,000 in the Ruhr, and among a large proportion of these there were many short-time shifts. Moreover, as the productive capacity of the mines which are still working is greater to-day than that of all the mines which were being worked before the depression began, it is practically certain that the mines which at present are not working may be considered as definitely abandoned, and that the workers who were employed in them will never return to their work. It must not be forgotten either that when things were better the German mining unions of different tendencies numbered some 700,000 members, which is more than the present total number of working miners. Consequently these organisations can never hope to reach their old level, and it is all the more necessary to reduce the machinery which was created to meet the requirements of such high numbers. In other industries the situation is frequently similar, though not being quite identical.

In view of this situation, the various congresses, meetings and demonstrations of the Christian trade unions which took place during the year were, as might be expected, primarily affected by the general depression. The International Congress of the Utrecht Federation, which was to have been held at Antwerp in September, had to be adjourned, as well as several other congresses of international trade federations, on account of the difficulties which certain countries found in sending complete delegations. On the other hand, the International Council, which comprises the officers of all the national affiliated federations and the international trade federations, met on two occasions—in January at Bordeaux, and in December at Koenigswinter in Germany. Both these meetings dealt with the preparation of the Congress, the date of which has

been fixed for June 1932, and with the effects of the depression, and the possible methods of mitigating them. The Koenigswinter meeting gave special attention to the question of the regulation of the work of women, including the question of the long-standing demand of the Christian trade unions for the prohibition of industrial work by married women. With the exception of the International Federation of Christian Miners' Unions, which held its congress at Strasburg in May and dealt, *inter alia*, with the preparation of the Fifteenth Session of the International Labour Conference and the Convention on hours of work in mines, the other international trade federations only held meetings of their officers and committees. National, general and trade congresses were held in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Netherlands, Sweden, and other countries. At these meetings, too, the economic crisis and its effect on the life of the workers was the predominating subject of discussion, together with national and internal questions. The general tendency of the various declarations and resolutions adopted at these different meetings is, first, to urge the need for a liberal economic policy which would get rid of the various obstacles to world economy and trade, including customs barriers in particular, and, secondly, to emphasise the necessity for re-establishing international confidence by an equitable settlement of international payments.

In the field of social policy strictly so called, the Christian trade unions demand, with a view to mitigating the effects of the depression, the putting in hand of public works, the institution and development of unemployment insurance, and the distribution of work over as many workers as possible by a reasonable arrangement of hours of work. Certain international trade federations, particularly those of textile workers and Christian transport and factory workers, have drawn up formal proposals which they have submitted both to the International Labour Office and to the different national Parliaments in which they are represented. These proposals urge that special conferences should be held for particular industries in a limited number of countries, with a view to concluding emergency conventions not covered by Article 405 and limiting hours of work in these industries to forty hours in the week during the period of depression. These proposals were referred to by the Secretary-General of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions, Mr. Serrarens, in a speech on the Director's Report at the last Session of the Conference. The Unemployment Committee also considered them at its December meeting, and recommended them to the attention of the Governing Body.

A controversy of considerable interest has been taking place in Germany between the Christian trade unions and the National-Socialist political movement. It is well known that a considerable number of German Christian trade unionists are attached politically to the National-Socialist Party, and that among the leaders of the Party there are a number of men who have played and still play an important part in the Christian trade union movement, parti-

cularly the private salaried employees' section. Certain declarations of the Party had caused apprehension in trade union circles in regard to its attitude to social and trade union problems. There have been certain polemics in the press, and also personal interviews between the leaders of the Christian trade unions and the National-Socialist Party. The most important interview was one between Mr. Habermann, President of the International Federation of Christian Salaried Employees' Trade Unions, accompanied by Mr. Bechly, President of the Christian Trade Unions of German Salaried Employees, and the leader of the National-Socialist Party, Mr. Hitler. The first outcome of these polemics and interviews, which are still going on, has been a formal declaration by the leaders of the National-Socialist Party in favour of a social policy comprising the maintenance of collective agreements and the systems of conciliation and arbitration and social insurance: but equally formal declarations have not yet been made on the trade union question as such.

The relations between the Christian unions and the International Labour Office were as close as ever last year. Some twelve representatives of the Christian unions attended the International Labour Conference, including Mr. Serrarens, Dutch workers' delegate, and Mr. Graje, Polish workers' delegate. The Advisory Committees on salaried employees, automatic couplings, glass works, and the textile industry, which met during the year, include representatives of Christian trade unions among their members, and personal contact has frequently been made on other occasions throughout the year. Further, the Congresses of Christian trade unions at Bordeaux and Koenigswinter, and the Congress of Christian Miners at Strasburg, as well as various national congresses, devoted a considerable part of their time to the work of the International Labour Organisation. The Christian trade unions continue to demand ratification of the international labour Conventions, in the framing of which they have at all times taken a keen interest, and given their best collaboration. They also continue to place their sources of documentary information at the disposal of the Office when the latter asks for such assistance, while the Office on its side has frequently replied to their requests for information and given them help in their current activities.

Relations between the Christian trade unions and the Amsterdam International were practically unchanged throughout the year. The termination of the 1928 agreement, which was decided upon at the Stockholm Congress of the Amsterdam International in 1930, showed its first effects at the last Session of the Conference, when there was a certain amount of friction, particularly over the election of the Governing Body. On this occasion the Christian unions submitted separate lists, which obtained as many as seven votes, but collaboration in the Conference and its committees was not thereby affected.

Fascist Trade Unions

According to official indications contained in a report of the Finance Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on the budget of the Ministry of Corporations for the year 1932-1933, the distribution of the workers among the different national trade union organisations on 31 December 1931 was as follows:

Wage-earning workers	Workers represented	Members
National Federation of Fascist Industrial Workers' Unions	2,428,550	1,661,874
National Federation of Fascist Agricultural Workers' Unions	2,814,102	1,408,607
National Federation of Fascist Commercial Workers' Unions	815,397	321,457
National Federation of Fascist Land Transport and Inland Navigation Workers' Unions	250,000	191,883
National Federation of Fascist Seamen's and Airmen's Unions	124,563[1]	41,402
National Federation of Fascist Bank Employees' Unions	43,944	21,705
Total	6,476,556	3,646,928
Independent workers		
National Federation of Fascist Unions in the Liberal and Artistic Professions	110,910	86,002
General total	6,587,466	3,732,930

To these figures may be added the membership of associations of State employees, which numbers 439,635, subdivided as follows:

Public officials	180,877
Railway workers	120,453
Postal, telegraph and telephone workers	65,115
Persons employed in State industrial undertakings	73,190

An important change has been made in the rules of the workers' trade union federations, and will shortly come into force. The status of first degree unions is to be accorded to provincial or interprovincial unions the sections of which are constituted by the old occupational unions. The trade union directors are in future to be elected, and endorsement by the Minister of Corporations is only to be required in the case of directors of associations of a higher grade. The Federation of Seamen and Airmen held a general meeting in 1931 and elected the members of its Board of Management, the chairman of which is Mr. Barni, former Government Commissioner. The general meetings of the other national federations have not yet been held, but there have been frequent meetings of their Boards of Management.

The relations between the Office and the Fascist unions continue to be very cordial and close.

[1] Figure of registered seamen.

Trade Unionism in Extra-European Countries

(a) *In the British Commonwealth*

Australia. — The progress of trade union affairs in Australia has been largely influenced by the turn of political events which led to the resignation of the Labour Government of Australia at the end of 1931.

The All-Australian Council of Trade Unions has continued to assert its position, and to assume an increasingly independent role in the political field.

Negotiations proceeded during the year to consumate the amalgamation of the Australian Workers' Union and the Miners' Federation; the former is the largest single trade union organisation in Australia and provides for workers in a great number of primary and secondary industries in the Commonwealth.

The New South Wales Labour Council continues its separate affiliation with the Red International of Labour Unions, although criticism of its policy is constantly forthcoming, on the one hand, from the general body of the Australian labour movement, which last year withdrew from all association with the Pan-Pacific Trade Union Secretariat of the Red International, and, on the other hand, from ultra-extremist elements who claim to subscribe to a line of action still more immediately inspired by Communist principles.

The Australian Railway Union also affiliated its membership to the Red International of Labour Unions in 1931. This union, which claims to embrace the majority of railwaymen in five or six States of Australia, stated, in its letter to Moscow applying for affiliation, that it had not " yet had the privilege of closely studying your organisation in its detailed activities ". The letter asked to be furnished with the " fullest possible information regarding our desired affiliation " and also with any explanatory or propaganda literature issued by the Red International of Labour Unions. The letter also proceeded to add that the Australian working class movement had been somewhat insular in its activities and outlook and that consequently the great majority of Australian workers had not been brought into contact with international activities or ideas. It will thus be seen that the affiliation is somewhat tentative in character and in any case is in striking contrast with the orientation of the Australian labour movement as a whole.

Canada. — A cardinal feature of the activity of the Trades and Labour Congress of Canada in 1931 was the action undertaken by it to combat unemployment and under-employment. The programme of action adopted in September 1931 called for (1) reduction of working hours, and workers' holidays with pay; (2) the maintenance of wage standards; (3) participation by the workers through their trade unions in the management of industry; (4) public ownership and control of public utilities; (5) free em-

ployment bureaux; (6) grants-in-aid to Canadian industrial workers who desire to settle on vacant lands, on the same basis as has been adopted in the past for immigrants; (7) stabilisation of employment by co-ordination of seasonal occupations; (8) control of tariff-protected industries to prevent unreasonable prices; (9) ratification of the Conventions of the International Labour Organisation; (10) publication of information on unemployment gathered in the last Census; (11) execution of public construction and repair works during times of depression; (12) establishment of a national system of unemployment insurance; (13) direct relief to destitute unemployed.

India. — The All-India Trade Union Federation (moderate) and the All-India Trade Union Congress (extremist) continue to maintain their separate existence. The main questions which gave rise to this division are affiliation to international trade union organisations, and representation at meetings of the International Labour Organisation at Geneva.

The Eleventh Session of the All-India Trade Union Congress was convened at Calcutta last July, but, owing to disagreement concerning the credentials of certain delegates, a section of the Congress broke away from the main body and adopted various resolutions, one favouring the boycott of the International Labour Organisation and another condemning the Whitley Commission which investigated Indian labour problems.

The main body of the Congress subsequently met in separate session and also adopted resolutions in favour, *inter alia*, of a forty-four-hour working week, a legal minimum wage for skilled and unskilled workers, and also introduction of unemployment, old-age and sickness insurance. No definite decision was taken on the question of international affiliations, whilst the problem of representation at the International Labour Conference was left to be decided on its merits each year.

The All-India Trade Union Federation, on the other hand, is continuing to develop its sphere of influence. Its representatives played a prominent part in the Whitley Commission on Indian labour questions and also at the Round Table Conference in London.

South Africa. — The South African Trades and Labour Council, which embraces the former South African Trade Union Congress and other organisations in South Africa, held its first annual Conference in April last year. Attention was directed to labour problems in the South African mines, and the opinion was expressed that the encouragement of industries by means of the bounty system would be preferable to the existing system of protective tariffs.

In a discussion on unemployment, it was alleged that the trade union movement was handicapped by the application of various Industrial Conciliation Acts.

The question of political action by the South African labour movement was also examined by this Conference. It was con-

sidered advisable that as distinct from existing party organisations there should be direct representation of the trade unions in Parliament. The Executive Committee is to consider this question and report at a future date. It has also been asked to consider the method of nomination of the workers' delegate and advisers to Sessions of the International Labour Conference. Procedure is to be devised by which certain improvements may be made on the existing method.

A programme was adopted calling for a minimum wage, adequate provision against unemployment, sickness, accidents and old age, improved housing, protection of juveniles and women workers, the eight-hour day and forty-four-hour working week, and paid workers' holidays.

(b) *United States of America*

Faced with the unprecedented growth of unemployment in the U.S.A., the Executive Council of the American Federation of Labor has been at grips with the problem of finding remedies for the prevailing distress. The Council has proposed a national conference of employers and labour to be called by the President of the United States to deal directly and constructively with the unemployment problem and to devise ways and means by which all working people may be accorded an opportunity to share in all work available. It has also proposed the immediate inauguration of the five-day work-week and the shorter work-day in all public and private industry; the maintenance of the wage structure and wage standards; a guarantee to all those workers who are employed that they are secure in their positions and that through the application of the shorter work-day and the shorter work-week all would be accorded an opportunity to share equitably in all work available; the prohibition of child labour, and the employment of adults, in order that the slack of unemployment may be taken up; the stabilisation of industry, with particular reference to those industries which are classified as seasonal in character (this would contemplate the application of a plan whereby improvements could be carried on during periods of seasonal recession); the application of a more scientific plan of industrial production so that a stable balance may be maintained in order that production may be carried on systematically over longer periods of time.

The Federation has also been active in dealing with the question of legal injunctions and has pressed its affiliated organisations to take action in order to win support for a Bill to prevent the use of injunctions in labour disputes.

At its Convention held at Vancouver, British Columbia, last October, the Federation declared that unemployment insurance legislation would be unsuited to American economic and political requirements. The fear was expressed that in agreeing to the institution of unemployment insurance a supervisory organisation would be set up which to a large extent would dominate American trade union activities.

The question of securing representation at Sessions of the International Labour Conference was also discussed, and a resolution was presented urging that the Executive Council be authorised to enter into negotiations with President Hoover and the Government of the United States with the object of stationing unofficial observers at the International Labour Conference in Geneva. This proposal was referred to the Executive Council which has been authorised to take such action as it deems advisable.

The Sixth Pan-American Labour Congress has not yet been held owing to a variety of difficulties in various South American countries. At the Convention of the American Federation of Labor it was reported that organisations in Mexico, Cuba, Venezuela, Guatemala, Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Chile, Honduras, Porto Rico, Colombia, Ecuador and also the railwaymen's organisations in Argentina have signified their willingness to take part in this Congress when definite arrangements are made.

(c) *Latin America*

Argentina. — The General Confederation of Labour in Argentina is continuing to make satisfactory progress. As may be recalled, it is an amalgamation of two large central trade union bodies operating in the Argentine.

The long-established Argentine Railwaymen's Union, which is an organisation of nearly 100,000 members, has voiced a desire for continued active participation in the work of the International Labour Organisation. At its Congress held last summer at Buenos Aires the Union expressed satisfaction at the presence of Argentine workers' representatives at the International Labour Conference.

Brazil. — It may be recalled that the Brazilian Labour Party decided on a scheme of reorganisation for the purpose of establishing a general confederation of trade unions with purely trade union objects. At the Third Congress of the Brazilian Labour Party held in Rio de Janeiro in October 1931, it was reported that the new Confederation had already secured the affiliation of thirty-eight workers' organisations and will eventually seek affiliation to the International Federation of Trade Unions.

Uruguay. — A new National Labour Organisation established in Uruguay has adopted the title of the Uruguayan General Federation of Labour. The constitution, which was recently published, provides for the maintenance of relations with the International Labour Organisation.

(d) *The Far East*

Japan. — Attempts made by the Japanese Seamen's Union to establish a single national trade union centre in Japan led to the formation last June of the Japanese Labour Club. This organisation, comprising about a dozen union organisations of Right Wing and Centre tendencies, may be said to embrace 75 per cent.

of the membership of trade unions in Japan. The Club is devoting its activities to the promotion of labour legislation. It is opposed to extremist principles and claims recognition as the most representative workers' organisation for the purposes of representation of workers' interests at the International Labour Conference.

This formation of the Club is only intended to be a first step towards complete Japanese trade union unity. Difficulties have indeed arisen owing to the adverse attitude towards the new organisation of a certain section of a relatively influential affiliated body, which has had to contend with a breakaway movement in consequence. The Club also made itself responsible for the arrangements made on behalf of the whole movement to welcome Mr. Edo Fimmen, the Secretary of the International Transport Workers' Federation, who has undertaken a mission to Japan on behalf of his organisation. The Japanese trade unions, despite the economic depression, increased their membership in 1931 by no less than 20,000.

International Federation of Independent Trade Unions

The largest national organisation affiliated with the International Federation of Independent Trade Unions is the National Centre of German Hirsch-Duncker Trade Unions *(Gewerkschaftsring deutscher Arbeiter-, Angestellten- und Beamtenverbande)*. This organisation, with its affiliated membership of 600,000 workers, has continued to act in close collaboration with German trade unions of other tendencies with a view to securing a reduction of working hours and improvements in various Emergency Decrees of the Government of the Reich.

Trade Unions in the U.S.S.R. and the Red International of Trade Unions

Trade union policy in the U.S.S.R. has followed the decisions taken in 1930 at the Sixteenth Congress of the Communist Party. This policy, based on the slogan " Push Production ", is that the trade unions under the direction of the Communist Party should strive to maintain labour discipline and increase the individual worker's output, in order to expedite the carrying out of the Five-Year Plan of industrialisation. When the trade unions entered into collective agreements with the State undertakings in 1931 they explicitly undertook to see that certain tasks were properly carried out.

The protection of the workers' interests is assumed as in the past by the trade unions, the improvement of working and housing conditions being considered indispensable for increasing output. At the same time, the unions are required to have due regard to the economic and financial means of the State-employer as well as to the production and wage programmes drawn up by the State.

Trade union membership in the U.S.S.R., which was 11,589,000 in October 1929 and 12,100,000 in July 1930, rose to 13,489,000

in April 1931. On the other hand, the percentage of workers who belong to trade unions fell from 85 in October 1929 to 73 in April 1931.

New regulations for admission to trade union membership were issued in September 1931. These regulations remove the restrictions of previous years on seasonal workers and new workers in industry. At present admission to Soviet trade union membership is free, except as regards " persons whose origin or views do not conform to the present political necessities of the Soviet régime[1] ".

The U.S.S.R. trade unions constitute, as formerly, by far the most important section of the Red International of Labour Unions *(Profintern)*, which had a membership of some 14 millions at the end of 1930.

At a recent session of the Central Council of the International, stress was laid on the necessity of combating " reformism ", as in the past, and affiliated or sympathetic organisations were invited to do all they could to take over the management of strikes and so to withdraw the workers from the influence of the " reformists " and impart a political character to economic movements.

According to the Central Council, particular attention is to be paid to women and young men, as well as to colonial and semi-colonial peoples. Great importance is also attached to revolutionary propaganda among the unemployed.

Organisations of Salaried Employees

The following figures for the membership of the international organisations have been communicated by the organisations themselves, but it has not been possible to obtain figures up to 31 December 1931 for all the organisations.

The *International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical Employees* (Amsterdam) had 891,897 members on 31 December 1931 (as against 874,857 on 31 December 1930). This federation comprises fifty-two organisations belonging to twenty countries. In 1931 three new organisations were affiliated to it (two British and one Spanish).

The *International Federation of Christian Unions of Salaried Employees* (Strasburg) had 740,000 members on 31 December 1931 (as against 701,904 on 31 December 1930). This Federation comprises fourteen organisations belonging to eleven countries.

The *International Federation of Neutral Employees' Organisations* (Strasburg) had 472,300 members on 31 December 1931 (as against 401,000 on 31 December 1930). It comprises fifteen organisations belonging to ten countries, and registered three fresh affiliations in 1931 (a Belgian, a French and a Polish organisation).

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[1] *Economicheskaja Zhizn*, 16 Sept. 1931.

The *International League of Commercial and Industrial Travellers and Agents* (Berne), a mixed organisation, had 110,000 members on 31 December 1931 (as against 72,800 on 31 December 1930), distributed between seventeen organisations belonging to eleven countries. During the year an Italian organisation became affiliated to it.

The *International Union of Employees in the Hotel, Café and Restaurant Industry* (Berlin) had 73,000 members on 31 December 1931 as against 74,000 on 31 December 1930. This League includes nineteen member organisations in seventeen different countries.

The *Geneva International Association of Hotel and Restaurant Employees* (Zürich) has not published its membership figure since 31 December 1926. It then had 22,000 members divided among twelve national sections.

During the year congresses were held by three of these international organisations.

The *International Federation of Commercial, Clerical and Technical Employees*, which met at Amsterdam from 11 to 15 May, adopted a resolution in favour, *inter alia*, of the following measures for remedying the position of salaried employees affected by the economic depression:

Immediate introduction of a forty-hour week or a five-day week, and generalisation of this measure by international conventions;
General raising of the school-leaving age and of the age of admission to employment in the various occupations;
Expansion of the system of labour exchanges for salaried employees on a non-profit-earning basis;
Prohibition of employment agencies working for profit and safeguarding freedom of movement for salaried employees to other countries by international conventions;
Introduction or extension of protection for salaried employees in regard to dismissal notices;
Adequate compensation for salaried employees, if dismissed, especially when dismissal results from rationalisation;
Adequate assistance for unemployed persons during the whole period of unemployment;
Adequate pensions for aged or invalid salaried employees.

Other resolutions were adopted dealing with the development of legal protection, the regulation of hours of work in mines, commerce and offices, and the age of admission of children to employment in non-industrial occupations.

The Congress of the *International Union of Employees in the Hotel, Café and Restaurant Industry* (Paris, 19-21 May) adopted a resolution calling for private employment agencies to be replaced by public agencies managed by delegates of the employers' and workers' organisations. In the meantime there should be close supervision of private employment agencies.

In a further resolution on foreign labour the Congress recommended the conclusion of international agreements allowing foreign

employees to follow their occupation so long as abuse did not occur.

Lastly, the *International League of Commercial and Industrial Travellers and Agents* held a Congress at Berne from 17 to 19 September. A resolution was adopted calling for further facilities for the freedom of movement of travellers (passports, visas, legitimation cards, etc.). Another resolution was directed against abuses in connection with work on commission.

Civil Servants and Salaried Employees in Public Services

The changes in the membership of the international organisations of civil servants and salaried employees in public services during the last year or two were as follows:

The *International Federation of Civil Servants* (Paris) had 397,000 members on 31 December 1930, as compared with 339,600 on 31 December 1929, belonging to ten organisations in nine different countries. During 1931 the Latvian organisation became affiliated to the Federation.

The *International Federation of Employees in the Public Services* (Berlin) had 589,080 members on 31 December 1931 (as against 553,183 on 31 December 1930) belonging to fifteen national organisations. One further organisation was affiliated during the year —a French organisation.

The *International Federation of Christian Public Servants' Organisations* (Antwerp) had 71,916 members belonging to five national organisations on 31 December 1930.

The *International Federation of Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Workers* (Vienna) had 423,300 members on 31 December 1931, as against 423,397 on 31 December 1930. During the year a Finnish organisation became affiliated to the Federation. The total membership is derived from thirty-six organisations in twenty-four different countries.

The *International Federation of Christian Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Workers* (Vaals) had 25,000 members on 31 December 1931, as against 20,000 on 31 December 1930, belonging to six organisations in five different countries.

The *International Federation of Teachers' Associations* (Paris) had 624,470 members on 31 December 1931, as against 595,870 on 31 December 1930. During 1931 a Norwegian organisation became affiliated to the Federation. The total membership is divided among twenty-seven organisations in twenty different countries.

The *International Teachers' Secretariat* (Strasburg) had 112,000 members on 31 December 1931 as compared with 110,600 on 31 December 1930. Three new affiliations were obtained during

the year (Czechoslovakia, Latvia, Switzerland). The total membership is divided among eleven organisations in nine different countries.

The *International Federation of Police Employees* (Berlin) had 153,984 members on 31 December 1931, belonging to eight organisations in eight different countries. In 1931 the Norwegian organisation became affiliated to the Federation.

There were no congresses of the international organisations of civil servants in 1931.

Employers' Organisations

Like the workers' organisations, employers' organisations are represented at the Conference and on the Governing Body of the Office. At the Conference one of the four delegates appointed by a State Member must be nominated, together with his advisers, in agreement with the most representative national employers' organisations. On the Governing Body, six out of the twenty-four members are elected by the whole of the employers' delegates at the Session of the Conference at which the Governing Body is due to be renewed.

International Organisations

The *International Organisation of Industrial Employers* (I.O.I.E.) held its usual meetings in 1931. The annual meeting of the General Council was held at Geneva on 27 May 1931, just before the International Labour Conference. In accordance with the rules of the I.O.I.E., the General Council considered the different questions concerning the International Labour Organisation and affecting employers' organisations.

The Executive Committee of the I.O.I.E. also met at Geneva when the members of the Committee were attending the meetings of the Governing Body of the Office.

At a meeting held at Rome on 12 May 1931, representatives of Catholic employers' organisations in Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany and the Netherlands, who had received instructions to that effect, decided to establish a permanent organisation for convening international conferences of their associations.

The *Fifteenth International Cotton Congress* was held at Paris from 23 to 27 June 1931. It was attended by delegates of employers' organisations of twenty countries and adopted a number of resolutions on economic and technical subjects.

Under the auspices of the *International Federation of Master Builders and Public Works Contractors* an international conference on building and public works was held in Berlin on 25 and 26 June 1931. The conference adopted resolutions dealing with social

charges and pointing to the technical difficulties of shortening hours of work as a remedy for unemployment.

The *Twelfth Meeting of Employers in the Northern Countries* was held at Stockholm on 7 and 8 October 1931. Among other matters the meeting considered the possibility of establishing a system of mutual assistance for the central organisations represented in the case of labour disputes.

The Second Balkan Conference, which met at Istanbul from 20 to 26 October 1931, decided to support the creation of an *Inter-Balkan Chamber of Commerce.*

The *International Silk Federation* held its annual meeting at Paris on 4 November. The meeting was attended by more than eighty delegates, who examined various technical, commercial and economic questions.

The *Seventh International Wool Conference*, convened by the International Wool Federation, was held in Basle on 11 and 12 November. Mr. Dubrulle, President of the Federation, submitted a report on the position of the wool industry in the present world depression. After hearing this report the Conference adopted a resolution requesting the Federation to do all it could to ensure that all woollen goods should pass freely about the world.

National Organisations

Austria. — The *Federation of Austrian Industry*, at its meeting at Vienna on 13 April, adopted a declaration addressed to the Government stating the position of Austrian employers in regard to proposed changes in social legislation. The declaration, among other demands, asked that the cost of social services should be so far reduced that they can be met without endangering the economic system of the country. The thirteenth ordinary general meeting of the Federation was held at Vienna on 2 June 1931. Apart from the question of members' subscriptions and other internal administrative questions, the time of the meeting was chiefly devoted to financial and economic problems.

Belgium. — The *Belgian Central Industrial Council* held its regular plenary meeting at Brussels on 25 February. The report submitted by the Board of the Council was chiefly concerned with the world economic depression. As regards remedies for unemployment, the report referred to the efforts of manufacturers to maintain in employment as many workers as possible so long as the material means existed. It favoured the organisation of big public works, provided they were of absolutely indisputable utility. On the other hand, the report rejected the idea that the depression might be met by reducing hours of work and increasing wages. It referred in this connection to the declaration which was recently made by the employers' group on the Governing Body of the Office, and which advocated as an essential measure for re-establish-

ing economic equilibrium, reduction in costs of production and distribution. The report also warned the public authorities against too far-reaching a scheme of unemployment insurance. In conclusion the report urged reductions in taxation and a particularly cautious policy as regards social legislation.

Bulgaria. — A report on the work of the Board of Directors of the *Union of Bulgarian Manufacturers* was published in 1931. A chapter on social legislation contains a programme of social demands dealing with the following points: reconsideration of the attitude to be adopted by Bulgaria in regard to the Washington Hours of Work Convention when the obligations arising from ratification of this Convention by Bulgaria terminated; co-ordination of the international labour Conventions with national legislation in order to eliminate from the latter all provisions going beyond the international obligations contained in the Conventions; substitution of education and persuasion for fines and penalties in the application of social legislation.

Canada. — The sixtieth annual meeting of the *Canadian Manufacturers' Association* was held in Victoria from 1 to 3 June 1931. In the President's report it was stated that " Canada is fortunate in her industrial relations and has enjoyed for many years a gratifying and striking minimum of industrial disputes ". In a report to the meeting, Mr. Shaw, a former President of the Association, who had attended the Fiftieth Session of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office, emphasised, among other things, the importance from the point of view of a country with a high standard of labour conditions like Canada of doing everything possible to bring about an improvement in conditions in the less advanced countries.

The Industrial Relations Committee had made a special investigation into unemployment, and reported that the great majority of employers were doing their utmost by regularising employment, manufacturing for stock, carrying out repairs, etc., to keep a maximum number of workers in at least part-time employment.

This same Committee was of opinion that the introduction of a State scheme of unemployment insurance was an extremely difficult and complex problem. Though not definitely opposing such a measure, it urged members of the Association to study the problem carefully, particularly in its application to their various industries and also to the localities in which they lived.

Cuba. — The second *Industrial Congress of Cuba* was held in Havana from 8 to 13 January under the auspices of the *National Association of Cuban Manufacturers.* The resolutions adopted relating to economic and commercial questions included one which referred to the International Labour Organisation, as follows:

The Congress urges the public authorities to promulgate the necessary legislation to regulate relations between capital and labour by means of a body of labour legislation, which should be a guarantee for all parties and should constitute a preliminary step to the incorporation in Cuban law of all

measures adopted by the International Labour Conference, and which it is an obligation on the Republic of Cuba to carry out as a Member of the International Labour Organisation.

Czechoslovakia. — The *Czechoslovak Federation of Employers' Associations* held its thirteenth annual meeting at Prague on 21 May 1931. The General Secretary of the Federation, Mr. Hodač, made a statement on different economic and customs problems of interest to Czechoslovak industry. On behalf of the German employers' association in Czechoslovakia, Dr. Hochstetter made a speech on unemployment and short time.

France. — The general meeting of the *General Confederation of French Production* was held at Paris on 4 April 1931. In connection with unemployment, a report by Mr. de Lavergne recommended that members of the organisation, whenever they were obliged to restrict the working of their undertakings, should as far as possible reduce hours of work rather than resort to dismissals. It also requested the public authorities to undertake certain large-scale public works so as to provide work for the unemployed. Unemployed who were unable to find work either in private or Government establishments should be given assistance, but such assistance should be kept within moderate limits, in order to prevent the system of unemployment allowances from assuming proportions similar to those in Germany and Great Britain. The report referred to what had been done in the previous twelve months in regard to social legislation, and to the various amendments which had been made to it. A special chapter of the report dealt with the activities of the International Labour Organisation.

Germany. — The most important action by employers was the submission to the Chancellor of the Reich on 29 September of a manifesto signed by the principal German economic organisations and by the *German Federation of Employers' Associations (Vereinigung der deutschen Arbeitgeberverbände)* concerning the present serious economic position of Germany. This document declares that the present distress is due, *inter alia*, to too much legislation limiting the freedom of action of private industry and ruining its productive capacity.

German political authorities must learn (continues the manifesto) that there can be no compromise between the capitalist and the socialist economic systems. They must decide definitely, publicly and unreservedly for the one method or for the other. It seems to us indisputable that if such a decision is made with full realisation of the responsibilities involved it cannot be otherwise than in favour of the individualist system, which has proved its vitality and its productive power, while all attempts at collective organisation have ended in complete social and economic failure.

The manifesto concludes by the following demands: a further large reduction of State activity and public expenditure; adjustment of wages and salaries to present market conditions; reduction of charges in proportion to economic resources in every branch of social insurance; reduction in the rates charged by the railways,

postal services and municipal public utility services; withdrawal of public floating debts from the money market; final abolition of all relics of the system of economic restrictions, particularly in respect of housing.

Great Britain. — In his address to the fourteenth general meeting of the *Federation of British Industries* at London on 17 April, the President, Sir James Lithgow, entirely approved the manifesto published by the *National Confederation of Employers' Organisations* on the industrial situation [1], referred to the relation between wages, production costs and economic prosperity, and spoke in favour of the adoption of a Protectionist policy for British industries.

India. — At the fourth annual meeting of the *Federation of Indian Chambers of Commerce and Industry*, held at Delhi from 7 to 9 April 1931, resolutions were adopted on various monetary and political questions, on the development of industry in general, on the introduction of insurance legislation in India, and on the improvement of labour conditions. On the latter point the meeting adopted a resolution calling upon member-bodies of the Federation to make strenuous efforts to bring about such improvements in wages, in hours of labour and conditions of work in agriculture, industry, commerce, etc., as are possible under the unsatisfactory position arising out of the present trade, customs and monetary policy of India.

Italy. — At a meeting of the Board of the *Fascist General Confederation of Italian Industry* at Rome on 6 March 1931, a report was submitted by Mr. Olivetti, Secretary-General of the Confederation, giving an account of the activities of the organisation, particularly in regard to labour problems, the corporative organisation, and economic questions. The Board also approved the estimates of the Confederation for the year 1931-1932.

Japan. — The first central employers' organisation was created last year: the *National Federation of Industrial Organisations (Zenkoku Sangyo Dantai Rengokai).* The meeting at which this organisation was formed was held at Tokyo on 21 April 1931, and attended by twenty-two representatives of the principal industrial organisations in the country. The object of the National Federation is to investigate and discuss, with a view to concerted action, the principal industrial and economic problems of common interest to the industrial organisations of all countries. The President of the Federation is Baron Seinosuke Go, President of the Japanese Federation of Chambers of Commerce and Industry.

Poland. — The *Central Union of Industry, Mines, Commerce and Finance* issued a report at the beginning of the year on its activities in 1930. This report was chiefly devoted to wage questions. It recognised the necessity of maintaining in general the

[1] Cf. *Annual Review*, 1930, p. 77.

present wage level, but added that, when a particular trade was so far affected by the prevailing depression that it had to choose between a reduction in wages and a reduction in staff, it was desirable to reduce wages, as its first duty was to keep the factorie working.

In July 1931 the competent bodies of the Union and of the *Supreme Organisation of Industry and Agriculture in Western Poland* decided that these two organisations should be merged.

Rumania. — The *General Federation of Rumanian Manufacturers* held several general meetings in 1931 at which the economic depression and social legislation were dealt with. On 23 May 1931, at Bucarest, the Federation declared in favour of tax exemptions for new buildings, in order to assist the building and connected industries, as well as some tens of thousands of workers who were unemployed on account of depression in the building trade.

South Africa. — The fourteenth annual Convention of the *South African Federated Chambers of Industry* was held at Port Elizabeth from 31 August to 3 September. It adopted a resolution declaring, *inter alia*, that the proposed workmen's compensation legislation should provide for compulsory insurance to cover compensation for injury, accord compensation on a higher scale, simplify the machinery for the settlement of claims, and also include a reasonable schedule of compensation for natives and Asiatics. Another resolution requested the Government to appoint an independent commission of enquiry into the results of the operation of labour legislation with special reference to its effects on unemployment, the development of new forms of industrial activity, and the extension and stabilisation of existing industries.

Spain. — The *Spanish Employers' Confederation* and the district federations have continued to deal with questions relating to the corporative system and possible changes in the system arising out of the setting up of the Republican Government. The *Higher Council of Chambers of Commerce, Industry and Navigation* has submitted a memorandum to the Government recommending the introduction of conciliation procedure for labour disputes.

Switzerland. — The twenty-fourth ordinary meeting of the *Union of Swiss Employers' Associations* was held at Lucerne on 8 July 1931, and was principally devoted to the problem of the cost of living and cost of production in Switzerland. It was unanimous in considering that the general fall in prices should proceed still further, and that there should accordingly be a reduction in public expenditure.

The Secretariat of the Union had prepared a memorandum showing that retail prices in Switzerland had not yet fallen in proportion to the fall in the price of raw materials. In the opinion of the authors of the memorandum, the only way in which the depression could be lifted was by a general reduction in prices.

United States of America. — The *United States Chamber of Commerce* at its nineteenth annual meeting, held at Atlantic City from 28 April to 1 May 1931, devoted a great deal of attention to the world depression and unemployment. The meeting pronounced in favour of the appointment of a special sub-committee of the Chamber for continuous study of the possibilities of business and employment stabilisation. This study should bear, *inter alia*, on means for relieving such unemployment distress as may unavoidably occur from time to time, including the framing of a national programme of production and distribution to be initiated by business men themselves.

Speaking generally, employers' organisations were primarily concerned during 1931 with endeavouring to overcome the economic depression. They have also been trying to find immediate remedies for the sufferings of the workers affected by the depression. At the same time, with a few exceptions, the tendency noted in the *Annual Review* for 1930 towards not promoting the development of social legislation so long as the present difficulties last has been more marked.

Certain Special Categories of Employers and Workers

The two subsections which follow deal with employers' and workers' organisations in the shipping industry and in agriculture, two branches of activity which are not always linked up with other employers' and workers' organisations but which often have distinct organisations of their own.

Shipowners and Seamen

There were no important changes in the organisations of shipowners and seamen during 1931. On the shipowners' side, however, though the organisations representing them were not modified as such, considerable developments took place in the direction of industrial agreements, national and international. As a result of the new amalgamations and mergers which have been added to those previously existing, certain undertakings or the joint management of associated undertakings have at their disposal big fleets with a total tonnage which in some cases exceeds 2,000,000 tons and in many cases represents an important proportion of the national mercantile marine (up to 25, 30 or even 50 per cent.). The weight of decisions taken in the name of such big economic organisations is thus very considerable. It is accordingly to be hoped that those who manage these associations will realise their responsibilities and endeavour to establish close collaboration on labour questions with the men who man their ships.

The past year has proved that on their side the organisations of seamen will endeavour to understand the difficulties of the shipowners and help to meet them. A considerable number of

such organisations have accepted sacrifices in the common interest. No doubt the situation of the mercantile marine could not be righted by reductions of wages. As a matter of fact, big shipowners' organisations have recognised that such reductions only make a very small contribution to the lowering of working costs. The meagre advantage which may be drawn from them for a time is lost in the long run either because reductions of wages in one country are soon imitated by its competitors, or because they induce the shipowner to accept lower freight rates. All the same, doubtful as the benefits of wage reductions may be for the shipowner, they are for the staff a very heavy sacrifice.

It is accordingly no matter for surprise that there has been considerable restlessness among seamen. Certain manifestations of discontent and even strikes have taken place in ports or on vessels belonging to Australia, France, Germany, Great Britain and Spain, but on the whole they have only led to short stoppages of work and have been supported by only a small proportion of the trade union seamen. Most of them have been attributed to a recrudescence of activity on the part of international seamen's clubs with communist tendencies. The only strike which assumed any considerable proportion was the one which held up for a time forty German vessels in the port of Leningrad.

Extensive and sharp disputes have been avoided through the operation of machinery set up for facilitating relations and collective agreements between shipowners and seamen. Only in two countries of principal maritime importance—Germany and Norway—was recourse to official arbitration necessary in order to bring about agreement, and only in one country—Finland—are the shipowners still opposed to a renewal of the collective agreement.

The International Labour Office has maintained its relations with the organisations of shipowners and seamen, including their big international organisations, i.e. the International Shipping Federation, the Seamen's Section of the International Transport Workers' Federation, and the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association. Exchanges of views have taken place more especially on the conditions in which the consideration of the maritime questions dealt with by way of a first discussion at the Thirteenth Session of the Conference (1929) should be further pursued and completed.

The Office and the Governing Body have endeavoured to secure some general agreement on this matter. It will be remembered that the shipowners' representatives maintain that problems of maritime labour should be dealt with by special conferences which would be so composed as to have all the requisite authority. In last year's *Annual Review* it was explained how the Governing Body, desirous of giving effect to a resolution of the Thirteenth Session of the Conference inviting it to seek the appropriate means of avoiding in the future a repetition of the difficulties which had been encountered at that Session, had decided to instruct the

Office to convene for 1931 a tri-partite technical advisory committee, and to postpone until it had considered the report of this committee its decision as to whether the second and final discussion should be held at a general Session of the Conference or at a maritime Session. Subsequently, however, it appeared that this decision did not give complete satisfaction to the shipowners and that it had met with protests from the seamen. Mr. Cuthbert Laws, General Manager of the International Shipping Federation, requested that it should be made clear without any further delay that the final discussion was to take place at a special maritime Session, and that there should be a certain interval between this special Session and the normal annual Session. For the seamen, the International Transport Workers' Federation and the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association made a protest to the Governing Body against the creation of a technical advisory committee, which they considered might prejudice the results acquired under the ordinary constitutional procedure at the Thirteenth Session of the Conference, and against any postponement of the Session of the Conference which was to take the final decision.

At its session in October the Governing Body reconsidered the whole problem. It decided that the final discussion of the questions dealt with at the Thirteenth Session should take place in 1933 at a maritime Session which would be specially convened but which would not be separated by an interval from the general Session. As regards the technical preparatory committee, the Governing Body reserved for consideration at a later date the question as to the desirability and date of this meeting. These decisions have not yet removed the difficulties as much as might have been hoped. On the shipowners' side, reservations have been made in regard to the indication that the two Sessions of the Conference would be consecutive, and in a joint letter the representatives of the International Mercantile Marine Officers' Association and the International Transport Workers' Federation have strongly criticised the further adjournment of a definite settlement of questions the discussion of which has been in suspense since 1929. Nevertheless, there are grounds for believing that both sides will in the end display that good-will which, as the Office continually emphasises, has such advantages for all industries and which, it would appear, has become specially necessary in the mercantile marine. Without equitable concessions on both sides it will hardly be possible to arrive at a procedure which will guarantee that the decisions to be taken carry their proper weight or to reach satisfactory compromises for the decisions as such.

Agriculturists

No change took place in 1931 in the organisations of agriculturists. The Office maintained and developed the relations it has had for a long time with these organisations. It also established relations for the first time with the *International Agrarian Bureau*

at Prague, an organisation which has been in existence for several years and which maintains connection between groups existing in various States, and also with the *International Federation of Agricultural Technicians* at Rome, a newly formed organisation of which the aim is to protect the international interests of technical and higher staff in agriculture. Existing friendly relations with the Czechoslovak Academy of Agriculture were strengthened.

Collaboration with the *International Institute of Agriculture* was as close as in the past. The sixth session of the Mixed Advisory Agricultural Committee is to be held at Rome on 18 and 19 March 1932 at the invitation of the Institute. The session will be held without experts. A report on the meeting will be inserted in the next edition of the *I.L.O. Yearbook*. The opportunity will be taken by the Office of presenting agricultural wages tables, together with explanatory observations, for four important agricultural countries. This will be done in fulfilment of recommendations adopted at the fifth session of this Committee. At the suggestion of the Governing Body of the Office, the Committee will, at its sixth session, also be entrusted with a discussion on the suppression of fee-charging employment agencies in agriculture.

In June 1931 the Office was represented at the 15th *International Congress of Agriculture* at Prague. An invitation to attend the newly established Labour Questions Sub-Committee of the International Commission of Agriculture, held in the course of the Congress, was also accepted: this Sub-Committee has been established especially with a view to maintaining permanent relations with the International Labour Organisation.

The Office was also represented at other meetings of agriculturists, including the sixth *International Land-Workers Congress* (Stockholm, 7-11 July 1931).

Professional Workers

During 1931 associations of professional workers functioned as usual, though their activities were perhaps somewhat curtailed by the economic depression which made it more difficult to organise international meetings. However, an important new international federation was formed, and the trend towards *rapprochement* between existing organisations, to which reference was made in last year's *Annual Review* continued its course.

An *International Federation of Authors' Societies* was formed as the outcome of the first international congress which was convened at Paris by the French *Société des Gens de Lettres*, and which was attended by representatives of authors' societies in some twenty-two countries. The objects of this new federation are to promote internationally the protection of literary property and the interests of authors in all countries. It proposes, *inter alia*, to facilitate the collection of authors' royalties, to render supervision of translations easier, to act in favour of unifying the different legislations

governing copyright, and to extend and develop arbitration in the international field. The headquarters of the Federation are at Paris.

Closer collaboration between different international federations of professional workers seems to be desired in various quarters. As an instance of this it may be noted that the Permanent Conference of International Professional Organisations [1] has had made to it a request for affiliation from the *International Dental Association*, and that this request has met with opposition from the *International Association of Stomatology*. In view of this opposition and finding it impossible to determine itself which was the international association most qualified to represent the dental profession, the Permanent Conference asked the Office to supply it with information on this question.

On the other hand, there has been a noticeable movement towards *rapprochement* between the International Association of Stomatology and the International Medical Association. The General Council of the latter organisation at its meeting in September decided to take into consideration a proposal for affiliation by the Stomatology Association as an independent branch, but did not make any definite pronouncement on the matter. The International Medical Association in fact has to deal here with a problem which is common to most international organisations of professional workers, viz. the relations between general associations of national groups and international associations of specialists.

The membership of the *International Confederation of Professional Workers* has been increased by the affiliation of two national federations, those of Germany and Belgium. Following on the admission of the German Federation, the seat hitherto reserved for German professional workers' organisations on the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers has been abolished, and a fifth seat has been accorded to the International Confederation.

Special activity has been displayed by associations of women professional workers. Apart from the congresses referred to later [2], reference may be made to the creation of an international committee of women painters and sculptors, under the auspices of the International Council of Women. The objects of this committee are to promote mutual assistance between women artists, and it proposes, *inter alia*, to organise national and international exhibitions of the work of its members.

In 1931 the following Congresses of international professional workers' organisations took place:

International Confederation of Professional Workers (Brussels, 21-25 September);
International Federation of Journalists (The Hague, 12-15 October);
International Medical Association (Budapest, 10-13 September);

[1] Cf. *Annual Review*, 1930, p. 85.
[2] Cf. *post*, p. 76.

International Union of Barristers (Luxemburg, 14-17 September);
International Auctioneers' Congress (First Congress; Cologne, 9-10 October);
International Association of Women Doctors (Vienna, 15-20 September);
Musicians' Association of the Northern Countries (Stockholm, 14-17 May);
International Federation of Critics (Lisbon, 18-28 September);
International Federation of Business and Professional Women (First Congress: Vienna, 26-31 July);
International Theatre Congress (Universal Theatre Society) (Paris, 25-27 June);
International Dental Association (Paris, 2-8 August);
Council of the International Federation of University Women (Wellesley, U.S.A., 2-4 April).

The *Congress of the International Confederation of Professional Workers* dealt with a considerable number of questions and gave special attention to the economic depression and social insurance for professional workers. The Congress, *inter alia*, called on national federations to be prepared for the possible establishment of a new economic order. It pronounced in favour of big international works of public utility for remedying unemployment. On social insurance the Congress recommended action by its national groups in favour of insurance for all classes of workers, while taking into account the special needs of the different categories of workers—manual workers, civil servants, and professional workers. Other questions discussed included authors' rights, performers' rights, protection of commercial artists, hygiene, exchange of information on professional work, and the scientific cinema.

The *Congress of the International Federation of Journalists* discussed principally the problem of the new forms of journalism introduced by wireless and the cinema. The Congress coincided with the inauguration at The Hague of the Journalists' International Tribunal of Honour. The competence of this new Tribunal which, with the exception of its President and Vice-President, is composed entirely of professional journalists, covers all disputes affecting the honour of journalists that may arise between journalists, or between journalists and other persons of different nationalities.

The *Congress of the International Medical Association* not only discussed questions of social insurance in which doctors have been interested for some years, but began for the first time to deal with the problem of the overcrowding of the medical profession. This question is now to the fore in public opinion, as the number of doctors is becoming too high in relation to the population and the number of medical students is still increasing. The Congress decided to undertake an international enquiry on the subject.

The *International Union of Barristers*, whose Congress was mainly a manifestation in favour of the principles on which the League

of Nations is founded, continues to devote attention to the question of Bar pensions funds.

The *Musicians' Association of the Northern Countries*, which comprises musicians in Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden, dealt with the unification of rates of remuneration in these countries for musicians who are employed casually on the production of talking films. With regard to unemployment, a plan of compaign was adopted, and it was decided to start an offensive against amateur orchestras. On the question of performers' rights in the matter of broadcasting and mechanical reproduction, the Congress addressed a request to the International Labour Office asking the Governing Body to take measures with a view to legislative regulation for conferring on musicians rights analogous to those enjoyed by authors and composers.

The *Congress of the International Federation of Critics* decided to introduce an international identity card to be put at the disposal of the affiliated national associations. The Congress examined the possibilities of generalising national arbitration for settling disputes or litigation affecting theatre directors and critics, without newspaper directors having to intervene. In regard to mechanical arts—gramophone and cinema—the Congress investigated the means of safeguarding the independence of the critic *vis-a-vis* such productions which are in part of an industrial and commercial character. The International Federation of Critics has been strengthened by the adherence of France and Germany to its rules.

The *Congress of the International Association of Women Doctors* emphasised in particular the part played by women doctors in tropical countries, the legal protection of women workers and the work of married women [1].

The *Congress of the International Federation of Business and Professional Women* paid special attention to the question of unemployment [2].

The *Council of the International Federation of University Women* dealt with the question of international exchanges of librarians, curators of museums, records officers, and university professors and secondary school teachers.

The *International Theatre Congress of the Universal Theatre Society* considered various reports on the unemployment crisis and the influence of mechanical productions. Among means of improving the present situation, the Congress stressed that criticisms in favour of certain shows should be given wider publicity. The Congress also considered the question of the exchange of troupes of performers.

[1] Cf. *post*, p. 77, for further notes on this Congress.
[2] Cf. *post*, p. 77, for further notes on this Congress.

Women's Organisations

The world economic crisis has caused in various countries, notably in Germany, considerable hostility towards the employment of women, and especially married women. German women's organisations have accordingly endeavoured to ascertain the proper proportion of married women in employment who could possibly be eliminated from the labour market and leave their places for unemployed workers. Their investigations have shown that, leaving out of account women employed in family undertakings, whether agricultural or otherwise, domestic servants, and women employed in hospitals and similar establishments, there are in Germany only about 500,000 married women workers who could be replaced. This figure is very small in comparison with the figure of 5,000,000 unemployed. Besides, there are other reasons for not dismissing married women—for example, the special qualifications of women in such industries as textiles, dressmaking, etc. Moreover, if married women, who in most cases are driven to take up industrial work by sheer necessity, were dismissed, this would cause such economic difficulties and injustices that a measure of this kind would be inapplicable.

At the Congress of the General Federation of German Trade Unions at Frankfort-on-the-Main, the President, Mr. Leipart, emphasised that the German trade unions had always stood for equality of rights as between men and women. Nevertheless, in view of the seriousness of the present depression, they were opposed to any double earnings either on the part of a single person or of a single family. They urged that employment and dismissal should be approached solely from the standpoint of social justice, without any attempt being made to prevent married women as such from working. A similar declaration was made at the Congress of the German Socialist Party at Leipzig.

The two main problems which are engaging the attention of women's organisations are the establishment of the principle that women's wages should be raised to the same level as men's wages for equal work, and the need for organising women workers in trade unions as the best means of securing this object.

The *Committee on Women Workers of the International Federation of Trade Unions* held a meeting in Lausanne in June for considering the position and the means most likely to secure more members among women workers for the trade unions. The first *Conference of women members of trade unions affiliated to the Red International of Labour Unions*, which was held prior to the fifth Congress of the Red International at Moscow, was devoted to the same problems. The Council of the International Federation of Christian Trade Unions also examined the question of women's work at its meeting in December, and invited Christian trade unions to give special attention to the question of the remuneration of women's work and its social and economic effects.

Similar preoccupations have been voiced at national congresses. The Congress of the French General Confederation of Labour, for example, also drew attention to the small numbers of women in the trade union movement and the necessity of intensifying propaganda among women workers. It also emphasised the menace to men's wages from the competition of female labour on low wages, and the need in consequence of giving effect as soon as possible to the principle of equal wages for equal work. The Japanese Trades Union Congress, in November 1931, also made a strong appeal for action to secure equality of wages for men and women.

The *International Conference of Labour and Socialist Women*, which preceded the Congress of the Labour and Socialist International at Vienna, dealt with the various women's problems of the present day including the right to vote, the nationality of married women, political and trade union organisation of women, the effects of the political reaction on the emancipation of women, etc. On the problem of the place of women in economic life, the Conference definitely emphasised the right of women to take up work.

The *International Federation of Business and Professional Women* held its first international Congress, to which reference has been made above in connection with professional workers, at Vienna from 26 to 31 July. Besides studying the effects of unemployment on women, the Congress considered measures which might be taken to improve the situation—social insurance, public works, reduction in hours of work—and drew attention to the need for action in the matter of disarmament and for a revision of the reparations question. It also dealt with certain questions of organisation, and decided that the organisation of the European sections was to be entrusted to a permanent bureau to be set up in Geneva.

The *Open Door International* at its second Congress at Stockholm in August reaffirmed its attitude in regard to the legal protection of working women.

The *International Association of Women Doctors* devoted its sixth Congress, which has also already been referred to in connection with professional workers and which was held at Vienna from 15 to 20 September, to considering the part played by women doctors in tropical countries and the protection of working women. On the first question the Congress was of opinion that Governments should create posts for women doctors, nurses, midwives and native women visitors in sufficient numbers to meet the requirements of native women who are for the most part prevented by their customs or religion from being attended by men. As regards the legal protection of working women, the Congress, having regard to the dissent of certain of its members, considered that it was not in a position to take up a definite attitude on

questions which were still controversial. On the other hand, it was unanimously in favour of organising industrial hygiene courses for medical students, medical supervision of home work, the inclusion of maternity in social insurance laws, etc. The Congress also supported the right of married women to take up work, and protested against dismissal of medical officials on their marriage.

In Asia two women's conferences—the *All-Asia Women's Conference* (January 1931) and the *All-India Women's Conference* which followed—were concerned with stabilising the work of the two Conferences of 1930, with a view to securing concrete results for the emancipation of Asiatic women. The All-Asia Women's Conference considered means calculated to strengthen cultural contact among the women of Asiatic countries. The All-India Women's Conference adopted several resolutions dealing with labour questions, with special reference to the development of factory inspection, the employment of women doctors in factories employing a considerable number of women workers, and the early passing of a maternity benefits Act for the whole of India.

In the United States of America a new organisation—the *Southern Council on Women and Children in Industry*—was established at Atlanta by a group of women who consider that labour legislation in the Southern States does not meet the requirements created by the growing industrialisation of that part of the country. The new Council represents thirty-two women's organisations, and hopes to achieve its purpose, which is to establish in the Southern States uniform minimum standards for regulating the employment of women and children in industry.

The *National Women's Trades Unions League of America* held a Congress, which specially concerned the Southern States, at Greensboro, North Carolina, in March 1931. The object of the Congress was to aid in the organisation of an intelligent public opinion in regard to working conditions in the Southern States, and to demonstrate the function of industrial arbitration and collective bargaining in maintaining industrial peace.

In Brazil the desire of the women's associations for social progress was shown at the second Congress of the *Brazilian Feminist Federation* which was held in June at Rio de Janeiro. The Congress adopted a number of resolutions in favour of approaching the Brazilian authorities with a view to the adoption of special measures for women, including the creation of a bureau of women and children, the immediate establishment of a body of women factory inspectors, the application of the principle of equal pay for equal work, and the maintenance of the law on workers' paid holidays.

Co-operation

The relations which have long existed between the International Labour Organisation and the co-operative organisations in the different countries and also in the international field were as close

and cordial as ever during the past year. Striking evidence of the nature of these relations and their good results may be seen in the circumstances in which the International Committee for Inter-Co-operative Relations was formed in 1931. This subject is dealt with in Chapter VII of the Second Part of this volume.

International Association for Social Progress

The same is the case with the above Association which defends the principles of international labour legislation, and which should be mentioned here in this review of the forces which support the work of the Office. But the help given by the International Association for Social Progress does not consist only in cordial relations with the Office, but also takes the form of general conferences and meetings of committees. For further information on this aspect of the work of this Association the reader may be referred to the Second Part of this volume, which gives in Chapters IV and V under the headings *Wages* and *Migration* references to the general meeting of the Association which took place at Paris in 1931.[1]

International Federation of League of Nations Societies

This organisation continued to interest itself in some of the problems on which the Office has been working. At its fifteenth general Congress (Budapest, 24-28 May 1931) the Federation adopted, on the proposal of its special Committee on the International Labour Office and social and economic questions, resolutions concerning ratification of the Conventions on the minimum age for the admission of children to employment in industry, on board ship and in agriculture, adoption of a Convention on the minimum age for admission to non-industrial employment, protection of national labour markets, the world economic situation, slavery, and the creation of industrial advisory committees. Two other resolutions affecting the International Labour Organisation were concerned with disarmament and European co-operation. These resolutions were submitted on 13 June to the Fifteenth Session of the International Labour Conference by a deputation from the Federation headed by Senator de Brouckère, Vice-President of the Belgian League of Nations Union.

The Interparliamentary Union

The Office was represented at the twenty-seventh Interparliamentary Conference (Bucarest, 1-7 October 1931) which was attended by Members of Parliament from some twenty countries.

[1] Similar observations should be made for the *Conference of Private Associations for the Protection of Migrants*. The activity of this Conference in 1931 is noted in Chapter V, under *Migration*.

The Conference gave considerable place to social problems in its discussions. An interesting discussion took place on the protection of women before and after childbirth and of their children. It ended with the unanimous adoption of a resolution urging the national groups to endeavour to expedite ratification of the Washington Childbirth Convention and to see that the rules of this Convention were incorporated in legislation in their respective countries. This resolution further urged that measures should be taken to ensure to women employed in agriculture the same protection as is accorded to women workers in industry, in conformity with the Recommendations of the 1921 Session of the International Labour Conference, and also emphasised the need for endeavouring to extend such protection to women employed in domestic service, regard being had to the special character of this work.

The Bucarest Conference also unanimously adopted a resolution on the need for careful investigation of the present conditions of work for women. It was urged that such investigations should be undertaken by an advisory committee to be set up under the auspices of the International Labour Office and which should include women members.

Further, the Committee for the study of social and humanitarian questions made a preliminary survey of the means of extending the action of the Interparliamentary Union in regard to the protection of women and children, and the Colonial Committee instructed one of its members to prepare a report on labour questions in colonies.

Moreover, at a plenary sitting the Conference unanimously adopted a resolution recommending each national group to use its best endeavours to see that the steps taken by it with the view to urging its Government to ratify the international Conventions were repeated until satisfaction was obtained.

As in previous years the Union continued to give a regular place in its *Interparliamentary Bulletin* to the activities of the International Labour Organisation.

Welfare and Social Service Associations

The *International Red Cross Committee* and the *International League of Red Cross Societies* had last year to deal with the situation created in various countries by natural catastrophes which in a number of cases had considerable social effects. These organisations also continued their work for helping refugees. Within its own field the League of Red Cross Societies prepared a manual on social hygiene in the mercantile marine, undertook an enquiry into tuberculosis in industry, and investigated the responsibilities of the Red Cross Societies with regard to social service. In the case of the International Red Cross Committee, one of its principal activities was investigating the protection of civil populations against chemical warfare. It has, however, also taken up the

organisation of first aid, etc., on public roads and highways, and this clearly has an important bearing on the prevention of accidents for certain categories of workers.

Close contact has been maintained with the *International Association for the Promotion of Child Welfare* and the *Save the Children International Union*. The research and the publications of the first of these organisations and the practical action of the second have on a number of occasions further strengthened the usual collaboration between them and the Office. Special reference may be made to a meeting held at Geneva in June 1931 by the international Conference for the promotion of child welfare in Africa. This meeting drew up a programme of action and for the systematic collection of information, and referred it to the Save the Children International Union which had been the originator of the meeting. This organisation also interested itself in the work of the Fifteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, and communicated to the latter a letter expressing its cordial support of the work of the Conference for the protection of young workers. Further, an international appeal on behalf of children whose parents are unemployed led to various exchanges of views with the Office.

The collaboration between the Office and the *Permanent Committee of the International Conference on Social Work* was mainly directed during 1931 to the investigation of problems affecting the family, with a view to the international congress to be held in 1932.

The interest which is taken in temperance circles in the work of the Office and which was referred to in last year's *Annual Review* was maintained during 1931. An *International Temperance Council* was formed, one of its chief functions being to keep in touch with the international institutions. The International Temperance Bureau, which has on a number of occasions asked the Office for information on social legislation, was appointed to be the permanent secretariat of this new Council.

Institute of Pacific Relations

The relations of the Office with the Institute of Pacific Relations were particularly close in 1931. At the request of the Institute the Office prepared three memoranda dealing respectively with: (1) the possibilities and limitations of international comparisons of family budgets and cost of living with particular reference to food, clothing, shelter, fuel and light; (2) problems of native labour in Pacific dependencies; (3) migration problems with special reference to Pacific countries.

These memoranda furnished, along with numerous documents of the Institute, the basis for the discussions at the Biennial Conference of the Institute held at Shanghai from 21 October to 2 November 1931. The agenda of the Conference consisted of

topics which are of more or less direct interest to the Office, e.g. international economic relations in the Pacific; food and population; cultural and social relations; migration and race problems; labour problems and the standard of living.

In continuation of the tradition established at previous conferences of the Institute, the Office was represented at the Shanghai Conference by two of its officials who were in the Far East at the time: Mr. Pône and Mr. Ayusawa. Dame Adelaide Anderson, who was on a mission of the International Labour Office with Mr. Pône to China, and Mr. Wong of the Office's Correspondence Office at Shanghai were also present at the Conference.

The Catholic Church

The principal activities of the Catholic social movement in 1931 centre round the celebration of the fortieth anniversary of the Encyclical *Rerum Novarum*, and the new Encyclical *Quadragesimo Anno* which was issued on that occasion.

The Office was represented at the celebration ceremonies, and its representative paid a tribute to those sustained efforts to promote social justice which had helped to prepare the way for the International Labour Organisation, and which were officially associated with the earlier work done at Basle to bring international labour legislation into being.

So far as the new Encyclical issued in May 1931 " on reconstructing the social order " is concerned, it is simply proposed to indicate here in what respects it supplements and adds further developments to the Encyclical *Rerum Novarum*. Some brief references will also be made to opinion in Catholic circles, more especially on the question of unemployment.

The first part of the new Encyclical refers to the effects of the Encyclical *Rerum Novarum* in overthrowing the doctrine of Liberalism, with which the rulers of some countries were deeply infected, and which had " shown its utter impotence to find a right solution of the social question ". It attributes this result to the joint action of the Catholic Church (in doctrinal matters and in practical application), the State (legislation for the protection and well-being of the workers) and those directly concerned (development of the trade unions, whose spirit of organisation has spread to agriculturists and the middle classes).

Although, the Encyclical states, the teaching of Leo XIII was looked upon with suspicion by some Catholics and gave offence to others, who failed to put into practice the instructions of *Rerum Novarum*, particularly with reference to workers' associations, and covered their unjust exactions under the cloak of religion, yet, on the other hand, " the élite among Catholics " set to work seriously to promote a broader outlook of social policy. The workers obtained, besides an improvement in their material situation and " a sense of their true dignity ", a new body of law

intended to ensure the respect of " those sacred rights of the working man which proceed from his dignity as a man and as a Christian ". " Moreover, when after the Great War the rulers of the leading nations wished to restore peace by an entire reform of social conditions, and among other measures drew up principles to regulate the just rights of labour, many of their conclusions agreed so perfectly with the principles and warnings of Leo XIII as to seem expressly deduced from them ".

But " the new needs of our age and the changed conditions of society have rendered necessary a more precise application and amplification of Leo's doctrine ". This is the subject of the second part of the Encyclical, which states the Catholic doctrine on economic and social matters and in particular on the right of property, the wage contract, and the economic system, and which gives a general outline of the social order which is to help to bring about an improvement in the condition of the masses and accord them a position of well-being and dignity in national and international economic life.

While affirming the right of private property, the Encyclical states that not merely is the existence of the right conditional upon the use made of it, so that it ceases to exist if it is abused, but that it is of a social no less than an individual character and, ordained as it has been for the common good of humanity, is limited both in its essence and in its exercise by the requirements of collective life. " History proves that the right of ownership, like other elements of social life, is not absolutely rigid ", and once man's natural right of possessing and inheriting property is safeguarded, the public authorities may supplement natural law and in the light of the real needs of the community specify what is licit and what is illicit for property-owners in the use of their property. In so doing, they " effectively prevent the possession of private property from creating intolerable burdens and so rushing to its own destruction ". The Encyclical discusses " mitigated Socialism ", and also condemns " that type of social rulership which, in violation of all justice, has been seized and usurped by the owners of wealth. This rulership in fact belongs not to the individual owners but to the State ". Thus " it is rightly contended that certain forms of property must be reserved to the State, since they carry with them an opportunity of domination too great to be left to private individuals without injury to the community at large ".

Although there has been a considerable improvement in the condition of the workers in the more prosperous countries, those of " many newly colonised countries no less than of the ancient civilisations of the Far East " have sunk into a proletarian condition; the same applies to " hired rural labourers ". " The immense number of propertyless wage earners on the one hand, and the superabundant riches of the fortunate few on the other, is an unanswerable argument that the earthly goods so abundantly produced in this age of industrialism are far from rightly distri-

buted ". The problem therefore is to ensure that the workers have an ample sufficiency of the fruits of production which now " accumulate in the hands of the wealthy ", and to uplift the proletariat by giving it access to ownership. In the present state of affairs this can only be done by means of a fair wage.

The Encyclical recognises that the wage contract is legitimate, though it considers it, in present circumstances, " advisable that the wage contract should, when possible, be modified somewhat by a contract of partnership ". It also commends the efforts which have been made to enable the wage earners to share in the ownership, the management or the profits of the undertaking. Moreover, the full product of labour, which has a social as well as an individual aspect, should be fairly shared between all the elements of production, both capital and labour, which are equally necessary. If the workers' wage is to be a really just one, it must (on the understanding that normally the mother remains in the home) be sufficient—supplemented if necessary by family allowances—for the proper support of himself and his family at a certain level of well-being and culture. In settling the scale of wages regard must also be had to the business position of the undertaking and, and in order to prevent unemployment, to the needs of the general economy and a reasonable relationship between different categories of remuneration. These indispensable results can only be achieved by a reform of ethical outlook and a reconstruction of the social order, i.e. by State intervention and the reform of institutions; for the present class conflict and lack of organisation there should be substituted vocational groups, which, without excessively bureaucratic State interference (such as, according to the Encyclical, may be feared in the Fascist corporation), would bind men together according to their trades and guide their collective action in the direction of the general well-being of the community. These vocational groups should be provided with some element which would regulate their economic activity. Free competition is incapable of providing an adequate regulating principle; this must be sought in social justice and social charity, which alone can establish industrial relations on an equitable basis and exercise control " sternly and uncompromisingly ", so that " all the institutions of public and social life " may " be imbued with the spirit of justice ". Since the nations are interdependent, they should, " in common counsel and endeavour ", strive " to promote a healthy economic co-operation by prudent pacts and institutions ".

The third part of the Encyclical contrasts this " Christian rationalisation " with the capitalist system, which, it observes, has greatly extended its hold since the publication of *Rerum Novarum*. Although " it is not vicious of its very nature ", capitalism " violates right order " when it " so employs the working or wage-earning classes as to divert business and economic activity entirely to its own arbitrary will and advantage, without any regard to the human dignity of the workers . . . social

justice and the common good ". Free competition has destroyed itself and has been supplanted by a concentration of power and resources. A small minority, who are frequently not the owners but only the trustees and directors of invested funds, and administer them and allot credit at their pleasure, have secured an " economic dictatorship " which has degraded the State into " a slave, bound over to the service of human passion and greed ", especially in the sphere of international relations (nationalism, and international imperialism in financial affairs). " The whole economic life has become hard, cruel and relentless in a ghastly measure ".

Socialism claims to be able to provide a remedy for the existing disorganisation. It has two sections, which are on the whole contradictory—Communism, against which the Encyclical calls for a collective effort, and Socialism, of which the Encyclical says: " Not only does it condemn recourse to physical force; it even mitigates and moderates to some extent class-warfare and the abolition of private property, if it does not reject them entirely. . . . It may well come about that gradually the tenets of mitigated Socialism will no longer be different from the programme of those who seek to reform human society according to Christian principles ". At the same time, the Encyclical declares that Socialism, if it really remains Socialism, cannot be brought into harmony with the principles of the Catholic Church, since the socialised organisation of production necessitates " the use of compulsion of the most excessive kind ", and assumes that " living in community was instituted merely for the sake of the advantages which it brings to mankind ".

A " new diffusion throughout the world of the Gospel spirit, which is a spirit of Christian moderation and of universal charity " is the way to the renewal of society on Christian principles and to peace. Both employers and workers should devote themselves to this task, in a spirit of Catholic action and a sincere desire to work together for the common good.

The Catholic press and Catholic organisations, more particularly those representing the Catholic social movement, have given their active support to this " great charter of Christian social reconstruction ". The second Congress of the International Federation of Catholic Workers (Utrecht, September 1931) recommended a systematic reform of economic life on the basis of labour organised for the common good by occupational association, and energetic development of international social policy with a view to transforming labour law and promoting social progress on the basis of the international organisation of the workers. A few days later the International Union of Social Studies, meeting under the chairmanship of Cardinal van Roey at Malines, discussed the four principal aims of a practical programme; to abolish the work of married women, to introduce elements derived from the contract of partnership into the wage earner's contract, to assist the working classes to rise out of the proletariat, i.e. out of the state of almost continual uncertainty in which they have to live (by means of

insurance, workers' housing, wider and more rapid access to property), and to remove the abuses of the modern system, more particularly by a modification of laws concerning limited companies (protection of shareholders against excessive power of directors and inadequacy and obscurity of balance sheets).

The Social Week at Mulhouse discussed the still wider problem of Christian morality and business life, to which it applied the doctrines of the Encyclical *Quadragesimo Anno*. It considered that " institutions " were needed for adapting business morality, " but they must derive their authority not so much from legal status as from the spirit of moral discipline which animates them ". Elastic and comparatively stable organisations of persons engaged in the various manifestations of business life—industrial agreements, limited liability companies, middlemen, financial combines and stock exchange speculation, industrial relations—were institutions which should make it their duty to subordinate economic considerations to social considerations and to the common interest. They should be under the control of the State in the national field and of the League of States in the international field, but should also have brought to bear on them the influence of the best Christian elements in the business world and detailed and up-to-date principles of business morality adapted to the ever-changing conditions of modern technical progress.

The National Catholic Welfare Conference held at Rochester, U.S.A., dealt with the new Encyclical in its National Conference on Industrial Problems. The Conference was attended by some 500 persons including magistrates, manufacturers, professors and ecclesiastics. Though no formal resolutions were adopted, emphasis was laid by the different speakers on the need for close co-operation between employers and employed, it being urged that employers should recognise the workers' associations and allow them to collaborate in the establishment of a national programme of economic reconstruction. Interpreting the principles of the Encyclical *Quadragesimo Anno* in terms of American life, the Rev. Mr. MacGowan, Joint Director of the Social Action Department of the N.C.W.C., described a system of national guilds which could, with a few exceptions, be established on the basis of private property but should be placed under the close supervision and stimulating action of the State and be guided by a national economic Parliament in the interests of those engaged in the different occupations no less than of the community at large. Each guild would include a workers' association, and the workers would have a share in the ownership, management and profits of the undertaking. Pending the establishment of such a system of national guilds, society should at any rate be organised on democratic lines, which should include a living wage for all, participation of labour in management and ownership, widespread trade unionism and social insurance against sickness, old age and unemployment.

In agreement with this National Conference on Industrial Problems, the Federation of Coloured Catholics, at its Congress held

at St. Louis in September 1931, protested against the inequality of treatment from which Negro workers suffered in the United States and urged those workers to form associations and to collaborate actively in economic reconstruction on the lines laid down by the Papal Encyclical. It appealed to the American Federation of Labor against this policy of exclusion and drew the attention of the International Labour Organisation to the existing situation.

No one who aims at uplifting the proletariat can fail to be concerned with the question of unemployment, which, as the Encyclical *Quadragesimo Anno* notes, is at present causing distress to the workers and ruining the prosperity of nations. In view of the necessity " that opportunities for work be provided for those who are willing and able to work ", the Encyclical observes that " a scale of wages too low, no less than a scale excessively high, causes unemployment ". Some months later, at the beginning of a winter which threatened to be one of great distress, the Pope drew attention to the dangers of the financial crisis, and of the armaments race, which he considered was not the least important factor in the present crisis, and issued an appeal to the Catholic world to organise relief for the unemployed, and more particularly relief for their children. In response to this " crusade of charity ", charitable work was undertaken and efforts to provide assistance in the form of employment were made in the dioceses throughout the world; in accordance with the example set by the Pope himself, endeavours were made to promote the building of churches. Many ecclesiastical pronouncements made in this connection, and in particular the letters of the Bavarian and Hungarian bishops, laid stress on the bases of a just wage and the duties of owners of property. In the United States of America, Dr. Ryan, Director of the Social Action Department of the N.C.W.C., stated before the National Conference on Industrial Problems that it was not for private charity to provide unemployment relief, but rather for society, and more particularly the State, which are bound to repair the injury done to a great part of the population by " their sins of omission " in the management of the national economy. In France, the Congress of the People's Democratic Party (which is inspired by Christian ideals) stated in November 1931 that " in its view no attempt should be made, on any pretext, to take advantage of the crisis to call in question social legislation and in particular the recent Social Insurance Act ".

The Churches and Religious Organisations belonging to the Stockholm Movement

The religious elements which belong to the Stockholm movement have also been giving close attention to the difficult social conditions of the present day. The Anglican, Orthodox, Protestant and Old Catholic Churches, all of which are represented in the World Council of Social Christianity, have devoted their attention mainly

to a study of the problems and responsibilities which the world crisis and the prevalence of unemployment place before the conscience of Christianity.

A number of declarations—statements made by the Presidents of the World Council, the Encyclical of the Archbishop Primate of Athens, and messages from the Churches of America, Great Britain and Switzerland—illustrate the ideas which are at present under consideration in those circles. There is general recognition of the widespread nature of the crisis and the necessity of joint action to meet it, and also of the urgent need for far-reaching and radical measures.

Thus, the message of the Christian Social Council of Churches in Great Britain urges the Churches to give their earnest attention to all proposals which are based upon an open recognition of the fundamental features of the present situation, however novel the proposals may be and however difficult they may be to grasp because of their novelty. The message says, *inter alia:*

" It cannot be that the last word has been said in regard to the need of a system which will combine economic efficiency with that respect for personality and that law of fellowship to which as Christians we are committed. . . "

Similarly, the Social Service Commission of the Federal Council of Churches of America states that a new status must be created for industrial workers; a new concept of the position and needs of all workers and producers in the modern world is required. During the present depression society is treating millions of them as if they were dependants, hangers-on or social liabilities, although in reality they are the very foundation of the economic structure. Justice and not charity is what is most needed at the present time. What is required is a system of national planning adjusted to world-wide trends and taking account of the interdependence of nations. The facts themselves should induce the Churches to assume their rightful place of ethical leadership, and to demand fundamental changes in the economic system, to protest against the selfish desire for wealth as the principal motive of industry, to insist upon the creation of an industrial society aiming at economic security and freedom for the masses of mankind, and to endeavour to develop a social order based on the Christian principles of love and brotherhood.

Again, it must be remembered, says the Council of the Swiss Federation of Protestant Churches, that the present economic crisis, of which unemployment is the most obvious symptom, is bound up with the whole international situation. It is in fact simply the logical result of the extraordinary confusion now prevailing in economic relations and the destiny of nations.

In addition to these general expressions of opinion, a number of practical questions have been discussed: practical action by the Churches, a week of international studies for young persons, and research work undertaken by the International Institute of Social Christianity. This Institute, which belongs to the World Council

of Social Christianity, is doing much to promote mutual comprehension by its influence among theologians and by its relations with outstanding personalities among employers and workers.

But, significant as these official declarations are, an independent and really progressive movement of public opinion has also developed in the religious circles belonging to the Stockholm movement. An illustration of this may be found in the first Social Christian Congress of the Latin countries which met at Geneva at the end of September 1931 and was attended by more than 600 persons. The Congress declared itself unanimously in favour of collaboration in the social and industrial fields; it unreservedly supported the work of the International Labour Organisation and called on Christians to make greater efforts to secure ratification of Conventions. A programme of a more definite character was accepted at the last meeting by a majority of those present. They advocated the introduction of unemployment insurance into every country where it was not already in existence, and a further reduction in working hours in order to permit workers to share in the advantages resulting from technical progress; expressed their opposition to all attempts at a reduction of wages, which could only intensify the depression and increase the existing distress of the working classes; and favoured a European economic agreement for the gradual suppression of customs barriers and the economic unification of the Continent, as well as a transition from the present anarchic system of economic individualism to a system of collective organisation of production and distribution of wealth in the interests of all. Although some of these proposals met with considerable resistance, it appears clear that on the whole they represent an expression of the views of an increasing number of Christians who are inspired by the ideals of Stockholm.

As far as questions of organisation were concerned, this same Congress decided to establish a Social Christian Federation for the Latin countries, to be " regarded as an advance guard of the Churches " and as a first step towards the constitution of an international organisation [1].

Another very characteristic manifestation is the new definition of the attitude to social and labour questions of the World's Alliance of Young Men's Christian Associations, which has been in existence for over seventy-five years and has one and a half million members.

The Twentieth World's Conference of this Alliance, which was held at Cleveland in 1931, declared that the Alliance " was conscious of a deep sense of responsibility in regard to international questions amid the particular difficulties of the present day ", and that these required " a spirit of bold adventure " and " a corporate effort " on the part of Christian young people. On the subject of industrial

[1] Cf. *Christianisme sociale et problèmes contemporains (Désarmement — chômage — législation sociale — régime industriel). Actes du Congrès de Genève*, Geneva, Editions " Labor ". (Ed. " Christianisme sociale ", 2, rue Balay, St-Etienne, Loire, France.) 250 pp.

problems, the Conference stated that " there is necessity for nothing less than a fundamental change in the spirit of our economic life, and that this change can only be effected by accepting as the basis of industrial relations the principle of co-operation and service for the common good, in place of unrestricted competition for private advantage. " On the question of unemployment, again, the Conference recognised the efforts which have been made and the relief work which has been done, but called on Governments " to modify the structure of the existing industrial order in such a way as to prevent in the future the recurrence of such a condition ". Other resolutions stressed the importance of information on current industrial problems, especially from the international point of view, the importance of free discussion to promote mutual understanding and facilitate the solution of labour disputes, etc.

The Conference also considered it necessary to meet the present economic and spiritual needs of the rural people of the world and to study the effects of industrialism, the movement towards the cities, etc. On the question of migration, it was urged that further efforts are necessary in view of the increasing number of emigrants who return to Europe from oversea countries. The Conference stated that it had " heard with dismay " the reports from delegates representing Europe, the United States, China and Japan, concerning large bodies of seasonal workers who migrate to other areas where no provision is made for their physical, moral or spiritual welfare. This was held to impose a special responsibility on the national unions, and the World's Committee was asked to carry out an enquiry in countries where this state of affairs exists. The physical and intellectual tests applied by immigration authorities to migrants were considered to be extremely severe, and to result in the rejection of suitable settlers, and the World's Committee was invited to bring this matter to the attention of the International Labour Office, with a view to representations being made to the Governments concerned [1].

The attitude of the World's Alliance of Young Women's Christian Associations is similar. At the instance of the social and industrial department of this organisation an enquiry has been carried out among the secretaries of the Alliance in the Far East, and the results will, it is said, probably " bring fresh proof of the burning necessity for saving women workers, by adequate legislation, from merciless exploitation ". In China the proposed new social legislation has necessitated a considerable amount of preparatory work among the various local associations. The unemployment problem has been studied and action has been taken. The proposals framed, for example, by the national conferences of the United States and New Zealand are both constructive and positive in character:

[1] Cf. *Facing a World Crisis.* Report of the World's Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations to the World's Conference at Cleveland, 1931. Cf. also resolutions of the Twentieth World's Conference.

they contain not only an offer of collaboration addressed to the authorities but also an appeal for the adoption of general measures. The Alliance has also devoted special attention to the question of employment agencies.

In the case of the service for research and information on industrial and social questions of the International Council of Missions, which was set up in October 1930, this service began to operate in full working capacity last year. It has endeavoured to maintain liaison between the various missions with a view to the supply of information. It has made preparations for an enquiry into the social and spiritual needs of young persons in certain districts of Africa, and a scheme of investigation has been drawn up on the spot. A study of the social position in mandated territories is also under consideration.

The various organisations whose social activities have been briefly outlined above have taken joint action in the International Study Centre, which was founded at Geneva in 1930. This body sent a message to the Fifteenth Session of the International Labour Conference, in which the Christian organisations expressed their point of view on the question of child labour. In their view the object to be aimed at is the abolition of child labour. Pending this, energetic measures should be taken to protect children from the excesses of industrialism and the material, moral and spiritual evils which it causes. This should be done for reasons of principle, and not merely in isolated cases for reasons of expediency, dictated by certain economic and social phenomena. This question, moreover, is regarded by these organisations as being closely bound up with the raising of the school age, which they suggest should form the subject of an international agreement as soon as possible.

Mention should also be made of two other important organisations with which the International Labour Office keeps in constant touch. The first of these is the International Social Service of the Salvation Army, which in 1931 expressed its interest in the study which the Office is undertaking on conditions of work in prisons. The Salvation Army has done important pioneer work on this question. The second organisation is the Society of Friends (Quakers), the American branch of which is responsible for the International Secretariat. The Society of Friends in the United States is at present undertaking research into the labour situation in the mining States with a view to finding out what should be done to help those workers who, owing to the crisis and changes in production, are obliged to give up their occupation permanently, and therefore require new vocational training. The Society of Friends is working on these lines with the consent of the authorities, and in some cases, indeed, at their request. It is also engaged in direct relief work, since it has, with the assistance of the Federal Council of Churches, undertaken the care of 25,000 children of unemployed persons. In Great Britain, too, the Society of Friends has done similar work for the miners in certain districts of Wales. It has also recently taken charge of the work which was begun at its

suggestion some three years ago for the purpose of providing unemployed workers with an opportunity for settling on and cultivating the land. The Government some time ago took over this scheme, but has recently been obliged by circumstances to give it up. The Society of Friends with the help of the public is now carrying on this work, which affects nearly 65,000 unemployed.

This practical action, characteristic of the Quaker method which has been pursued in different forms of international action, has been supplemented by research and investigations. An international conference, for example, was held at Paris in November 1931 to consider the world depression. In its industrial conclusions this conference emphasised, *inter alia*, the need for society discharging its duty of providing not only food but also opportunities for work, so that all men and women could feel that they were active and useful members of the community; organisation of a just and reasonable distribution of the products of labour; international collaboration for reducing hours of work, maintaining such wages as would give the workers as much purchasing power as possible, and adjusting world production to the needs of society.

Jewish Social Action

Interesting developments took place in the Jewish world in 1931. The new labour programme of the Central Conference of American Rabbis corresponds in essentials with the international Labour Charter: respect for human personality, freedom of association, limitation of hours of work, a living wage, arbitration, social insurance, protection of women workers, abolition of child labour. Certain points are particularly striking. These include the reduction of working hours to the minimum compatible with physical, mental and moral well-being (the maximum hours should not exceed eight per day and, if possible, five days per week); special health and safety measures for women industrial workers, and equal wages for men and women for equal work; opposition to child labour in every form, and demand for the immediate adoption of adequate State or Federal legislation.

Further, the Committee on Social Justice of the above Conference issued a message for Tishri 5692 (September 1931) which is entirely devoted to the economic crisis. It calls for the following practical action: immediate execution of a great programme of public works by Governments; immediate institution of unemployment insurance and regulation of production by shortening hours of labour. " The shorter working week and the shorter working day ", it declares, " are both economic and moral necessities in our mechanised age. The possibility of excessive leisure should not be regarded as a danger. It would be far better to have a normal leisure amid comfort than the present policy of enforced idleness amid starvation. "

Inter-Denominational Social Action

The principal event in this connection, which took place in 1931 in the U.S.A., was the meeting of a large Conference at Washington on the prevention of unemployment. It was called jointly by the Social Service Commission of the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, the Social Action Department of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, and the Commission on Social Justice of the Central Conference of American Rabbis [1].

The object of the Conference was to allow of an exchange of different points of view. It led to a joint appeal which was recently issued, and which embodies the results of the experience of 1931. The three organisations appeal to American public opinion for the development of public works arranged according to a national scheme, for a reduction of hours of work without reduction of wages, for the organisation of a complete system of social insurance, which is regarded as the necessary complement of normal social policy and the form of relief which best preserves individual dignity, and for the institution of an economic system concerted not merely nationally but also internationally. In this connection it is specially important, states the manifesto, that labour should be allowed fair representation for its interests by means selected by itself. Special attention should also be given to the world economic problem, and particularly the question of raw materials.

Preparations have also been continued in collaboration with other religious denominations for the World Congress of Religious Forces for International Peace. The executive committee, which met at Geneva in August 1931, approved the reports of its sub-committees, one of which was instructed to deal with industrial and social factors and the part which they play in causing wars.

Another interesting development is the collaboration which has been established between religious bodies and neutral associations for social progress. In many countries, and also in the international field, there is to be noted a fuller comprehension of the common responsibilities of the different bodies concerned.

From the above brief account of the general tendencies of social action by religious bodies, it will be seen that there is a general tendency towards convergence. Although there may be some individual dissentients, all the great religious bodies in effect advocate changes and reforms in the social and international fields which present a striking analogy with the programme outlined for the International Labour Organisation. This represents the increasing support of a large section of public opinion.

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[1] *Permanent Preventives of Unemployment.* Washington, 26-27 Jan. 1931, 100 pp.

Universities and Education

Relations between the International Labour Office and universities and other educational bodies developed considerably in 1931. A large number of professors gave special courses of lectures on the International Labour Organisation and its work, or dealt with it in the regular courses of instruction in economics or law. Several new Chairs of industrial relations were established in the United States and Great Britain, and these devote special attention to the work of the Organisation. A large number of theses dealing with the work of the Office were written in the universities of various countries. Still larger numbers of professors and students came to Geneva to visit the Office and work in its library, and Office publications were more widely included in university libraries and other special libraries.

The Office has collaborated still more actively with the University of Geneva and the Geneva Graduate Institute of International Studies. It has also been in close touch with the various educational bodies which organise temporary courses on international subjects in Geneva. Courses of this kind were held in 1931 by the University of Geneva, the Geneva Institute of International Relations, the School of International Studies, the International Federation of League of Nations Societies, the International Bureau of Education, and the Scandinavian Popular College at Geneva. The Office was represented at a meeting held at the end of the summer by the organisers of these various summer schools. The meeting was called by the International Federation of League of Nations Societies to consider the possibility of drawing up and publishing a joint programme indicating the objects of the various summer schools and the public to which they appeal.

Special mention should be made of the Scandinavian Popular College, which held its first session in 1931. Thirty-four students, including Danes, Finns, Norwegians and Swedes, followed the course, which lasted three months. The students belonged to the following occupations: manual workers (9), journalists (9), teachers (5), agricultural workers (3), etc. The official languages were Danish, Norwegian and Swedish; the students were also given an opportunity of studying English and French, so that they could read the publications of the League of Nations and the International Labour Organisation. The Scandinavian Popular College has been so successful that the creation of similar institutions for other language groups is under consideration.

The Office has also collaborated with the Sub-Committee of Experts set up by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to deal with the instruction of youth in the aims of the League of Nations. The Office was represented at a meeting held in 1931 to make preparations for the production of an educational film, intended for school children, dealing with the work of the League and the International Labour Organisation.

The various international students' federations have continued to give their support to the Organisation: International Federation of Students, International University Federation for the League of Nations, International Federation of University Women, World Student Christian Federation, Pax Romana, World Federation of Jewish Students, International Student Service and International Federation of Socialist Students.

The International University Federation for the League of Nations, at its annual congress at Geneva, adopted resolutions on unemployment, forced labour and other labour questions. In accordance with the arrangement made between the Office and the Federation, three members of the latter belonging to different nationalities were enabled to spend a month working at the International Labour Office.

The Press and Public Opinion

The Office has kept up close relations with the press and public opinion in general. In spite of the inadequate means at its disposal, it constantly endeavours to maintain the interest of the press by means of communiqués on the work of the Conference and the Governing Body, the meetings of various committees, the ratification of Conventions, the studies and enquiries carried out by the research services, and statistics of special interest, such as statistics of unemployment throughout the world. The communiqués, which are generally brief, are used by journalists for the despatches which they send by telegraph, telephone or wireless. From time to time these communiqués are supplemented by rather more detailed notes on special subjects, such as items placed on the Agenda of the Conference, or by general reviews of a Session of the Conference or of the work of the Organisation during the year, which supply material for longer articles. These various communications are sent regularly in French and English to all the great telegraphic press agencies, all journalists accredited to the League of Nations and all newspapers which ask for them.

The information thus provided, which is sometimes supplemented by oral explanations, is more widely used every year, and there is a steady increase in the number of references to the work of the Office. These include not merely news items but articles commenting on and discussing this work. Not all of them, of course, are favourable to the Office. Some are violently hostile, but this is a very small minority. Besides, even attacks are sometimes not without their value because they call forth replies and arouse curiosity.

Another fact which bears witness to the interest taken by journalists in the affairs of the Organisation is that increasing numbers of them follow the work of the Conference. There were 100 at the 1927 Session, 111 in 1928, 125 in 1929, 140 in 1930 and 153 in 1931.

In order to reach a wider public, the Office has continued the publication of the *Monthly Summary*, which gives a brief account of the work of the Conference, the Governing Body and the Office. During 1931 the publication entitled *The International Labour Organisation—The First Decade* [1], which gives the history of the Organisation from its creation, was published in English, French and German.

A large number of books, pamphlets and articles dealing with the work of the Organisation have appeared in various countries and various languages. Some have been written by individuals and others by organisations such as the Geneva Research Information Committee and the British League of Nations Union. A list of these publications, as nearly complete as possible, is given in the *Bibliography of the International Labour Organisation.*

The Office has also been in touch with personalities representing important sections of public opinion and with persons who have paid visits to Geneva. It was visited by several distinguished visitors in 1931, including Mr. Lerroux, Spanish Minister of Foreign Affairs and at that time President of the Council of the League of Nations, and Mr. Portes Gil, ex-President of the Republic of Mexico. Various persons who were attending conferences and summer schools at Geneva also visited the Office. As in previous years, the Office was assisted in receiving these visitors by the American Committee of the League of Nations Association of the United States and its representatives at Geneva. There was, however, a considerable falling off in the total number of visitors this year—due to the economic crisis. In July and August the total number of visitors was only 3,833 as compared with 8,045 in 1930.

The Office maintained its stand at the International Hygiene Exhibition at Dresden, and also sent exhibits to the Lisbon Exhibition organised to promote the protection of children. It has also been able to add to its collection of lantern slides. German and Italian editions of the film which the Office prepared in 1930 to illustrate the working of the machinery of the International Labour Organisation and the Office were made by the Berlin and Rome offices. The preparation, in collaboration with the League of Nations, of a film dealing both with the League of Nations and the International Labour Office is at present under consideration.

The Office has continued the publicity work by wireless which it has been doing in recent years and has also undertaken certain new activities in this field, the chief of which is the broadcasting of periodical lectures by the International Labour Office from Geneva. As a result of agreements reached with the Geneva Broadcasting Company, Chiefs of Service and other officials of the Office periodically broadcast talks on the questions with which they deal. A series of twelve lectures has been given during the past six months and will be continued, two lectures being given per

[1] London, George Allen and Unwin, Ltd.; U.S.A., World Place Foundation, 40 Mount Vernon Street, Boston, Mass.

month. All these lectures are announced in the official programmes of the principal countries and are broadcast by the National French-Swiss Broadcasting Station of Sottens.

In Czechoslovakia, the Czech Workers' Radio continues to follow the work of the International Labour Organisation. It regularly issues news on labour and social questions, and in addition ten lectures on the work of the Office were given in 1931. Most of them were relayed by all the broadcasting stations of Czechoslovakia.

In France, daily broadcast talks on the Office are still given from the Eiffel Tower and relayed by other Government stations, and weekly talks are still broadcast from the *Ecole des P.T.T.* at Paris, all under the auspices and supervision of the Paris Correspondent's Office. The weekly items on the work of the Office given from the private station of *Radio-Paris* have also been continued.

In Germany, where information concerning the work of the Office is always broadcast by the various stations, a series of lectures has just been started under the auspices of the Berlin Correspondent's Office and the *Deutsche Welle*, a central institution for workers' education which had previously accepted the assistance of the Berlin Correspondent's Office in providing information for some of its lectures on labour and social questions. Dr. Rudolf Wissel, former German Minister of Labour, opened the new series with a lecture on the world economic crisis and international social policy.

In Great Britain, the broadcasts of news and the periodical talks on the League of Nations given by the British Broadcasting Corporation continue to mention the work of the Office.

In Italy, the E.I.A.R. (*Ente italiano audizioni radiofoniche*) broadcasts communiqués prepared by the Rome Office once a fortnight.

Lastly, lectures on the work of the International Labour Organisation have been given by the Correspondents of the Office in the cities where they are established and also in other places by officials of the Office on leave or on mission.

CHAPTER IV

INTERNATIONAL INFORMATION

Under Article 396 of the Treaty, the functions of the International Labour Office include " the collection and distribution of information on all subjects relating to the international adjustment of conditions of industrial life and labour ". The purpose of this Chapter is to indicate what was done by the Office in 1931 to carry out this function.

Centralisation of Information

Library. — During 1931 the library of the Office received each month an average of 3,000 publications.

The following are the figures for 1930 and 1931:

	1930	1931
Volumes	8,541	7,983
Brochures	8,717	11,844
Total	17,258	19,827
Publications in series	13,805	16,362
Grand total	31,063	36,189

The increase over 1930 is thus 5,126 or 16.5 per cent. (from 1923 to 1931 the percentage increase is 255).

As in previous years, a large number of works were presented to the library. Mr. J. Prudhommeaux, General Secretary of the French Federation of League of Nations Associations, presented the publications of the *Guise Familistère* and its founder, André Godin. The Office library thus possesses one of the most complete collections on the subject of the *Familistère* and Godin.

The list of *cinematograph films* dealing with social questions has been kept up to date.

The collection of publications of social service schools increased considerably in 1931. The Office has obtained information from 98 of these schools out of the 135 of whose existence it is aware; 790 of their publications had been received up to the end of 1931. Nineteen schools have sent lists of works prepared by their pupils for diplomas or as theses.

As in the past, the library was frequented by external readers; 308 persons were authorised to work in it in 1931. These were divided as follows among the different nations: Great Britain, 48;

United States of America, 46; Switzerland, 46; Germany, 36; France, 20; Italy, 12; Czechoslovakia, 12; Sweden, 11; U.S.S.R., 11; India, 10; etc. Among these 308 persons there were 101 students, 9 of whom came to the library to prepare their theses, and 54 teachers, including 36 engaged in higher grade establishments, 25 journalists and 17 jurists.

Documents Service

Figures for the work of the Documents Service are much the same as in 1930. Over 4,000 periodical publications were received in 1931, representing 240,000 separate numbers; 63,000 copies were lent and 1,640 collections were prepared for binding. The reading room for periodicals was visited by 800 readers on the average every month.

The systematic examination of periodicals has covered more than 1,500 of the more important reviews or newspapers.

Preparation of Information

During 1931, in addition to preparing the requisite documents for this year's Session of the Conference, the sessions of the Governing Body and numerous committees, particularly the various meetings of the Unemployment Committee, the Office completed or began, as in previous years, a large number of studies.

Studies completed. — The following were completed during the year:

The first volume of a synthetic study on conciliation and arbitration, which will be followed by a number of national monographs.

An extensive study of silicosis, arising out of the Johannesburg Conference.

An analytical and comparative study of the regulations governing the work of women in different countries.

A study of statistics of occupational diseases;

Two studies on safety in the use of acetylene and of celluloid;

A study on wage-fixing methods in coal mines;

A big volume on rationalisation and working conditions;

A number of studies on different aspects of the unemployment question, and a volume embodying the results of an enquiry on the spot made by the Deputy-Director in the United States of America.

Current studies. — So far as *working conditions* are concerned, the Office has devoted considerable attention during the last few months to a problem of close interest to public opinion and particularly to employers and workers, viz. the arrangement of hours of work on new bases, i.e., the Saturday half-holiday system, the five-day week or some other method. The same question has also been considered from the special angle of unemployment. In different countries attempts have been made to reduce weekly hours of work so as to spread the same amount of work over a larger number of workers, without, however, unduly increasing

the cost of production. The Office has already made extensive investigations into this question for the Unemployment Committee, and it is possible that some publications on it may shortly be issued. Further, on the request of the Secretariat of the League of Nations, the Office prepared a memorandum on conditions of work in prisons, which was submitted, together with other memoranda on prison conditions, to the Assembly of the League of Nations; the Assembly requested the Office to continue its studies in this field. For the session of the Governing Body in October last, the Office prepared a report on the employment of women underground in mines. This question arouses considerable public interest, and the Office is continuing its investigations into it as far as ways and means permit. As a matter of fact, the Office is actively pursuing investigations into the question of women's working conditions as a whole, and is engaged in setting up a large correspondence committee to help it in this work.

Side by side with these enquiries into the conditions of work of women, the Office is also studying the regulation of the work of children. A study on legislation on children's work is being prepared on the same lines as the one published last year on women's working conditions: it will be published in 1932.

On the subject of *industrial hygiene and safety* the Office has a number of studies in hand.

As regards *industrial medicine*, it is probable that the *Encyclopaedia of Industrial Hygiene* will approach completion towards the end of the year. The Office will also publish model regulations for industrial hygiene which have been prepared with the assistance of the Committee on Industrial Hygiene and which, with the approval of the Governing Body, are to be communicated to Governments. The Office is also preparing a study of occupational cancer, revising its 1925 study on compensation for occupational diseases, and working on a number of more specialised studies on diseases associated with certain present-day industrial practices (enamelling on cast metal, utilisation of solvents). Following upon the Johannesburg Conference, the Office is also continuing its studies on silicosis.

On *industrial safety* the following are the subjects of the principal studies which are to appear in 1932: generation and use of electricity; utilisation of lifts and hoists; employment of ladders; spray painting, etc. It should also be mentioned in the present connection that the Office collects and communicates to those concerned information on the various forms of action taken in other quarters to secure the adoption of automatic coupling for railway wagons and to reduce the number of accidents in coal mines.

In regard to *wages*, the Office is dealing not only with the question of what are somewhat erroneously termed " high wages ", but is continuing its enquiries into wages in general in relation to output. It is probable that it will be able to publish a study on the subject in 1932. The Office is also continuing its publi-

cations on statistical and comparative investigations into wages actually paid in the different countries, and is endeavouring to improve these publications with the help of its committees of experts. It is specially investigating wages in the textile trades, for the purpose of the committee of the Governing Body which is dealing with this question. It is also proposing to do the same for the iron and steel trades, and is preparing a special study on wages in agriculture. It is putting the finishing touches to a study on the standard of living in various countries, and is preparing another on new lines dealing with the relative levels of real wages in the different countries, with a view to publishing something like a statistical yearbook on wages.

On the subject of *social insurance*, the Office is preparing a number of technical studies which will be published between the session of the Conference in April next and the 1933 Session, which are to deal with the question of old-age, invalidity and widows' and orphans' insurance by way of the first and second discussions respectively. These technical studies will deal respectively with old age, invalidity and widows' and orphans' insurance, the maintenance of pension rights, and non-contributory old-age and invalidity pensions. Further, the Social Insurance Section is making a special study of certain problems which are not on the Agenda of the forthcoming Session of the Conference—social insurance for watermen on international inland waterways in Europe, and social insurance for the navigating staff of aeroplanes. In addition, at the request of the Governing Body, a directory of social services is being prepared.

In connection with *placing in employment*, the Office is engaged on a study on the recruitment and placing of workers on lines suggested by the Migration Committee in May 1930. As part of the preparation of the international placing conference suggested by the Unemployment Sub-Committee of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union and them by the Commission of Enquiry itself, the Office has begun a comparative study of placing problems and institutions in the different countries. It is also directly interesting itself in the problem of national or international public works for mitigating the unemployment crisis. This problem is now being dealt with by a special sub-committee of the Communications and Transit Organisation of the League of Nations, but the Office, which first raised the question, continues to take a close interest in it, especially as the above-mentioned sub-committee includes representatives of the Governing Body.

So far as *agricultural workers* are concerned, the Office is not only dealing with the question of wages in agriculture, as noted above, but is preparing a study on collective agreements in agriculture for the next Session of the Conference, in pursuance of a resolution of the Conference in 1928. It is also actively carrying on a number of investigations into the rural exodus.

In the matter of *work on board*, attention is being given more particularly to the questions of fishery workers, inland navigation

and aerial navigation. The preparatory work for the general enquiry into the conditions of work of fishermen, which the Conference in 1920 asked should be undertaken, is being completed, and the investigations have been extended to the sponge and pearl fishing industries and the extraction of certain other deep-sea products. On inland navigation the replies of Governments on the regulation of hours of work and rest at night are being analysed and tabulated, while in the case of aerial navigation a plan of study has been prepared on conditions of work, training, and safety, and has been forwarded to the Governments concerned.

In connection with the problems of *professional workers*, special reference may be made, among the various detailed investigations which the Office is carrying out, to its investigations on the question of performers' rights in mechanical music and broadcasting—a question which is of vital interest to professional workers and which the Office intends to follow up energetically.

The Office's studies are being continued on general conditions of labour in Asiatic countries, and, so far as native labour is concerned, the main subjects being investigated are developments in the law and practice regarding forced labour, methods of recruiting paid native labour, and conditions of employment of such labour under contract or for long periods.

In regard to the *workers' living conditions*, the Office in continuation of its study on workers' housing questions in Europe published in 1931, is preparing an appendix on the construction of what are known as " Socialist towns " in the U.S.S.R. It is also preparing a general study on the utilisation of workers' spare time, with the assistance of the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation as regards public libraries, workers' artistic pursuits, etc. Further, it is making progress with a general study on workers' education and the part played in this connection by trade unions. In accordance with a resolution of the Conference, it will submit a general report on vocational guidance to the 1932 Session.

In connection with the *co-operative movement*, the Office will be able to publish the new edition of the *International Directory of Co-operative Organisations* at the end of 1932 and a general statistical review of the different forms of co-operative societies.

Lastly, so far as the *workers' general rights* are concerned, 1932 will see the end of an important study being made by the Office on conciliation and arbitration, as well as the beginning of studies of equal importance on contracts of employment and collective agreements.

Distribution of Information

As in the past, numerous requests for information were received during 1931 from Governments, public authorities, employers' and workers' organisations, as well as from private individuals. The number of these requests was not quite 1,000, thus being slightly smaller than in previous years.

Requests for information received in 1931 may be classified as follows, according to their subject-matter and the nature of the source from which they come:

Subjects	Various institutions and private individuals; co-operative organisations	Members of Parliament and political parties	Governments and national administrative services	Employers' organisations and undertakings	Workers' organisations
Conditions of work: hours, wages, collective agreements, etc.	104	5	39	27	53
Social insurance, disabled men	67	3	27	9	14
Unemployment, placing, public works	62	1	20	9	9
International Labour Organisation, ratifications, interpretation of Conventions, etc.	79	—	4	2	6
Safety, hygiene, occupational diseases	50	1	18	4	14
Co-operation, handicraftsmen	34	—	2	—	3
Miscellaneous statistics and bibliographies	31	—	2	2	2
Cost of living, purchasing power of wages, family allowances, housing	20	2	3	3	1
Economic situation, production, rationalisation	19	1	1	2	8
Labour law and its administration	15	—	6	2	4
Apprenticeship, vocational guidance, technical education	14	—	7	—	4
Trade union movement	14	—	—	3	7
Agriculture	14	1	3	4	2
Migration	17	—	6	—	1
Native labour	14	—	6	1	2
Mercantile marine	1	1	3	—	3
Workers' spare time, holidays, weekly rest	7	—	—	—	2

Among the countries from which these requests were received, Germany comes first with 138 requests, closely followed by France (122), then by Great Britain (104), the United States of America (74), Switzerland (57), Italy (48) and Belgium (47).

Most of the information supplied in 1931 at the request of Governments and Members of Parliament dealt with conditions of work, including hours and wages (44), followed by social insurance (30), unemployment, including placing and public works (21), safety, industrial hygiene and occupational diseases (19).

As in previous years, requests from employers' organisations again dealt principally with conditions of work in the various countries (27).

The information asked for by workers' organisations referred to working conditions (53), social insurance (14), safety, industrial hygiene and occupational diseases (14).

Among the more important replies furnished by the Office, the following may be mentioned:

Information on unemployment legislation (for the Buenos Aires municipality).

Information on unemployment insurance (for the Australian Government).

Information on provisions relating to collective agreements and labour tribunals in Latin America (for the Brazilian Ministry of Labour).

Information on social insurance and statistics of morbidity, death, accidents, etc. (for the Chilian Ministry of Social Welfare).

Report on the world co-operative movement (for the Spanish Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare).

An international study on the cost of accident insurance (for the Spanish Superior Labour Council).

Statistics of social charges due to unemployment and information on unemployment insurance in various countries (for the German Labour Ministry).

Information on wage scales in various industries.

An international report on the results of reducing hours of industrial work as a remedy for unemployment (for the British Ministry of Labour).

A report on internal migration in the different countries (for the Italian Ministry of Agriculture).

Information on public works undertaken in the principal European towns (for the Tokyo municipality).

Information on national legislation concerning old-age and invalidity insurance and the results of its application (for the Swiss Federal Department of Public Economy).

Information on the employment of children and adults in industry, agriculture, transport, etc., and on the organisation of technical and commercial instruction in the different countries (for the Experimental Labour Institute of the People's Commissariat for Education of the U.S.S.R.).

International information on invalidity, old-age and survivors' insurance (for the Latvian Ministry of Social Welfare, the National Fascist Federation of Seamen and Airmen in Italy, the Swiss Federal Social Insurance Office, the Spanish Miners' Federation).

Information on wages, hours of work, etc., in the telephone services in France, Germany, Spain and the United States (for the Federation of Telephone Workers and Employees in Buenos Aires).

Information on the introduction of automatic couplings in Japan (for the Swiss Railwaymen's Federation).

Information on measures for the protection of chemical workers (for the General Federation of Jewish Workers of Tel-Aviv).

Statistics of accidents in mines in the U.S.S.R. (for the German Christian Miners' Union).

PUBLICATIONS

The general plan of the publications of the Office, which remains substantially the same as when it was laid down some ten years ago, underwent no change during the year. As was natural, the economic depression and its concomitant unemployment occupied a prominent place in the two general periodicals of the Office —the monthly *International Labour Review* and the weekly *Industrial and Labour Information*—and also formed the subject of three of the non-periodical *Studies and Reports* (see below). At the same time, there was no relaxation of the effort to maintain that comprehensive character to which the publications as a whole owe not a little of their utility.

Studies and Reports. — The "Studies and Reports" issued in the course of the year included the following:

Series A. — INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

No. 33. *Studies on Industrial Relations.* I. English (275 pp.), French (284 pp.) and German (297 pp.) editions.

Monographs on the relations between employers and workers in five undertakings—the Siemens Works (Germany), the Lens Mining Company (France), the London Traffic Combine (Great Britain), the State Mines of the Saar Basin (Saar Territory) and the Bat'a Boot and Shoe Factory (Czechoslovakia).

No. 34. *General Problems of Conciliation and Arbitration.* German (174 pp.) edition.

This international study of conciliation and arbitration is to be followed by a collection of monographs on the law and practice in separate countries. The monographs will be published as a second volume in German; for the English and French editions they will be combined with the preliminary international survey in a single volume.

Series B. — ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

No. 18. *The Social Aspects of Rationalisation.* English (388 pp.) and French (415 pp.) editions. German edition in preparation.

Brings together and analyses the available data relating to the action and reaction between the rationalisation movement on the one hand and, on the other hand, productivity, hours of work, wages, employment, industrial hygiene, accidents, industrial relations, etc.

Series C. — EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT

No. 15. *Unemployment and Public Works.* English (186 pp.), French (202 pp.) and German (216 pp.) editions.

Embodies the results of researches into the utilisation of public works as a means of counteracting unemployment. An examination of the economic aspects of the advance planning of works is followed by a general survey of the legislative and administrative measures adopted in various countries for advance planning. The administrative and financial problems involved are fully discussed.

No. 16. *Unemployment Problems in 1931.* English (284 pp.), French (302 pp.) and German (319 pp.) editions.

Comprises that part of the Report of the Director to the Fifteenth Session of the International Labour Conference which refers to unemployment, together with the following memoranda submitted to the Unemployment Committee

of the Governing Body in January 1931: "Unemployment and Monetary Fluctuations", by the I.L.O.; "Inequalities in the International Distribution of Capital as a Cause of Unemployment", by Prof. L. A. HAHN; "Disturbances in International Trade and Their Effects on Unemployment", by Prof. M. ANSIAUX; "Population and Unemployment", by Prof. L. HERSCH; "The Effects of Rationalisation on Employment", by the I.L.O.; and "Wages and Employment", by G. D. H. COLE.

No. 17. *Unemployment Problems in the United States.* By H. B. BUTLER, Deputy-Director of the International Labour Office. English (117 pp.), French (130 pp.) and German (138 pp.) editions.

After giving an estimate of the actual extent of unemployment in the United States, the author analyses the causes of that unemployment, including the effects of machinery and rationalisation in industry and agriculture, and goes on to describe the measures taken for the relief of the unemployed and the proposals under consideration for the stabilisation of employment in the future.

Series D. — WAGES AND HOURS OF WORK

No. 19. *Wages and Regulation of Conditions of Labour in the U.S.S.R.* By S. ZAGORSKY. English (220 pp.), French (224 pp.) and German (224 pp.) editions.

The first part of this report deals with the regulation of working conditions, describing the machinery of State regulation, the system of discipline in factories, and the forms of individual and collective contracts. The second part deals with the system of wage regulation and traces the increase in wages from 1924 to 1929. A bibliography is included.

No. 20. *Principles and Methods of Wage Determination in the Coal-Mining Industry.* English (104 pp.), French (108 pp.) and German (115 pp.) editions.

A study intended to facilitate the orderly consideration of possible forms of international action with regard to the fixing and methods of payment of wages in coal mines. It includes a statistical comparison of wages and output in the coal-mining industry in the chief European coal-producing countries for the period 1925-1929.

Series F. — INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE

No. 13. *Silicosis.* English (716 pp.) and French (741 pp.) editions.

Contains the records of the International Conference on Silicosis held in Johannesburg, South Africa, from 13 to 27 August 1930, including the papers presented by experts of various nationalities on different aspects of the disease. Illustrated.

Series F (Second Section). — SAFETY

No. 5. *Safety in the Manufacture and Use of Acetylene.* English (200 pp.), French edition (204 pp.) and German (205 pp.) editions.

Describes the technical processes in the manufacture and use of acetylene and the incidental accident risks, and sets out the legislative and other measures taken in various countries for the prevention of accidents. Illustrated.

Series G. — HOUSING AND WELFARE

No. 3. *Housing Policy in Europe: Cheap Home Building.* English (385 pp.) and French (367 pp.) editions. German edition in preparation.

A general survey of the housing problem in a number of European countries, followed by a series of studies of the situation country by country, in Great Britain, the Netherlands, Sweden, Denmark, Norway, Italy, France, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Austria, Poland and Germany; includes statistical

data as to the need of houses, the financing of construction, and the dwellings built.

Series N. — Statistics

No. 17. — *An International Enquiry into Costs of Living.* English (216 pp.) edition. French and German editions in preparation.

The results of a comparative study of workers' living costs in Detroit (U.S.A.) and in the following European cities: Berlin and Frankfort (Germany), Copenhagen (Denmark), Stockholm (Sweden), Helsinki-Helsingfors (Finland), Paris and Marseilles (France), Antwerp (Belgium), Rotterdam (Netherlands), Manchester (Great Britain), Cork (Irish Free State), Warsaw (Poland), Barcelona (Spain) and Istanbul (Turkey).

Series I. — Employment of Women and Children

No. 2. *Women's Work under Labour Law.* French (270 pp.) edition. English and German editions in preparation.

A general review of special legislation, national and international, for the regulation of women's work, and of the chief problems which such legislation is designed to solve. The provisions dealing with motherhood, hours, night work, dangerous and unhealthy occupations, welfare, wages, etc., are analysed, and, in particular, the legislation relating to the employment of women before and after childbirth is set out in tabular form for ease of comparison.

Series K. — Agriculture

No. 9. *Vocational Education in Agriculture.* German (284 pp.) edition. English and French editions have already been issued.

A survey of the organisation, character, methods, problems and results of vocational agricultural education in thirty-two countries.

Legislative Series. — Volume IX of the " Legislative Series ", comprising laws and regulations promulgated in 1928, was issued in volume form in three parts: Parts I and II, consisting of 1,619 pages, and containing the texts of measures adopted in a large number of countries, and Part III, comprising 187 pages, and forming at the same time an index to the contents of Parts I and II and a general catalogue of the labour legislation of that year. In addition, a considerable number of brochures were published containing the texts of laws and regulations promulgated in 1929 and 1930, which will in due course be reprinted to form Volumes X and XI, respectively, of the Series. This publication is issued in English, French and German editions.

International Survey of Legal Decisions on Labour Law. — The fifth volume of this annual publication, which may be regarded as a complement to the " Legislative Series ", was published early in 1931. It gives, on a carefully arranged plan, the principal judgments on labour questions, delivered by the courts and other competent authorities in England, France, Germany, Italy and the United States, of which authentic records were published in the respective countries during 1919; the decisions and opinions of international courts on questions of labour law are also included n this publication. The sixth volume (1930) was almost completed n the course of 1931, and was due for publication early in 1932.

The *Survey*, like the "Legislative Series" is issued in separate editions in English, French and German.

Occupation and Health. — The publication in two editions (English and French), of this "Encyclopaedia of Hygiene, Pathology and Social Welfare, Studied from the Point of View of Labour, Industry and Trades", was almost accomplished by the end of 1931. The second volume of the French edition, in its final form, was far advanced; the first volume of the English edition had appeared, and the greater part of the articles to be included in the second volume of that edition had been issued in brochure form. It may be remembered that this work has been compiled by the Industrial Hygiene Section of the Office with the aid of a large number of experts in different countries.

The First Decade. — The Office was responsible during the year for the issue of a work outside the regular programme of its publications—a record of the first ten years of international co-operation through the International Labour Organisation. A companion volume to the similar work issued by the Secretariat of the League of Nations, this book contains an ordered description of the origin, structure and functions of the Organisation, its activities, and the results it has achieved. It was written by officials of the Office, and has a preface by the Director. By special arrangements made with publishers, it was possible to issue the book in four editions—English (382 pp.), French (514 pp.), German (508 pp.) and Italian (497 pp.)—and negotiations for the production of a Spanish edition and possibly other editions were in progress at the close of the year.

Sales. — The net receipts from the sale of publications in 1931 amounted to 205,702 Swiss francs, as compared with 221,742 in 1930. This slight decrease (7.3 per cent.) is due not to any general decline in gross sales, in spite of the economic crisis through which the whole world is passing, but to the all-round fall in exchange rates. It is true that with the shrinkage of purchasing power which has taken place in practically every country, there has been some loss of subscriptions for the regular supply of all or some of the publications; but this loss in subscriptions has been more than made up, except in certain countries particularly affected by the depression, by an expansion of the sales of individual publications or collections of publications. Were it not for the widespread depreciation of national currencies in relation to the Swiss franc the receipts expressed in Swiss francs would at least have attained the figure of the previous year. It is worthy of note that in most of the extra-European countries, and especially in the United States, Japan and a number of the countries of Latin America, the income from sales actually showed an appreciable increase.

CHAPTER V

INTERNATIONAL LABOUR LEGISLATION

One of the chief duties of the International Labour Organisation is to draw up and to secure the enforcement of the rules of international labour legislation adopted by the Conference in the form of Draft Conventions and Recommendations (Article 405 of the Treaty).

In the annual *Reports of the Director* to the Conference information is given as to the action taken by States Members between one Session and the next to give effect to the Conventions and Recommendations. The results thus obtained are commented upon and tables are furnished to the Conference showing the situation as regards ratification or putting into force of each Convention and each Recommendation [1].

The present section of this *Yearbook* gives only the results obtained in 1931. Three tables are also inserted, however, at the end of the volume in an Appendix showing the present position in the ratification of the various Conventions. The first shows as fully as possible the position in each country as regards each Convention. The second shows the number of ratifications obtained in respect of each Convention, and the third the number of Conventions ratified by each State Member.

The number of ratifications registered from 1 January to 31 December 1931 was 34. These ratifications were distributed as follows among the various Conventions:

Hours of work: Lithuania. — *Employment of women during the night:* Chile, Lithuania. — *Night work of young persons in industry:* Lithuania. — *Facilities for finding employment for seamen:* Spain. — *Workmen's compensation in agriculture:* Spain. — *Weekly rest in industrial undertakings:* Lithuania, Sweden. — *Minimum age for admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers:* Netherlands. — *Workmen's compensation for accidents:* Chile. — *Workmen's compensation for occupational diseases:* France. — *Equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents:* Chile. — *Simplification of inspection of emigrants on board ship:* Australia, Hungary. — *Seamen's articles of agreement:* Spain, Poland. — *Repatriation of seamen:* Spain, Poland. — *Sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants:* Chile, Great Britain, Lithuania. — *Sickness insurance for agricultural workers:* Chile, Great Britain. — *Creation of minimum wage-fixing machinery:* Australia. — *Marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels:* Australia, China, India, Japan, Luxemburg. — *Protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships:* Luxemburg. — *Forced or compulsory labour:* Great Britain, Irish Free State, Liberia, Sweden.

[1] Cf. *The Director's Report to the Sixteenth Session of the Conference*, pp.3 et seq., and the tables in the Appendices.

These ratifications are distributed by countries as follows:

Australia	3	India	1	Luxemburg	2
Chile	5	Irish Free State	1	Netherlands	1
China	1	Japan	1	Poland	2
France	1	Liberia	1	Spain	4
Great Britain	3	Lithuania	5	Sweden	2
Hungary	1				

Application of Conventions and Recommendations

The procedure for the examination of the annual reports submitted by the Governments on the application of the Conventions ratified by them has continued to develop and to yield valuable results. Each year provides further opportunities for the two Committees which play the chief part in working the procedure (the Committee of Experts on Article 408, appointed by the Governing Body, and the Committee on Article 408 set up by the Conference at each of its Sessions) to make fresh proposals for its improvement on points of detail.

In 1931 the Committee of Experts on Article 408 [1] held a somewhat longer meeting than in previous years (five days) and for the first time discussed the annual reports submitted by the Governments on the basis of separate reports prepared by the different members of the Committee, each of whom assumed the responsibility for considering a particular group of conventions or a particular aspect of their application. The results of this new procedure appeared so satisfactory that the Committee decided to adopt it again in future years.

In order to allow more time for the examination of the reports before the opening of the Conference, the Committee decided to recommend that in future the period covered by each report should be, not the calendar year as in the past, but the year beginning on 1 October and ending on 30 September, so that annual reports might be submitted in the autumn of each year instead of at the beginning of the new year. The Governing Body approved this suggestion at its Fifty-third Session (May-June 1931). In consequence, in order to inaugurate the new system, the annual reports submitted to the Conference in 1932 will cover the period 1 January-30 September 1931.

The Committee also made a number of suggestions for the modification of the forms for annual reports [2].

Both the Committee of Experts and the Committee appointed by the Conference at its Fifteenth Session to examine the annual

[1] For the membership of the Committee, see *supra*, p. 29.

[2] On the basis of these suggestions the Governing Body decided at its Fifty-sixth Session (January 1932) that the report forms should be modified in such a manner as to elicit more detailed information (particularly in the form of summary statistics); and that the request for a general appreciation of the manner in which the Conventions are applied in the different countries, which has hitherto figured separately, and unnumbered, at the end of the forms, should in future be numbered and included in the body of the form.

reports laid particular stress on the importance of securing full and detailed information on the application of the Conventions to colonial areas.

In the *Annual Review* for 1930 it was mentioned that the Governing Body had referred to its Standing Orders Committee two questions raised by the Conference Committee: the question of including the consideration of the annual reports among the items on the formal agenda of each session of the Conference (so that technical advisers might be appointed), and the possibility of improving upon the existing methods for the interpretation of Conventions. The Governing Body has now decided, on the basis of a report from its Standing Orders Committee, that the terms of the Peace Treaties do not permit the consideration of the annual reports to be regarded as items of the formal agenda of the Conference, though it approved the Committee's suggestion that the Office, in sending the Governments the letter of convocation for the Conference, should draw their attention to the fact that the Article 408 reports were to be considered by the Conference and suggest that account should be taken of this fact in the appointment of advisers. The complex and difficult question of the procedure for interpreting Conventions is still under consideration.

In pursuance of suggestions put forward on various occasions both by individual delegates to the Conference and by the Conference Committee on Article 408, the Office has, with the approval of the Governing Body, instituted a new procedure for the purpose of keeping the Conference informed as to the effects of the Recommendations. In December 1931 it sent out to the Governments concerned brief analyses of information officially communicated to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations concerning the action taken on the different Recommendations in accordance with Article 405 (6) of the Treaty of Versailles and the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace, with a request that these analyses should be checked and, where necessary, completed. It is intended to communicate the analyses, as revised by the Governments, in the form of an appendix to the Director's Report to the Conference. If the Recommendations are to produce their full results, it is clearly important that some such means should be devised for enabling a regular survey to be taken of their positive effects.

Commissions of Enquiry and Assessors for Labour Cases

In June 1931 the Office despatched letters to the Governments concerned asking them whether the nominations previously communicated for the panel provided for by Article 412 of the Treaty of Versailles and the corresponding Articles of the other Treaties of Peace were still to be considered as valid, and, if not, what names the Governments desired to substitute for any nominations that might have become absolete. In reply to these letters the following fresh nominations were communicated to the Office and

approved by the Governing Body at its Fifty-fifth Session (October 1931):

Austria

Person of independent standing: Dr. Franz WLCEK, Chief of Section in the Ministry of Social Welfare.
Representative of the employers: Dr. Siegfried CAMUZZI, General Secretary of the Employers' Section of the Austrian Central Industrial Federation.

Belgium

Person of independent standing: Mr. Hector MAVAUT, Secretary-General of the Ministry of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare.
Representative of workers: Mr. Joseph BONDAS, Assistant Secretary of the Belgian Trade Union Committee.

Finland

Representative of workers: Mr. Edward HUTTUNEN.

Luxemburg

Representative of employers: Mr. Paul WEBER, Legal Adviser to the Chamber of Commerce.
Representative of workers: Mr. Barthélémy BARBEL, President of the Chamber of Labour.

Rumania

Person of independent standing: Mr. I. SETLACEC, Permanent Adviser to the Legislative Council, ex-Director-General of Labour.
Representative of employers: Mr. Teodor FICSINESCU, engineer, Professor at the Polytechnic School, and General Manager of the "Colombia" Oil Company.
Representative of workers: Mr. Eftimie GHERMAN, Deputy, General Secretary of the Rumanian Miners' Union.

Spain

Persons of independent standing: Dr. José SANCHIS BANUS.
Representative of employers: Mr. Francisco JUNOY Y RABAT.

Switzerland

Person of independent standing: Mr. Hans PFISTER, Director of the "Société suisse pour l'assurance du Mobilier", ex-Director of the Federal Office for Industry, Arts and Crafts, and Labour.
Representative of employers: Dr. O. BUSCH, Director of Brown, Boveri and Co., Baden.

The following fresh nominations were approved by the Governing Body at its Fifty-sixth Session (January 1932):

Austria

Representative of workers: Mr. Hermann HEINDL, Secretary of the Vienna Chamber of Workers and Employees.

Hungary

Representative of employers: Dr. Alex. KNOB, Director of the General Association of Hungarian Manufacturers.
Representative of workers: Mr. Charles PEYER, former Minister, member of the Chamber of Deputies.

India

Person of independent standing: Sir Bhupendra Nath MITRA, High Commissioner for India in London.

SECOND PART

THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT

CHAPTER I

THE ECONOMIC SITUATION

Any survey of the "social movement" should logically begin with a survey of the economic situation during the period under review. In 1931 the economic situation was dominated by the industrial depression, the effects of which are to be seen in all directions—prices, currency, finance, production, international trade, income and industrial organisation [1].

I. — Movement of Prices

1. *General Wholesale Prices*

As appears from the table on page 114, general wholesale price index numbers have shown a constant tendency to fall since the end of 1930 in those countries maintaining a gold standard, although this tendency was counterbalanced in a number of countries by the currency depreciation, which took place in most of them in the autumn of 1931. Of the thirty-five countries which publish general wholesale price index numbers, these numbers rose between December 1930 and September 1931 in Peru (0.6 per cent.), in Austria (0.9 per cent.), in Spain (1.7 per cent.), in Hungary (6.7 per cent.) and in China (13.7 per cent.), and fell from 0.5 to 10 per cent. in nineteen countries (Chile, Australia, Albania, South Africa, Czechoslovakia, Argentina, Latvia, Estonia, New Zealand, Japan, Bulgaria, Germany, Finland, Yugoslavia, Sweden, United Kingdom, India, Denmark, Switzerland), from 10 to 15 per cent. in ten countries (Canada, Norway, Danzig, Egypt, Italy, Poland,

[1] In the following tables use has been made as far as possible of data published in the *International Statistical Year Book*, the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* of the League of Nations, and in the *International Labour Review*. The selection of the data and the method of grouping them and combining them with data from other sources, which are mentioned in each case, are determined by the special objects of this survey, which is intended to illustrate the economic situation during the year in its relation to labour problems.

INDEX NUMBER OF WHOLESALE PRICES

(Base: 1913 = 100)

Country	South Africa	Germany	Australia: Melbourne	Austria	Belgium*	Canada	Egypt	Spain	United States	France *
Source	Official	Official	Official	Official	Official	Official	Official	Official	Bureau of Labor Statistics	Official
Average 1913	100	100	100	100 [1]	100 [1]	100	100 [1]	100	100	100
1924	129	137	173	136	573	155	143	183	141	486
1925	128	142	170	136	559	160	152	188	148	547
1926	123	134	168	123	744	156	132	181	143	697
1927	124	138	167	133	847	153	121	172	137	618
1928	120	140	165	130	843	151	120	167	140	619
1929	116	137	166	130	851	149	116	171	138	611
1930	103	125	147	117	744	135	103	172	124	536
1931	100	111	131	109	626	113	96	174	102	455
1930 III	104 [2]	126	151	121	774	144	101	173	130	553
VI	100	125	152	121	750	138	100	166	124	533
IX	100	123	141	115	712	129	104	174	121	524
XII	102	118	129	107	679	122	102	175	112	488
1931 III	99	114	134	107	660	117	105	174	107	482
VI	98	112	131	110	642	113	97	170	100	467
IX	99	109	128	108	597	109	91	178	99	428
XII	96	104	131	112	573	110	91	177	95	404

Country	India: Calcutta	Italy *	Japan	Netherlands	Poland	United Kingdom	U.S.S.R.	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia *
Source	Official	Consiglio provinciale del l'economica di Milano	Bank of Japan	Official	Official	Board of Trade	Official	Official	Official	Official
Average 1913	100 [1]	100	100	100	100 [1] [3]	100	100 [4]	100	100 [1]	100
1924	173	554	206	156	110	166	174	162	171	998
1925	160	646	202	155	125	159	182	161	161	1,004
1926	149	654	179	145	181	148	185	149	145	955
1927	148	527	170	148	119	142	174	146	142	979
1928	145	491	171	149	120	140	173	148	145	977
1929	141	481	166	142	113	137	180	140	141	919
1930	117	411	137	117	98	120	187 [5]	122	127	806
1931	96	342	116	97	84	104	—	111	110	735
1930 III	125	436	148	122	101	125	187	125	131	828
VI	116	412	137	118	99	121	189	123	126	819
IX	111	398	130	112	94	116	187	119	123	775
XII	100	369	122	107	90	109	188 [6]	117	117	752
1931 III	100	356	120	103	86	106	—	113	114	756
VI	93	339	114	100	87	103	—	110	110	767
IX	91	330	113	91	80	99	—	107	106	715
XII	98	320	114	85	79	106	—	111	103	700

* The index numbers calculated on the basis of the gold value of the present currency unit are as follows: For Belgium: 1927, 123; 1928, 122; 1929, 124; 1930, 108 and 1931, 90. For France: 1928, 126; 1929, 124; 1930, 109 and 1931, 92. For Italy: 1927, 134; 1928, 131; 1930, 112 and 1931, 92. For Czechoslovakia: 1929, 134; 1930, 118 and 1931, 108.

[1] 1914. [2] Average of the following month. [3] Since 1926 new series; since 1927, new zloty prices. [4] Until end 1926, " Gosplan ". [5] Average for 11 months. [6] November.

United States, France, Belgium, the Netherlands), and by 21.4 per cent. in one country (Dutch East Indies).

From September to December there was a rise of from 0.4 to 5 per cent. in eleven countries (Canada, Bulgaria, New Zealand, Japan, Albania, Australia, Chile, Hungary, Austria, Sweden, Norway), from 5 to 9.2 per cent. in four countries (United Kingdom, Argentina, India, Denmark), and of 16.5 per cent. in one country (Finland); there was no change in one country (Egypt), while index numbers fell from 0.6 to 5 per cent. in eleven countries (Spain, Poland, Czechoslovakia, South Africa, Italy, Peru, Switzerland, United States, Belgium, Germany, Danzig), from 5 to 6.6 per cent. in six countries (Latvia, France, Estonia, China, Yugoslavia, the Netherlands).

In the case of five countries for which comparisons of retail prices are made on page 119 (Germany, United States, France, Italy, United Kingdom), the following falls took place between December 1930 and December 1931: Germany, 12 per cent.; United States, 15.4 per cent.; France, 17.1 per cent.; Italy, 17.9 per cent.; United Kingdom, 2.8 per cent.

For the last-named country the fall was 8.9 per cent. between December 1930 and September 1931, but between September and December 1931 there was an increase of 6.7 per cent.

2. *Wholesale Prices of the Principal Groups of Commodities*

The table on page 116 contains information in the case of four countries (Germany, United States, France, United Kingdom) on wholesale price movements of the principal groups of commodities.

The figures given for two countries (Germany and the United States) enable a comparison to be made between the movements of manufactured products and those of other categories of commodities. It will be seen that in Germany, from December 1930 to December 1931, there has been a fall of 17.3 per cent. for agricultural produce, 11.8 per cent. for raw materials and semi-manufactured articles, and 9.1 per cent. for manufactured articles. In the United States, from December 1930 to November 1931, there was a fall of 21.9 per cent. for farm produce, 16.7 per cent. for raw materials, 14 per cent. for semi-manufactured articles and 11 per cent. for finished products.

3. *Wholesale Prices of Certain Products*

The table on page 117 gives information on prices of certain important products.

As the prices of a certain number of these products are quoted in British currency, the comparison is confined to the period between December 1930 and September 1931, so as to avoid the effects of the depreciation of that currency. From December 1930 to September 1931, the following falls occurred: pig iron (London), 8.3 per cent.; copper (London), 33.3 per cent.; lead (London),

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL GROUPS OF COMMODITIES

(Base: 1913 = 100)

Country	Germany				United States					
Group of commodities	Agricultural products	Raw materials and semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured articles	General index	Farm products	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Finished products	Non agricultural commodities	All commodities
Number of commodities	40	120	230	400	—	108	62	380	—	550
Average 1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1924	120	142	156	137	140	142	109	139	141	141
1925	133	141	157	142	154	155	141	145	147	148
1926	129	130	150	134	140	145	134	144	145	143
1927	138	132	147	138	139	140	129	136	137	137
1928	134	134	159	140	148	144	130	140	138	140
1929	130	132	157	137	147	142	129	139	137	138
1930	113	120	150	125	124	122	110	127	125	123
1931	96	102	136	111	92 [1]	96 [1]	92	109	106 [1]	103 [1]
1930 III	110	126	153	126	132	130	121	133	130	130
VI	110	122	151	125	124	123	110	128	125	124
IX	114	116	148	123	119	119	102	125	121	121
XII	110	110	143	118	105	108	100	118	115	112
1931 III	99	106	139	114	99	101	96	113	109	107
VI	95	103	137	112	91	94	92	107	103	100
IX	94	100	135	109	85	91	89	107	104	99
XII	91	97	130	104	82 [2]	90 [2]	86 [2]	105 [2]	103 [2]	98 [2]

Country	France *				United Kingdom			
Group of commodities	Foodstuffs		Industrial products	General index	Cereals	Total foods	Total not foods	All articles
	Vegetables	Total						
Number of commodities	8	20	25	45	17	53	97	150
Average 1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1924	432	451	520	491	160	166	166	166
1925	502	488	601	553	164	167	155	159
1926	672	631	762	706	150	155	144	148
1927	615	595	636	620	153	152	136	141
1928	611	598	640	623	149	152	134	140
1929	575	596	624	614	138	145	132	137
1930	471	538	529	535	109	127	116	120
1931	468	513	481	417	90	112	100	104
1930 III	427	534	569	556	114	129	122	125
VI	457	528	538	535	111	127	117	121
IX	506	548	506	527	105	124	111	116
XII	487	535	450	490	92	116	105	109
1931 III	543	547	429	485	87	111	103	106
VI	543	539	410	470	87	113	98	103
IX	459	491	377	430	85	108	95	99
XII	481	472	351	407	101	113	102	106

* The index numbers calculated on the basis of the gold value of the present currency are as follows:

Year	Vegetables	Total foods	Industrial products	General index
1928	124	121	130	127
1929	117	121	127	125
1930	96	109	107	109
1931	95	104	98	85

[1] Average for 11 months. [2] November.

SOURCES:

Germany: STATISTISCHES REICHSAMT: *Statistisches Jahrbuch für das Deutsche Reich.* — *Wirtschaft und Statistik.* Berlin.

United States: U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOUR: *Monthly Labour Review.* Washington.

France: MINISTÈRE DU TRAVAIL, DE L'HYGIÈNE, DE L'ASSISTANCE ET DE LA PRÉVOYANCE SOCIALE: *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de la France et du Service d'observation des prix.* Paris.

United Kingdom: BOARD OF TRADE: *Board of Trade Journal and Commercial Gazette.* H. M. Stationery Office, London.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF CERTAIN IMPORTANT PRODUCTS

(Base: 1913 = 100)

Product	Hard coal (London) Yorkshire	Cast iron (London) Cleveland No. 3	Copper (London) Standard	Lead (London) Soft foreign	Zinc (London) Ordinary brands	Aluminium (Berlin)	Tin (London) Standard	Crude petroleum (Pennsylvania) at wells	Rubber (London) Standard crêpe	Cotton (London) Middling American	Wool (London) Victoria with suint	Wheat (Winnipeg) No. 1 Manitoba Northern	Refined sugar (London) Law centrifugals 96 % Pol.[1]	Coffee (New York) Rio No. 7	Shipping freights in U.K. trade [2]
Average 1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1924	151	151	92	184	148	132	124	134	37	218	200	145	198	151	113
1925	108	125	91	196	160	140	130	141	97	232	236	187	114	183	102
1926	121	149	85	170	150	135	144	143	66	180	198	170	114	164	110
1927	100	126	81	132	126	124	143	119	52	135	204	168	128	133	110
1928	95	113	93	115	111	116	113	127	30	155	204	153	108	149	99
1929	105	120	110	127	109	112	101	149	28	148	155	152	84	141	97
1930	93	115	80	99	73	109	70	98	16	107	106	107	61	79	79
1931	97	100	56	71	54	100	59	72	8	73	82	67	58	56	80
1930:															
III	95	121	99	103	81	112	82	112	21	118	104	121	68	93	76
VI	90	116	73	98	72	112	68	92	17	112	108	117	61	84	76
IX	90	109	68	98	69	112	66	94	12	88	102	89	50	65	84
XII	93	109	69	84	61	100	55	76	12	78	86	63	57	63	82
1931:															
III	99	100	66	72	54	100	61	76	10	82	84	64	57	51	81
VI	95	100	53	63	50	100	52	63	8	69	82	69	59	61	78
IX	97	100	46	65	51	100	59	77	7	56	76	61	54	51	75
XII	94	100	56	83	63	100	69	77	9	74	82	69	62	63	82

[1] Free of duty.
[2] *The Economist*, London.
SOURCE: Data published by the INTERNATIONAL STATISTICAL INSTITUTE: *Monthly Bulletin*, The Hague.

22.6 per cent.; zinc (London), 16.4 per cent.; rubber (London), 41.7 per cent.; cotton (London), 28.2 per cent.; wool (London), 11.6 per cent.; raw silk [1] (New York), 4.5 per cent.; artificial silk [1] (Krefeld), 15 per cent.; wheat (Winnipeg), 3.2 per cent.; refined sugar (London), 5.2 per cent.; coffee (New York), 19 per cent.; cocoa [1] (London), 30.3 per cent.; shipping freights (United Kingdom), 8.5 per cent. On the other hand, there was an increase in coal (London), 4.3 per cent.; tin (London), 7.3 per cent.; crude petroleum (Pennsylvania), 1.3 per cent.; jute [1] (London), 4.1 per cent.; while prices remained constant for aluminium (Berlin).

[1] These commodities are not included in the table.

In September 1931 the 1913 level was not exceeded for any of these products. In the case of two commodities, viz. pig iron and aluminium, the 1913 price was again reached, while in the case of all the others the prices were lower than in that year: 3 per cent. for coal, 23 per cent. for crude petroleum, 24 per cent. for wool, 25 per cent. for shipping freights, 35 per cent. for lead, 39 per cent. for wheat, 41 per cent. for tin, 44 per cent. for cotton, 46 per cent. for refined sugar, 49 per cent. for zinc, 49 per cent. for coffee, 54 per cent. for copper, and 93 per cent. for rubber.

4. *Retail Prices (Foodstuffs, Clothing, Heating and Lighting) and House Rents*

The table on page 119 shows the movement in five countries (Germany, United States, France, Italy, United Kingdom) of retail prices (foodstuffs, clothing, heating and lighting) and house rents.

It is interesting to compare for the same period (end of 1930 and end of 1931) the movements in the prices of the different commodities included in this table—and those of the cost of living[1] which result therefrom—with the general wholesale price movements given earlier (page 116). The following figures are obtained in this way: Germany: wholesale prices, — 11.9 per cent.; foodstuffs, — 11.1 per cent.; clothing, — 14 per cent.; heating and lighting, — 1.3 per cent.; house rent, + 0.8 per cent.; cost of living, — 8.5 per cent. United States: wholesale prices, — 15.2 per cent.; foodstuffs, — 16.8 per cent.; clothing, — 11.1 per cent.; heating and lighting, — 4 per cent.; rent, — 7.5 per cent.; cost of living, — 9.3 per cent. France: wholesale prices, — 17.1 per cent.; foodstuffs, — 14.5 per cent.; clothing, — 16.7 per cent.; heating and lighting, — 2.2 per cent.; rent, + 2.9 per cent.; cost of living, — 11.2 per cent. Italy: wholesale prices, — 11.7 per cent.; foodstuffs, — 12.4 per cent.; clothing, — 11.8 per cent.[2]; heating and lighting, — 7.2 per cent.[2]; rent, + 14.7 per cent.[2]; cost of living, — 6.8 per cent.[2] United Kingdom:[3] wholesale prices, — 2.8 per cent.; foodstuffs, — 5.1 per cent.; clothing, — 7.3 per cent.[3]; heating and lighting, no change; rent, no change; cost of living, — 3.9 per cent.

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[1] Cf. *infra*, the Chapter entitled "Wages".
[2] November.
[3] Figures affected by currency depreciation.

INDEX NUMBERS OF PRICES OF FOODSTUFFS, CLOTHING, HEATING AND LIGHTING, AND RENT

(Base: Pre-War = 100)

	Foodstuffs					Clothing				
Country	Germany	United States	France *	Italy *	United Kingdom	Germany	United States [1]	France *	Italy *	United Kingdom
Towns and localities	72	51	Paris	Milan	630	72	32	Paris	Milan	630
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1926	145	157	554	655	163	164	168	588	700	221
1927	152	152	557	559	159	159	165	569	638	214
1928	152	151	546	517	157	170	163	586	570	219
1929	155	153	611	543	154	172	161	602	554	218
1930	143	144	614	519	143	164	159	622	512	211
1931	128	121	611	453 [3]	130	139	146	535 [2]	427 [3]	195
1930 III	145	147	591	527	143	169	—	626	549	213
VI	143	145	593	523	141	167	159	626	509	213
IX	142	142	637	504	143	161	—	626	509	208
XII	135	137	649	499	138	150	153	610	448	205
1931 III	130	126	647	465	129	143	—	554	448	200
VI	131	118	632	458	130	140	146	552	421	195
IX	125	119	588	438	128	136	—	526	421	190
XII	120	114	555	437 [4]	131	129	136	508	395 [4]	190

	Heating and lighting					Rent				
Country	Germany	United States [1]	France *	Italy *	United Kingdom	Germany	United States [1]	France *	Italy *	United Kingdom
Towns and localities	72	32	Paris	Milan	630	72	32	Paris	Milan	630
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1926	142	181	504	523	208	100	165	243	517	149
1927	144	181	550	578	179	115	162	265	519	151
1928	147	177	519	408	169	126	158	288	402	151
1929	151	175	561	429	172	126	154	325	409	153
1930	152	173	622	467	173	128	150	350	416	153
1931	148	165	614 [2]	426 [3]	174	132	142	355 [2]	471 [3]	154
1930 III	154	—	633	453	175	127	—	350	410	152
VI	149	173	607	473	170	130	150	350	410	153
IX	152	—	615	477	173	131	—	350	422	153
XII	151	175	633	457	175	131	147	350	422	154
1931 III	150	—	633	424	175	132	—	350	475	154
VI	145	165	596	424	170	132	142	350	473	154
IX	147	—	609	424	175	132	—	360	477	154
XII	149	168	619	424 [4]	175	132	136	360	483 [4]	154

* The index numbers calculated on the basis of the gold value of the present currency are as follows:

	Foodstuffs		Clothing		Heating and lighting		Rent	
	France	Italy	France	Italy	France	Italy	France	Italy
1928	111	141	119	155	105	111	58	110
1929	124	148	122	151	114	117	66	112
1930	125	142	126	140	126	127	71	113
1931	124	122 [3]	119	115 [3]	125	115 [3]	72	127 [3]

[1] Month of June. [2] Quarterly averages. [3] Average for eleven months. [4] November.

II. — Monetary Position

1. *Gold*

(a) *Production.* — According to estimates, the world output in gold in 1931 rose by 4.5 per cent. in comparison with 1930. The annual figures since 1914 are as follows:

WORLD PRODUCTION OF GOLD (IN MILLIONS OF FINE OUNCES)

1914	21.3	1920	16.1	1926	19.4
1915	22.8	1921	16.0	1927	19.4
1916	22.0	1922	15.5	1928	19.7
1917	20.4	1923	17.8	1929	19.5
1918	18.6	1924	19.0	1930	20.2
1919	17.7	1925	19.0	1931	21.1

(b) *Movement of reserves of central banks.* — The table on page 121 shows the movement of the gold reserves of the central banks in different countries and for a group of forty-five countries, including in some cases the reserves of the Treasuries.

From the end of 1930 to the end of 1931 there was an increase of 229.2 per cent. for Switzerland [1], 108.2 per cent. for the Netherlands [1], 85.8 per cent. for Belgium [1], 28.5 per cent. for France and British India [1], 6.2 per cent. for Italy, and a decrease of 55.6 per cent. for Germany, 41.8 per cent for Japan, 38.9 per cent. for Argentina, 31.8 per cent. for Australia [1], 26.3 per cent. for Canada [1], 18.2 per cent. for the United Kingdom, 7.9 per cent. for Spain, and 4.1 per cent. for the United States.

For the forty-five countries the 1931 figures show an increase of 335 million dollars, or 3.1 per cent., over those for 1930 (as against 610 million dollars or 5.9 per cent. from the end of 1929 to the end of 1930).

(c) *International distribution of reserves.* — Important changes took place in 1931 in the international distribution of gold reserves. This is shown in a table on page 122, which contains data for different countries expressed in the same currency (dollars) and the percentages for each country as compared with the total of the forty-five countries.

From the end of 1930 to the end of September 1931 the ratio of the single countries to the total figure has increased from 38.7 to 38.8 per cent. in the United States, from 19.2 to 20.7 per cent. in France, from 1.8 to 3.1 per cent. in Belgium [1], from 1.6 to 2.5 per cent. in the Netherlands [1], from 1.3 to 2.9 per cent. in Switzerland [1], and has decreased from 6.6 to 5.8 per cent. in the United Kingdom,

[1] Countries not included in the table.

MOVEMENT OF GOLD RESERVES

(In Millions)

(Base of Index Numbers: 1913 = 100)

Country	Germany		Argentina		Spain		United States[1]		France		Italy		Japan		United Kingdom		Total of 44 or 45 countries [1]	
	Reichsbank		Conversion Office and Bank		Bank of Spain [2]		Federal Reserve Banks and Treasury		Bank of France and other banks [2]		Bank of Italy [2 3]		Bank of Japan and Treasury [2]		Bank of England			
Currency unit	Reichsmarks	*Index numbers*	Gold pesos	*Index numbers*	Pesetas	*Index numbers*	$	*Index numbers*	Francs	*Index numbers*	Lira	*Index numbers*	Yen	*Index numbers*	£	*Index numbers*	$	*Index numbers*
Gold parity *	4.20 mks. = $1		1.04 peso oro = $1		5.18 pesetas = $1		—		25.52 fr. = $1 [4]		19 lire = $1 [5]		2.006 yen = $1		49.32d. = $1		—	
End of:																		
1913	1,170	*100*	265.0	*100*	480	*100*	1,290	*100*	17,323	*100*	5,472	*100*	130	*100*	35.0	*100*	4,932	*100*
1924	760	*65*	460.3	*174*	2,535	*528*	4,090	*317*	18,128	*105*	4,198	*77*	1,175	*904*	128.6	*367*	8,933	*181*
1925	1,208	*103*	467.2	*176*	2,537	*529*	3,985	*309*	18,142	*105*	4,207	*77*	1,155	*889*	144.6	*413*	8,926	*181*
1926	1,831	*156*	467.2	*176*	2,557	*533*	4,083	*317*	18,146	*105*	4,245	*78*	1,127	*867*	151.1	*432*	9,191	*186*
1927	1,865	*159*	548.9	*207*	2,604	*543*	3,977	*308*	18,126	*105*	4,547	*83*	1,087	*836*	152.4	*435*	9,546	*194*
1928	2,729	*233*	629.8	*238*	2,559	*533*	3,746	*290*	31,838	*185*	5,052	*92*	1,085	*835*	153.3	*438*	10,010	*203*
1929	2,283	*195*	450.1	*170*	2,566	*535*	3,900	*302*	41,668	*241*	5,190	*95*	1,087	*836*	146.1	*417*	10,297	*209*
1930	2,216	*189*	427.3	*161*	2,439	*508*	4,225	*328*	53,578	*309*	5,297	*97*	826	*635*	148.3	*424*	10,907	*221*
1931	984	*84*	261.0	*99*	2,247	*468*	4,051	*314*	68,863	*398*	5,626	*103*	481 [6]	*370*	121.3	*347*	11,242[7]	*228*
1930 III	2,496	*213*	449.5	*169*	2,468	*514*	4,061	*315*	42,557	*246*	5,202	*95*	909	*699*	157.1	*449*	10,507	*218*
VI	2,619	*224*	449.5	*169*	2,471	*515*	4,178	*324*	44,052	*254*	5,208	*95*	871	*670*	157.2	*449*	10,671	*216*
IX	2,478	*212*	449.5	*169*	2,475	*516*	4,159	*322*	48,431	*280*	5,291	*97*	865	*665*	156.8	*448*	10,823	*219*
XII	2,216	*189*	427.3	*161*	2,439	*508*	4,225	*328*	53,578	*309*	5,297	*97*	826	*635*	148.3	*424*	10,907	*221*
1931 III	2,323	*199*	391.8	*148*	2,420	*504*	4,343	*337*	56,116	*324*	5,311	*97*	833	*641*	144.5	*413*	11,071	*224*
VI	1,421	*121*	326.3	*123*	2,426	*505*	4,593	*356*	56,426	*326*	5,368	*98*	852	*655*	164.0	*469*	11,264	*228*
IX	1,301	*111*	283.3	*107*	2,277	*474*	4,364	*338*	59,346	*343*	5,445	*100*	818	*629*	136.1	*389*	11,260	*228*
XII	984	*84*	261.0	—	2,247	*468*	4,051	*314*	68,863	*398*	5,626	*103*	481	*370*	121.3	*347*	11,242[7]	*228*

* Expressed in cents.

[1] FEDERAL RESERVE BOARD: *Federal Reserve Bulletin*. As from December 1929, total of 45 countries by inclusion of Bolivia. At that date, the total of 44 countries was 10,294 million dollars; in March 1930 it was 10,506 million dollars. — [2] Gold in the country. — [3] Up to 1926 the figures referred to three banks of issue and the Treasury. — [4] Parity established by Act of 25 June 1928 (1 old francs = 4.925 new francs). — [5] Parity established by Act of 26 Feb. 1928 (1 old lira = 3.66 new lire). — [6] Not including State reserves deposited with the Bank. — [7] Provisional figure.

GOLD RESERVES IN CERTAIN COUNTRIES AND TOTALS FOR A GROUP OF FORTY-FOUR COUNTRIES: DATA FOR EACH COUNTRY AS A PERCENTAGE OF THE TOTAL FOR THE FORTY-FOUR COUNTRIES

(In Millions)

Country	Germany		Argentina		Spain		United States		France		Italy		Japan		United Kingdom		Total of 44 or 45 countries [1]	
	Reichsbank		Conversion Office and National Bank		Bank of Spain		Treasury and Federal Reserve Banks		Bank of France		Bank of Italy		Bank of Japan and Treasury		Bank of England			
	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%	$	%
End of:																		
1913	279	*5.7*	256	*5.2*	93	*1.9*	1,290	*26.2*	679	*13.8*	265	*5.4*	65	*1.3*	170	*3.4*	4,932	*100*
1924	181	*2.0*	444	*5.0*	489	*5.5*	4,090	*45.8*	710	*7.9*	218	*2.4*	586	*6.6*	757	*8.5*	8,933	*100*
1925	288	*3.2*	451	*5.1*	490	*5.5*	3,985	*44.6*	711	*8.0*	219	*2.5*	576	*6.5*	703	*7.9*	8,926	*100*
1926	436	*4.7*	451	*4.9*	493	*5.4*	4,083	*44.4*	711	*7.7*	221	*2.4*	562	*6.1*	735	*8.0*	9,191	*100*
1927	444	*4.7*	529	*5.5*	502	*5.3*	3,977	*41.7*	710	*7.4*	239	*2.5*	542	*5.7*	742	*7.8*	9,546	*100*
1928	650	*6.5*	607	*6.1*	494	*4.9*	3,746	*37.4*	1,254	*12.5*	266	*2.7*	541	*5.4*	748	*7.5*	10,010	*100*
1929	544	*5.3*	434	*4.2*	495	*4.8*	3,900	*37.9*	1,633	*15.9*	273	*2.7*	542	*5.3*	710	*6.9*	10,297	*100*
1930	528	*4.8*	412	*3.8*	471	*4.3*	4,225	*38.7*	2,100	*19.2*	279	*2.6*	412	*3.8*	718	*6.6*	10,907	*100*
1931	234	*2.1*	253 [2]	*2.3*	434	*3.9*	4,051	*36.0*	2,699	*24.0*	296 [2]	*2.6*	234	*2.1*	588	*5.2*	11,242 [2]	*100*
1930 III	595	*5.7*	445	*4.2*	476	*4.5*	4,061	*38.7*	1,668	*15.9*	274	*2.6*	453	*4.3*	755	*7.3*	10,507	*100*
VI	624	*5.8*	440	*4.1*	477	*4.5*	4,178	*39.1*	1,727	*16.2*	274	*2.6*	434	*4.1*	763	*7.2*	10,671	*100*
IX	590	*5.4*	434	*4.0*	478	*4.4*	4,159	*38.4*	1,899	*17.5*	278	*2.6*	431	*4.0*	761	*7.0*	10,823	*100*
XII	528	*4.8*	412	*3.8*	471	*4.3*	4,225	*38.7*	2,100	*19.2*	279	*2.6*	412	*3.8*	718	*6.6*	10,907	*100*
1931 III	553	*5.5*	378	*3.4*	467	*4.2*	4,343	*39.2*	2,200	*19.9*	279	*2.5*	415	*3.7*	699	*6.3*	11,071	*100*
VI	339	*3.0*	350	*3.1*	468	*4.2*	4,593	*40.8*	2,212	*19.6*	282	*2.5*	425	*3.8*	793	*7.0*	11,264	*100*
IX	310	*2.8*	281	*2.5*	439	*3.9*	4,364	*38.7*	2,326	*20.7*	286	*2.5*	408	*3.6*	656	*5.8*	11,260	*100*
XII	234	*2.1*	253	*2.3*	403	*3.9*	4,051	*36.0*	2,699	*24.0*	296 [2]	*2.6*	234	*2.1*	588	*5.2*	11,242 [2]	*100*

[1] Since December 1929, a group of 45 countries, Bolivia being added. The total for the 44 countries at that date was 10,294 million dollars; in March 1930 it was 10,506 million dollars.

[2] Provisional figures.

SOURCE: *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, Jan., April, June 1930 and Jan. and March 1931.

from 4.8 to 2.8 per cent. in Germany, from 4.3 to 3.9 per cent. in Spain, from 3.8 to 3.6 per cent. in Japan, from 3.8 to 2.5 per cent. in Argentina, from 2.6 to 2.5 per cent. in Italy, from 1 to 0.7 per cent. in Canada [1], and from 0.7 to 0.5 per cent. in Australia [1].

Further changes occurred during the last quarter when the ratio of the single countries to the total figure became 36 per cent. in the United States, 24 per cent. in France, 5.2 per cent. in the United Kingdom, 4 per cent. in Switzerland [1], 3.9 per cent. in Spain, 3.2 per cent. in the Netherlands [1], 3.1 per cent. in Belgium [1], 2.6 per cent. in Italy, 2.3 per cent. in Argentina, 2.1 per cent. in Germany, 2.1 per cent. in Japan, 0.7 per cent. in Canada [1], and 0.5 per cent. in Australia [1].

2. *Silver*

The price of silver in 1931 has not undergone violent fluctuations. It was quoted in New York during the greater part of the year at between 26 and 30 cents. per fine ounce. A rapid rise in prices, due mainly to speculation, the Sino-Japanese dispute and the movement to promote the use of silver for monetary purposes, took place during the month of November. Prices rose in a period of ten days to 37 3/4 cents. per fine ounce. During October sales they even reached 41 cents. But a reaction set in and prices ultimately became stable at about 30 cents.

The output of silver fell considerably in 1931, being estimated at 190-200 million fine ounces as compared with 244 million in 1930 and 262 million in 1929. This represents a fall of 18 to 22 per cent. as compared with 1930 and of 23.7 to 27.5 per cent. in relation to 1929.

The use of silver in China fell considerably in comparison with the previous year while Indian imports of that metal decreased as a result of the successive increases in customs tariffs.

3. *Note Circulation*

The table on page 124 shows data concerning notes in circulation in different countries in 1913 and from 1924 to 1931.

From the end of 1930 to the end of 1931 there has been an increase of 51.5 per cent. in Switzerland [1], 21 per cent. in the Netherlands [1], 17.9 per cent. in the United States, 13.7 per cent. in Australia [1], 12.2 per cent. in France, 11.2 per cent. in British India [1], 11.1 per cent. in Belgium [1], 4.8 per cent in Spain, and a decrease of 10.4 per cent. in Japan, 8.8 per cent. in Italy, 1.2 per cent. in Argentina [1], 1.2 per cent. in the United Kingdom and 0.6 per cent. in Canada [1]. There has been no appreciable change in Germany (—0.04 per cent. and 0.05 per cent.).

[1] Countries not included in the table.

NOTES IN CIRCULATION

(In Millions)

(Base of Index Numbers: 1913 = 100)

Country	Germany				Argentina		Spain		United States [2]		France		Italy		Japan		United Kingdom		Total of 43 countries	
	Reichsbank		Reichsbank and Rentenbank [1]		State notes		Notes of the Bank of Spain		Bank notes, States notes and certificates		Notes of the Bank of France		Bank and State notes		Bank notes		Bank and State notes			
Currency Unit	Marks or RM.	*Index numbers*	Reichsmarks	*Index numbers*	Pesos	*Index numbers*	Pesetas	*Index numbers*	$	*Index numbers*	Francs	*Index numbers*	Lire	*Index numbers*	Yen	*Index numbers*	£	*Index numbers*	$	*Index numbers*
End of:															[3]					
1913	2,593	*100*	2,870	*100*	823	*100*	1,931	*100*	2,575	*100*	5,714 28,141 [4]	*100*	2,783 10,202 [4]	*100*	426	*100*	34.6	*100*	9,131	*100*
1924	1,941	*75*	3,891	*136*	1,320	*160*	4,547	*236*	4,214	*164*	40,604	*144*	20,514	*201*	1,662	*390*	403.9	*1,167*	16,624	*182*
1925	2,960	*114*	4,599	*160*	1,320	*160*	4,440	*230*	4,256	*165*	49,993	*178*	21,450	*210*	1,632	*383*	391.4	*1,131*	16,888	*185*
1926	3,736	*144*	5,050	*176*	1,320	*160*	4,339	*225*	4,245	*165*	52,449	*186*	20,133	*197*	1,570	*369*	387.2	*1,119*	17,051	*187*
1927	4,564	*176*	5,438	*189*	1,378	*167*	4,202	*218*	4,155	*161*	56,301	*200*	18,775	*184*	1,682	*395*	382.3	*1,105*	17,766	*195*
1928	4,930	*190*	5,623	*196*	1,406	*171*	4,377	*227*	4,124	*160*	62,181	*221*	17,456	*171*	1,739	*408*	378.3	*1,093*	18,305	*200*
1929	5,044	*195*	5,604	*195*	1,247	*152*	4,433	*230*	4,026	*156*	68,571	*244*	16,854	*165*	1,642	*385*	369.8	*1,069*	18,553	*203*
1930	4,778	*184*	5,377	*187*	1,261	*153*	4,724	*245*	4,085	*159*	76,436	*272*	15,680	*154*	1,436	*337*	368.8	*1,066*	18,878	*207*
1931	4,776	*184*	5,348	*186*	1,246	*151*	4,949	*256*	4,817	*187*	85,725	*305*	14,295	*140*	1,286	*302*	364.2	*1,053*	—	—
1930 III	4,806	*185*	5,340	*186*	1,326	*161*	4,365	*226*	3,751	*146*	70,826	*252*	16,395	*161*	1,287	*302*	357.3	*1,033*	17,801	*105*
VI	4,685	*181*	5,292	*184*	1,314	*160*	4,335	*225*	3,727	*145*	72,594	*258*	15,846	*155*	1,291	*303*	363.6	*1,051*	17,943	*197*
IX	4,744	*183*	5,357	*187*	1,300	*158*	4,508	*234*	3,713	*144*	73,053	*260*	16,172	*158*	1,125	*264*	359.4	*1,039*	18,202	*199*
XII	4,778	*184*	5,377	*187*	1,261	*153*	4,724	*245*	4,085	*159*	76,436	*272*	15,680	*154*	1,436	*337*	368.8	*1,066*	18,878	*207*
1931 III	4,456	*172*	4,647 [5]	*162*	1,180	*143*	4,604	*238*	3,833	*149*	77,864	*277*	15,034	*147*	1,169	*274*	348.8	*1,008*	17,890	*196*
VI	4,295	*166*	4,890	*170*	1,230	*149*	5,214	*270*	4,034	*157*	76,927	*273*	14,683	*144*	1,161	*273*	352.8	*1,020*	18,042	*198*
IX	4,609	*178*	5,190	*181*	1,167	*142*	5,025	*260*	4,446	*173*	78,173	*278*	14,481	*141*	989	*232*	357.2	*1,032*	18,473	*202*
XII	4,776	*184*	5,348	*186*	1,246	*151*	4,949	*256*	4,807	*187*	85,725	*305*	14,295	*140*	1,286	*302*	364.2	*1,053*	19,084	*209*

[1] *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, Berlin. Including notes of private banks.
[2] The figures for 1929, 1930 and 1931 are taken from the *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, Washington. Including certificates.
[3] Gross issue. [4] Existing currency. [5] Monthly average.

4. *Total Circulation*

The following table gives for a certain number of countries (France, Germany, United Kingdom and the United States) data concerning the total circulation (notes, balance of current accounts in central banks and other obligations payable at sight).

TOTAL CIRCULATION (NOTES AND CREDIT CURRENT ACCOUNTS IN CENTRAL BANKS) [1]

(In Millions)

(Base of Index Numbers: 1928 = 100)

Country	Germany		United States		France		United Kngdom	
	Reichsbank		Federal Reserve Bank		Bank of France		Bank of England	
Currency unit	Reichs-marks	*Index num-bers*	$	*Index num-bers*	Francs	*Index num-bers*	£	*Index num-bers*
End of:								
1913 [2]	3,538	*57*	—	—	32,647[3]	*35*	89.6	*18*
1925	5,300	*86*	6,558	*100*	53,780	*64*	529.7	*107*
1926	5,634	*92*	6,564	*100*	58,815	*71*	513.1	*104*
1927	6,031	*98*	6,596	*101*	67,167	*81*	504.2	*102*
1928	6,177	**100**	6,539	**100**	83,167	**100**	494.0	**100**
1929	6,115	*99*	6,442	*99*	88,158	*106*	477.4	*97*
1930	5,814	*94*	6,563	*100*	99,820	*120*	491.8	*100*
1931	5,843	*95*	7,117	*109*	115,369	*139*	500.6	*101*
1930 III	5,850	*95*	6,103	*93*	86,347	*104*	465.4	*94*
VI	5,824	*94*	6,184	*95*	86,953	*105*	476.4	*96*
IX	5,766	*93*	6,182	*95*	92,342	*111*	469.4	*95*
XII	5,814	*94*	6,563	*100*	99,820	*120*	491.8	*100*
1931 III	4,971	*80*	6,283	*96*	101,616	*122*	452.2	*92*
VI	5,246	*85*	6,522	*100*	99,902	*120*	469.2	*95*
IX	5,685	*92*	7,008	*107*	104,548	*126*	489.6	*99*
XII	5,843	*95*	7,117	*109*	115,369	*139*	500.6	*101*

[1] The notes in circulation include the notes of the central banks, State (Treasury) notes and the notes (if any) of private banks. The credit current accounts include the balances of the current accounts (*a*) of private individuals, (*b*) of the State and "other obligations payable at sight". The data on credit current accounts have been taken from the *Monthly Bulletin of the International Statistical Institute*, The Hague.

[2] Yearly average.

[3] Existing currency.

From the end of 1930 to the end of 1931 the total circulation increased by 15.6 per cent. in France, 8.4 per cent. in the United States, 1.8 per cent. in the United Kingdom, and 0.1 per cent. in Germany.

5. *Exchanges*

During 1931 the position of the exchange market has been critical, especially after the abandonment of the gold standard by Great Britain on 21 September. During the course of the year the currencies of a number of countries which had already depreciated in the preceding year fell still further, the difference from par increasing as follows: from 4 to 20 per cent. in Venezuela, from 9 to 22 per cent. in Mexico, from 5 to 36 per cent. in New Zealand, from 22 to 41 per cent. in Argentina, from 8 to 44 per cent. in Australia, from 20 to 40 per cent. in Brazil, from 47 to 51 per cent. in China (Shanghai), from 44 to 56 per cent. in Spain and from 27 to 57 per cent. in Uruguay.

In other countries the currency depreciation at the beginning of 1932 was as follows: 3 per cent. in Italy, 16 per cent. in Canada, 27 per cent. in Japan, 29 per cent. in Portugal, 29 per cent. in Sweden, 30 per cent. in Denmark, 30 per cent. in Great Britain, 30 per cent. in India and 31 per cent. in Norway.

These movements are in general due to economic causes resulting from the depression, such as the catastrophic drop in the price of a number of raw materials and agricultural products and the corresponding increase in the burden of costs, and of international financial obligations, established on a gold basis, heavy adverse trade balances, the shock to public finances, political agitation, etc.

III. — Finance

1. *Capital Issues*

The capital issues of certain countries from 1924 to 1930 are shown in the table on page 127.

From 1930 to 1931 there has been an increase in Czechoslovakia [1] of 10.5 per cent., India [1] 12.5 per cent., Japan [2] 17.6 per cent., Sweden [1] 33.3 per cent., Germany 39.6 per cent., Finland [3] 49.2 per cent., and a decrease in France of 25.9 per cent., Belgium 27.2 per cent., Italy [1] 29.8 per cent., Austria [1] 35.4 per cent., Rumania [1] 54.3 per cent., United States 56 per cent., the Netherlands 57.4 per cent., Switzerland 62.2 per cent., United Kingdom 62.3 per cent. and Poland [1] 63.4 per cent.

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[1] Countries not included in the table.
[2] Average for 11 months.
[3] Average for nine months.

CAPITAL ISSUES

(In Millions)

(Base of Index Numbers: 1913 = 100)

Country	Germany [1]		United States [2]		France [3]		Japan		Netherlands [4]		United Kingdom [5]		Switzerland [6]	
Currency unit	Reichs-marks	*Index numbers*	$		Francs	*Index numbers*	Yen	*Index numbers*	Gulden	*Index numbers*	£	*Index numbers*	Francs	*Index numbers*
1913	720	*100*	—	—	2,638 12,992 [7]	*100*	542	*100*	156	*100*	242	*100*	528	*100*
1924	180	*25*	5,593	—	6,775	*52*	2,625	*484*	359	*230*	224	*92*	610	*116*
1925	662	*92*	6,220	—	3,689	*28*	2,449	*452*	392	*251*	220	*91*	676	*128*
1926	898	*125*	6,344	—	4,806	*37*	2,737	*505*	580	*371*	253	*105*	709	*134*
1927	1,369	*190*	7,791	—	7,394	*57*	3,054	*563*	515	*329*	315	*130*	869	*165*
1928	1,321	*183*	8,114	—	10,513	*81*	4,021	*742*	594	*381*	363	*150*	688	*130*
1929	962	*134*	10,183	—	15,106	*116*	2,662	*491*	352	*226*	254	*105*	969	*184*
1930	560	*78*	7,039	—	21,985	*169*	2,456	*453*	540	*346*	236	*98*	1,504	*285*
1931	782	*109*	3,100		16,300	*135*	2,889 [8]	*533* [8]	230	*147*	89	*37*	1,310	*248*
		*				*		*		*		*		*
1930 I	74	*123*	715	—	2,309	*213*	133	*296*	52	*400*	23	*115*	134	*305*
II	31	*52*	906	—	1,582	*146*	218	*484*	66	*507*	24	*120*	148	*336*
III	50	*83*	379	—	1,073	*99*	183	*407*	25	*192*	9	*45*	104	*236*
IV	31	*52*	346	—	2,365	*218*	285	*633*	45	*346*	22	*110*	116	*264*
1931 I	46	*77*	411	—	2,008	*185*	313	*696*	20	*154*	15	*75*	157	*357*
II	110	*183*	320	—	1,381	*128*	240	*533*	36	*277*	9	*45*	111	*252*
III	86	*143*	205	—	565	*52*	303	*673*	17	*131*	3	*15*	92	*209*
IV	20	*33*	90	—	1,496	*138*	162 [9]	*360* [9]	8	*62*	3	*15*	75	*170*

* For this period the indices have been calculated on the basis of the monthly average for 1913.

Unless otherwise stated, the figures represent authorised issues of new joint stock companies at home and the increase of capital of existing companies. The data for Germany, the United Kingdom and Switzerland represent the issue value; the others refer to the nominal values. In the statistics of the United States, bonds and preferential shares are entered at par, the ordinary shares at issue values. Bonus shares are excluded from the figures for the Netherlands, the United Kingdom and Switzerland, and conversions are excluded in the case of Germany, the United States, the Netherlands and the United Kingdom.

[1] Ordinary and "Kommandit" joint stock companies, not including limited liability companies (G. m. b. H.). Issue values of stocks sold against cash. — [2] Domestic, excluding United States Government, issues, foreign, other than Government, issues and loans raised by foreign Governments. — [3] Subscriptions invited on home market by French companies other than the big railway companies; excluding vendors' shares. — [4] Issues exceeding 100,000 gulden, excluding Treasury bills. Subscriptions invited on home market by domestic and colonial companies; issues for foreign companies and Governments. — [5] Domestic issues and issues of British Possessions and foreign subscriptions invited on home market; excluding issues made by British Government for national purposes, loans by municipal and county authorities except in cases where there is a specified limit to the subscription, and bonds of less than twelve months' currency. — [6] Domestic and foreign subscriptions invited on Swiss market, including bonds and local government loans. — [7] Present currency. — [8] Average for 11 months. — [9] Average for October and November.

2. *Credits*

(a) *Credits of central banks.* — The table on page 129 shows the credits of central banks at the end of 1930 and the end of 1931 (commercial bills and acceptances and advances on security). These credits have increased in Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Hungary, Japan, the Netherlands, Poland, Spain, Sweden, the United States and Yugoslavia, and have decreased in France, Italy, Switzerland and the United Kingdom.

(b) *International credits.* — The following are the figures for foreign loans (not including conversions) on some of the most important capital markets:

United States [1]. — The figures for 1922-1931 are as follows:

Year	Foreign loans (millions of dollars)	Year	Foreign loans (millions of dollars
1922	764	1927	1,337
1923	421	1928	1,251
1924	969	1929	671
1925	1,076	1930	905
1926	1,125	1931	239

The volume of foreign loans during 1931 was only 20 per cent of the average annual aggregate for the period 1925-1928.

Great Britain [2] — The loans raised on the British market by the Dominions and by foreign countries in recent years are shown in the following table:

Year	Dominions	Foreign countries
1925	£69,231,036	£30,250,102
1926	57,547,256	64,501,397
1927	98,183,770	54,807,489
1928	81,480,926	76,402,528
1929	58,994,902	52,491,706
1930	70,914,071	43,767,436
1931	38,246,993	7,915,988

The fall in 1931 was extremely marked.

[1] *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, Feb. 1932.
[2] *The Statist*, 9 Jan. 1932.

CREDITS OF CENTRAL BANKS (COMMERCIAL BILLS AND ACCEPTANCES; ADVANCES ON SECURITY)

(In millions)

(Base of Index Numbers: 1928 = 100)

Country	Germany		Austria		Belgium		Spain		United States		France		Hungary		Italy	
Currency unit	Reichsmarks	*Index numbers*	Schillings	*Index numbers*	Francs	*Index numbers*	Pesetas	*Index numbers*	$	*Index numbers*	Francs	*Index numbers*	Pengö	*Index numbers*	Lire	*Index numbers*
End of:																
1925	1,925	*67*	100	*53*	1,254	*37*	2,448	*123*	1,009.5	*65*	6,060	*76*	134	*32*	—	—
1926	1,913	*67*	124	*60*	2,462	*72*	2,319	*117*	1,017.6	*66*	6,520	*82*	218	*52*	8,040	*147*
1927	3,217	*113*	132	*63*	2,925	*86*	1,730	*87*	973.5	*63*	4,235	*53*	332	*80*	5,116 [1]	*93*
1928	2,855	*100*	208	*100*	3,410	*100*	1,983	*100*	1,545.5	*100*	7,974	*100*	417	*100*	5,482	*100*
1929	3,099	*109*	307	*148*	3,920	*115*	2,209	*111*	1,024.6	*66*	11,174	*140*	330	*79*	6,121	*112*
1930	2,828	*99*	148	*71*	4,480	*131*	2,218	*112*	615.2	*40*	11,286	*142*	298	*71*	5,608	*102*
1931	4,487	*157*	908	*437*	5,161	*151*	3,149	*159*	9,970	*63*	10,512	*132*	441	*106*	5,109 [1]	*93*
1930 III	2,269	*79*	166	*80*	4,187	*123*	2,018	*102*	588.8	*38*	8,974	*113*	225	*54*	4,379	*80*
VI	1,969	*69*	125	*60*	3,925	*115*	1,870	*94*	399.7	*26*	9,015	*113*	234	*56*	4,499	*82*
IX	2,393	*84*	96	*46*	3,718	*109*	2,103	*106*	481.1	*31*	9,009	*113*	189	*45*	4,137	*75*
XII	2,828	*99*	148	*71*	4,480	*131*	2,218	*112*	615.2	*40*	11,286	*142*	298	*71*	5,608	*102*
1931 III	—	—	93	*45*	3,929	*115*	1,952	*98*	374.5	*24*	9,810	*123*	258	*62*	4,371	*70*
VI	—	—	529	*254*	3,871	*114*	2,845	*143*	254.7	*16*	8,189	*103*	279	*67*	4,669	*85*
IX	4,389	*154*	689	*331*	4,476	*131*	3,073	*155*	796.5	*52*	11,008	*138*	385	*92*	4,838	*88*
XII	4,487	*157*	908	*437*	5,161	*151*	3,149	*159*	977,0	*63*	10,512	*132*	441	*106*	5,109 [1]	*93*

Country	Japan		Netherlands		Poland		United Kingdom		Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia		Yugoslavia	
Currency unit	Yen	*Index numbers*	Gulden	*Index numbers*	Zloty	*Index numbers*	£	*Index numbers*	Krona	*Index numbers*	Francs	*Index numbers*	Koruna	*Index numbers*	Dinar	*Index numbers*
End of:																
1925	456	*47*	204	*93*	380	*52*	103.3	*231*	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,371	*80*
1926	420	*43*	187	*85*	377	*52*	96.7	*216*	375	*81*	425	*142*	261	*54*	1,481	*86*
1927	888	*91*	247	*113*	497	*68*	74.4	*166*	374	*80*	449	*150*	126	*26*	1,683	*98*
1928	978	*100*	219	*100*	732	*100*	44.8	*100*	465	*100*	300	*100*	483	*100*	1,724	*100*
1929	771	*79*	182	*83*	781	*107*	40.0	*89*	411	*88*	224	*75*	1,011	*209*	1,518	*88*
1930	823	*84*	148	*68*	758	*104*	72.6	*162*	345	*74*	148	*49*	525	*109*	1,637	*95*
1931	1,051	*107*	188	*86*	796	*109*	64.9	*145*	586	*126*	99	*33*	2,316	*479*	2,253	*131*
1930 III	753	*77*	172	*79*	697	*95*	19.4	*43*	302	*65*	119	*40*	639	*132*	1,319	*77*
VI	808	*83*	159	*73*	654	*89*	31.2	*70*	215	*46*	108	*36*	433	*90*	1,345	*78*
IX	710	*73*	140	*64*	784	*107*	27.3	*61*	158	*34*	70	*23*	284	*59*	1,503	*88*
XII	823	*84*	148	*68*	758	*104*	72.6	*162*	345	*74*	148	*49*	525	*109*	1,637	*95*
1931 III	715	*73*	143	*65*	656	*90*	35.8	*80*	299	*64*	95	*32*	163	*34*	1,405	*81*
VI	697	*71*	145	*66*	637	*87*	63.1	*141*	375	*81*	74	*25*	500	*104*	1,459	*85*
IX	702	*72*	221	*101*	737	*101*	40.6	*91*	574	*123*	124	*41*	1,722	*357*	1,819	*106*
XII	1,051	*107*	188	*86*	796	*109*	64.9	*145*	586	*126*	99	*33*	2,316	*479*	2,253	*131*

[1] November.

SOURCES: *Federal Reserve Bulletin*, Washington. — *Wirtschaft und Statistik*, Berlin. — Reports of the National Bank of Belgium, Brussels. — Reports of the Bank of France, Paris. — *L'Economiste européen*, Paris, 27 Feb.1931. — *Statist*, London.

The Netherlands [1]. — The following are the the data concerning foreign loans during the same period:

Year	Foreign loans (millions of florins)	Year	Foreign loans (millions of florins)
1925	122	1929	133
1926	274	1930	249
1927	336	1931	41
1928	303		

As in the case of the preceding countries, the difference in 1931 was most marked.

Switzerland [2]. — The amount of foreign loans (always excluding conversions) is shown below:

Year	Foreign loans (millions of francs)	Year	Foreign loans (millions of francs)
1925	12	1929	106
1926	247	1930	305
1927	284	1931	103
1928	84		

The report of the Swiss National Bank states that " the attraction of foreign investments weakened still further in consequence of want of confidence, and no foreign loan has been opened for public subscription since August 1931 ".

3. *Movement of Stock Exchange Shares*

The table on page 131 shows the movements of stock exchange shares in a certain number of countries. In all countries there has been a fall between December 1930 and December 1931, the percentage decrease being 14 per cent. in Germany [3], 18.2 per cent. in the United Kingdom, 24.2 per cent. in Italy, 25.7 per cent. in Czechoslovakia, 30.1 per cent. in Belgium, 34.2 per cent. in Switzerland, 36.7 per cent. in France, 39.8 per cent. in Sweden, 41.7 per cent. in the Netherlands and 46.7 per cent. in the United States.

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[1] *Economisch-Statistische Berichten*, 27 Jan. 1932.

[2] *La vie économique*, monthly review published by the Federal Department for Public Economy. — XXIVth Report of the Swiss National Bank, 1931.

[3] From December 1930 to June 1931.

INDEX NUMBER OF STOCK EXCHANGE SHARES

Country	Germany	Belgium [1]	United States	France [2]	Italy [3]	Netherlands	United Kngdom	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia
Source	Official	National Bank	Standard Statistics Co.	Statistique général de la France	Official	Official	London and Cambridge Economic Service	Affärsvärlden	National Bank	Official
Number of shares	213	120	335/342	300	35	49 [4]	92 [4]	52 [5]	29/33 [6]	— [7]
Base	1924-1926 = 100	1/I/1928 = 100	1926 = 100	1913 = 100	Dec. 1925 = 100	1921-1925 = 100	1924 = 100	1931/XII Nominal value = 100	Nominal value = 100	3/I/1927
Average	[8]		[9]			[10]	[11]	[12]	[13]	[14] [15]
1924	101.1	—	69.8	208	—	87	100	100.0	123.6	118
1925	93.3	—	88.4	200	100	93	109	113.6	138.4	88
1926	105.6	—	100.0	233	83	93	115	124.9	166.8	80
1927	154.2	—	117.6	287	73	104	124	146.0	201.2	100
1928	142.4	113	154.3	415	86	114	142	170.4	247.1	142
1929	126.1	101	189.4	507	85	117	139	154.4	235.7	143
1930	101.0	67	140.6	437	77	83	112	131.8	214.5	117
1931	76.3[16]	50	86.9	309	61	51	87	79.4	165.5	93
1930 III	111.0	67	163.0	478	82	98	115	237.0	236.0	127
VI	108.6	72	143.1	437	79	85	112	208.0	209.3	116
IX	93.4	62	139.3	425	74	75	110	133.7	209.2	113
XII	78.1	55	101.9	349	66	60	99	131.8	177.6	105
1931 III	82.7	58	111.8	362	68	69	96	128.8	207.0	107
VI	67.2	55	86.5	324	65	50	82	120.1	180.7	93
IX	[17]	41	75.8	269	56	37	78	84.8[18]	122.6	83
XII	[17]	38	54.3	221	50	35	81	79.4	116.8	78

[1] National Bank of Belgium, Brussels. — [2] MINISTRY OF LABOUR: *Bulletin de la Statistique générale de la France.* — [3] *Gazzeta Ufficiale del Regno d'Italia;* ISTITUTO CENTRALE DI STATISTICA: *Bollettino dei Prezzi.* — [4] Ordinary industrial shares. — [5] Industrial and shipping shares. — [6] Shares of companies with a capital of over 5 millions. — [7] Industrial and transport shares. — [8] Average quotations for the month. — [9] Average of closing quotations on every Thursday in the month. — [10] Average of maximum and minimum quotations for every Wednesday in the month. — [11] 15th of month. — [12] End of year and end of month. — [13] 25th of month. — [14] Average quotations, for every Friday of the month, of all Czechoslovak shares quoted on the Prague Stock Exchange. — [15] From 1924 to 1927, beginning of the year. — [16] Average for six months. — [17] Stock Exchange closed. — [18] 19 September.

4. *Official Discount Rates*

The table on page 132 shows the general movement of official discount rates in a certain number of countries.

In comparison with 1930 the average annual rate fell in 1931 from 3.04 to 2.12 per cent. in the United States, from 2.89 to 2.03 per cent. in Switzerland, from 9 to 8.25 per cent. in Rumania, from 3.21 to 2.48 per cent. in the Netherlands, from 2.71 to 2.11 per cent. in France, from 2.96 to 2.50 per cent. in Belgium, from 5.93 to 5.88 per cent. in Italy, and increased from 4.93 to 6.86 per

MOVEMENT OF OFFICIAL DISCOUNT RATES

Country	Germany	Austria	Belgium	United States	France	Hungary	Italy	Japan	Netherlands	Poland	Rumania	United Kingdom	Sweden	Switzerland
1913														
Average	5.87	5.95	5.88	3.50[1]	4.00	—	5.56	6.60	4.52	—	6.00	4.77	5.50	4.81
1924														
Maximum	10.00	15.00	5.50	4.50	7.00	18.00	5.50	8.00	5.06	12.00	6.00	4.00	5.50	4.00
Minimum	10.00	9.00	5.50	3.00	6.00	10.00	5.50	8.00	4.50	9.00	6.00	4.00	5.50	4.00
Annual aver.	10.00	11.57	5.50	3.63	6.02	14.06	5.50	8.00	4.94	11.41	6.00	4.00	5.50	4.00
1925														
Maximum	10.00	13.00	7.00	3.50	7.00	12.50	7.00	8.00	4.00	12.00	6.00	5.00	5.50	4.00
Minimum	9.00	9.00	5.50	3.00	6.00	7.00	5.50	7.30	3.50	10.00	6.00	4.00	4.50	3.50
Annual aver.	9.15	10.86	5.70	3.42	6.52	9.77	6.46	7.52	3.90	10.77	6.00	4.57	5.17	3.90
1926														
Maximum	8.00	8.00	7.50	4.00	7.50	7.00	7.00	7.30	3.50	12.00	6.00	5.00	4.50	3.50
Minimum	6.00	7.00	7.00	3.50	6.00	6.00	7.00	6.57	3.50	9.50	6.00	5.00	4.50	3.50
Annual aver.	6.74	7.50	7.06	3.84	6.58	6.65	7.00	7.12	3.50	11.01	6.00	5.00	4.50	3.50
1927														
Maximum	7.00	7.00	6.50	4.00	6.50	6.00	7.00	6.57	4.50	9.50	6.00	5.00	4.50	3.50
Minimum	5.00	6.00	4.50	3.50	4.00	6.00	7.00	5.48	3.50	8.00	6.00	4.50	4.00	3.50
Annual aver.	5.83	6.34	5.41	3.79	5.23	6.00	7.00	5.90	3.72	8.34	6.00	4.65	4.15	3.50
1928														
Maximum	7.00	6.50	4.50	5.00	3.50	7.00	7.00	5.48	4.50	8.00	6.00	4.50	4.50	3.50
Minimum	7.00	6.00	4.00	3.50	3.50	6.00	5.50	5.48	4.50	8.00	6.00	4.50	3.50	3.50
Annual aver.	7.00	6.27	4.25	4.50	3.53	6.25	5.96	5.48	4.50	8.00	6.00	4.50	4.01	3.50
1929														
Maximum	7.50	8.50	5.00	6.00	3.50	8.00	7.00	5.48	5.50	9.00	9.50	6.50	5.50	3.50
Minimum	6.50	6.50	3.50	4.50	3.50	7.50	6.00	5.48	4.50	8.00	6.00	4.50	4.50	3.50
Annual aver.	7.10	7.37	4.35	5.16	3.50	7.60	6.79	5.48	5.12	8.64	8.22	5.50	4.74	3.50
1930														
End of:														
January	6.50	7.00	3.50	4.50	3.00	7.00	7.00	5.48	4.00	8.00	9.00	5.00	4.50	3.50
February	6.00	6.50	—	4.00	—	6.50	—	—	—	—	—	4.50	—	—
March	5.00[2]	6.00	—	3.50	—	6.00	6.50	—	3.0[3]	7.00	—	3.50[4]	4.00	—
April	—	—	3.00	—	2.50	—	6.00	—	—	—	—	—	3.50	3.00
May	4.50	5.50	—	3.00	—	5.50	5.50	—	—	—	—	3.00	—	—
June	4.00	—	—	2.50	—	—	—	—	—	6.50	—	—	—	—
July	—	—	2.50	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2.50
August	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
September	—	5.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
October	5.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	5.11	—	7.50	—	—	—	—
November	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
December	—	—	—	2.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Annual aver.	4.93	5.75	2.96	3.04	2.71	5.92	5.93	5.39	3.21	7.21	9.00	3.42	3.72	2.89
1931														
January	5.00	5.00	2.50	2.00	2.00	5.50	5.50	5.11	2.50	7.50	9.00	3.00	3.50	2.00
February	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3.00	—
March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
April	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8.00	—	—	—
May	—	—	—	1.50	—	—	—	—	2.00	—	—	2.50	—	—
June	7.00	7.50[5]	—	—	—	7.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
July	10.00	10.00	—	—	—	9.00	—	—	—	—	—	4.50	4.00	—
August	10.00[6]	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
September	8.00	—	—	—	—	8.00	7.00	—	3.00	—	—	6.00	8.00[7]	—
October	—	—	—	3.50[8]	2.50	—	—	5.84	—	—	—	—	6.00[9]	—
November	—	8.00	—	—	—	—	—	6.57	—	—	—	—	—	—
December	7.00	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Annual aver.	6.86	7.21	2.50	2.12	2.11	6.89	5.88	5.40	2.48	7.50	8.25	4.21	4.09	2.03

[1] 1916: Rates of the Federal Reserve Bank of New York for 90 days' commercial bills. From 1924 to 1930: rates of the Federal Reserve Bank for 60 to 90-days' commercial paper. — [2] From 7 to 12 March, 5.50 per cent. — [3] From 7 to 24 March, 3.50 per cent. — [4] From 6 to 19 March, 4 per cent. — [5] From 8 to 14 June, 6 per cent. — [6] From 1 to 11 August, 15 per cent. — [7] From 21 to 24 September, 5 per cent. — From 8 to 14 October, 2.50 per cent. — [9] From 8 to 16 October, 7 per cent.

cent. in Germany, from 5.75 to 7.21 per cent. in Austria, from 5.92 to 6.89 per cent. in Hungary, from 3.42 to 4.21 per cent. in the United Kingdom, from 3.72 to 4.09 per cent. in Sweden, from 7.21 to 7.50 per cent. in Poland and from 5.39 to 5.40 per cent. in Japan.

A study of the fluctuations which characterised the troublesome year of 1931 is, however, much more enlightening than any comparison of annual average rates. During the summer and autumn there was a general rise in the discount rate. In Germany, the official rate rose from 5 per cent. during the first part of the year to 7 per cent. in June, 10 per cent. in July, and 15 per cent. from 1 to 11 August, but has remained stable at 10 per cent. since that date. In Austria, it rose from 5 per cent. during the first part of the year to 7.50 per cent. in June and 10 per cent. in July. In Hungary, it rose from 5.50 per cent. during the first part of the year to 7 per cent. in June and 9 per cent. in July. In the United Kingdom, it rose from 2.50 per cent. in May and June to 4.50 per cent. in July and August and 6 per cent. in September. In Sweden, the figures were 3 per cent. from February to June, 4 per cent. in July and August, and 8 per cent. in September. In Italy, the rise was 5.50 per cent. during the first part of the year and 7 per cent. in September. In Japan, it was 5.11 per cent. during the first part of the year, 5.84 per cent. in October and 6.57 per cent. in November. In the United States, it rose 2 per cent. from January to April, 1.50 per cent. from May to September, and 3.50 per cent. from October to December. In France, the rise was 2 per cent. from January to September and 2.50 per cent. in October. In the Netherlands the rise was 2.50 per cent. from January to April, 2 per cent. from May to August and 3 per cent. in September.

On the other hand, no change was observed in Belgium (2.50 per cent.), Switzerland (2 per cent.) and Poland (7.50 per cent.), while a fall was recorded in Rumania (in April) from 9 to 8 per cent.

A reduction in the official rate was made towards the end of the year in a number of countries which had previously raised it. This decrease was as follows: Germany, 8 per cent. in September and 7 per cent. in December; Austria, 8 per cent. in November; Hungary, 8 per cent. in September; Sweden, 6 per cent. in October.

IV. — Production

Several countries compile general indices for production. The table on page 134 contains data on this subject, referring in most cases to the period 1924-1931. The falling off in production noted in 1930 continued in 1931, the decrease between these two years amounting to 17.5 per cent. in Germany, 15.6 per cent. in Canada, 15.6 per cent. in the United States, 11.4 per cent. in France, 14.7 per cent. in Poland, 9.3 per cent. in the United Kingdom, 13.3 per cent. in Sweden. In the U.S.S.R. there was a rise of 11 per cent.

GENERAL PRODUCTION INDICES

(Base: 1928 = 100 *)

Country	Germany	Canada	United States	France	Poland	United Kingdom	Sweden	Russia U.S.S.R.
Source	Institut für Konjunkturforschung	Monthly Review of Business Statistics	Federal Reserve Board	Statistique générale	Institute for research on business movements	Board of Trade	Svensk Finanstidning	Institut für Konjunktur forschung
Original base	1928	1919-1924	1923-1925	1913	1925-1927	1924	1923-1924	1928
Average:		[1]	[1]	[2]	[3]			[4]
1924	69.0	67.3	85.6	85.8	71.6	94.8	94.5	—
1925	79.3	72.3	93.7	85.0	72.5	—	96.4	—
1926	76.5	84.5	97.3	99.2	71.1	—	99.1	—
1927	97.2	90.4	95.5	86.6	88.5	101.2	104.5	—
1928	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	101.4	111.6	107.2	109.4	99.8	106.0	122.7	123.4
1930	83.6	94.9	86.5	110.2	82.2	97.9	119.1	151.8
1931	69.0	80.1	73.0	97.6	70.1	88.8	103.3	168.5
1930 III	92.7	96.6	93.7	113.4	79.6	105.1	135.5	—
VI	83.6	97.2	90.1	112.6	79.6	97.7	111.8	—
IX	78.5	89.4	82.0	107.9	84.4	94.2	115.5	171.6[5]
XII	72.5	79.7	73.9	105.5	78.9	93.8	109.1	191.8
1931 III	73.5	88.6	78.4	103.9	70.4	90.0	110.9	162.2
VI	74.4	77.5	75.7	99.2	72.8	87.1	106.4	146.6
IX	67.0	79.5	68.5	93.7	70.6	84.6	103.6	181.5
XII	58.7	68.9	64.0	87.4	59.9	91.8	113.6	231.5

* All the figures have been converted from the " original base " to the base: 1928 = 100.
[1] Adjusted for seasonal variations. — [2] Partly adjusted for seasonal variations. — [3] Adjusted for seasonal variations after 1928. — [4] Indices compiled by the Statistisches Reichsamt, from absolute figures of the value of production. — [5] October.

The table on page 135 shows the movement in the world output of certain important commodities. In the case of industrial raw materials there has been the following decline between 1930 and 1931: 12.5 per cent. for hard coal [1], 8.3 per cent. for lignite [1], 12.4 per cent. for coal in general (hard coal and lignite together), 29.8 per cent. for cast iron, 26.1 per cent for steel [1], 14.2 per cent. for copper [1], 19.1 per cent. for lead [1], 24.4 per cent. for zinc [1] and 2.9 per cent. for petroleum. There has, however, been an increase in the output of the following commodities: wool [1], 7 per cent.; natural silk [1], 7.8 per cent.; artificial silk [1], 10.4 per cent.

In the case of agricultural products used as foodstuffs there has been a double movement. There was a decrease of 2.5 per cent. for wheat [1], 18 per cent. for rye [1], 5.6 per cent. for wheat and rye together, 15.6 per cent. for barley [1], 6.9 per cent. for oats [1], 0.4 per cent. for potatoes, 43.8 per cent for coffee [1], 25.6 per cent. for beet

[1] Not included in the table.

WORLD PRODUCTION OF CERTAIN IMPORTANT COMMODITIES

(000's Omitted)

(Base of Index Numbers: 1913, 1909-1910/1913-1914 = 100)

Product	Hard coal and Lignite [1]		Pig iron [2]		Petroleum		Plantation rubber	
Quantities	Metric tons	*Index numbers*	Metric tons	*Index numbers*	Barrels [3]	*Index numbers*	Metric quintals	*Index numbers*
1913	1,253,446	*100*	78,967	*100*	385,200	*100*	*510*	*100*
1924	1,241,397	*99*	68,280	*87*	1,010,400	*262*	4,640	*910*
1925	1,242,540	*99*	77,100	*98*	1,064,100	*276*	5,530	*1,084*
1926	1,237,615	*99*	78,920	*100*	1,090,700	*283*	6,220	*1,220*
1927	1,341,145	*107*	86,640	*110*	1,255,300	*326*	6,770	*1,328*
1928	1,311,153	*105*	88,340	*112*	1,314,700	*341*	6,540	*1,282*
1929	1,390,000	*111*	98,790	*125*	1,484,500 [6]	*385*	8,510 [8]	*1,669*
1930 [4]	1,263,000	*101*	80,670	*102*	1,401,000 [6]	*364*	7,950 [8]	*1,559*
1931 [4]	1,107,000 [5]	*88*	56,620	*72*	1,360,000 [7]	*353*	7,950 [8]	*1,559*

Product	Cotton [9]		Sugar [10]						Whear and rye [10 11]		Potatoes [10 11]	
			Beet sugar		Cane sugar		Total sugar					
Quantities	50 lb. bales approx.	*Index numbers*	Metric quintals	*Index numbers*	Metric quintals	*Index numbers*	Metric quintals	*Index numbers*	Metric quintals	*Index numbers*	Metric quintals	*Index numbers*
1909-10/ 1913-14	28,040 [12]	*100*	79,400	*100*	95,810	*100*	175,210	*100*	1,083,938	*100*	1,288,000	*100*
1924-25	26,563	*95*	81,351	*103*	161,426	*168*	242,777	*139*	1,026,332	*95*	1,324,513	*103*
1925-26	29,818	*106*	82,157	*104*	169,574	*177*	251,731	*144*	1,161,170	*107*	1,366,696	*106*
1926-27	30,273	*108*	77,608	*98*	162,250	*169*	239,858	*137*	1,128,670	*104*	1,178,800	*92*
1927-28	25,815	*92*	89,260	*112*	174,400	*182*	263,660	*150*	1,207,911	*111*	1,428,000	*111*
1928-29	28,254	*101*	93,370	*118*	184,360	*192*	277,730	*159*	1,315,373	*121*	1,432,100	*111*
1929-30	28,247	*101*	91,240	*115*	185,990	*194*	277,230	*158*	1,187,550	*110*	1,573,200	*122*
1930-31 [4 13]	27,770	*99*	114,662	*144*	165,755	*173*	280,417	*160*	1,264,947	*117*	1,434,800	*111*
1931-32 [4 13]	—	—	85,265	*107*	162,464	*170*	247,729	*141*	1,193,841	*110*	1,429,600	*112*

[1] Lignite calculated in terms of hard coal. — [2] *Iron Age*, 1929, New York, Jan. 1931 and Jan. 1932. — [3] Barrels of 42 American gallons = 159 litres. — [4] Estimate. — [5] Estimate on basis of the monthly data published in the *Monthly Bulletin of Statistics* (League of Nations), the total of which represents about 96 per cent. of the world production for 1930. — [6] Société d'Etudes et d'Informations économiques: *Bulletin quotidien*, 7 Feb. 1931 and 12 Jan. 1932. — [7] *Journée industrielle*, 28-29 Feb. 1932. — [8] *Statist*, 7 Feb. 1931 and 6 Feb. 1932. [9] *Index Svenska Handelsbanken*, Stockholm, Vol. VI, No. 62, Feb. 1931. — [10] *International Year-Book of Agricultural Statistics*, Rome. — [11] Not including the U.S.S.R. — [12] 1914-1915. — [13] *International Review of Agriculture*, Rome, Jan. 1932.

sugar, 2 per cent, for cane sugar, 11.7 per cent. for beet and cane sugar together, and an increase of 19.8 per cent. for maize [1].

The tonnage of vessels in course of building has fallen from 2,326,086 to 1,403,795.

[1] Not included in the table.

V. — International Trade

1. *Movement of Exchanges*

From 1930 to 1931 in most cases there has been a falling off in the amount of exchanges as is shown in the two following tables. That on page 137 deals with the value (monthly averages) of the commodities imported and exported by thirty-six countries, representing approximately four-fifths of the international trade of the world.

In imports there has been an increase in two countries: Bulgaria and the U.S.S.R. The decrease has been between 10 and 20 per cent. in 12 countries (Brazil, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Greece, Irish Free State, Japan, Lithuania, Norway, South Africa, Sweden Switzerland), from 20 to 30 per cent. in six countries (Austria, Belgium, Czechoslovakia, the Netherlands, Portugal, Rumania) from 30 to 40 per cent. in eleven countries (British India, Canada, Egypt, Estonia, Finland, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Poland, United States, Yugoslavia), from 40 to 50 per cent. in three countries (Chile, Latvia, New Zealand), and from 50 to 60 per cent. in two countries (Australia, Spain).

For exports there has been an increase only in Brazil, while in Australia there is no change. The decrease was 4 per cent. in one country (Bulgaria), from 12 to 20 per cent. in nine countries (Belgium, Denmark, Egypt, Finland, Germany, Irish Free State, Italy, Lithuania, Portugal), from 20 to 30 per cent. in fourteen countries (Austria, Czechoslovakia, Estonia, France, Greece, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, Poland, Rumania, Sweden, Switzerland, U.S.S.R., Yugoslavia), from 30 to 37 per cent. in nine countries (British India, Canada, Chile, Great Britain, Hungary, Latvia, Norway, South Africa, United States), and 58 per cent. in one country (Spain).

The second table (page 138) shows the quantities imported and exported (monthly averages) in nineteen of the preceding countries for which data are available.

For imports there has been an increase for two countries (Lithuania, Switzerland). The decrease was from 1 to 10 per cent. in eight countries (Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, Japan, the Netherlands), from 10 to 20 per cent. in three countries (Finland, Italy, Poland), from 20 to 28 per cent. in five countries (Estonia, Germany, Latvia, New Zealand, Yugoslavia) and 32 per cent. in one country (Hungary).

For exports there has been an increase in four countries (Belgium, Bulgaria, Estonia, the Netherlands). The decrease was from 1 to 10 per cent. in three countries (Germany, Italy, Poland), from 10 to 20 per cent. in six countries (Czechoslovakia, Finland, France, Hungary, Japan, New Zealand), from 20 to 30 per cent. in five countries (Austria, Greece, Lithuania, Switzerland, Yugoslavia), and 38 per cent. in one country (Latvia).

FOREIGN TRADE OF THIRTY-SIX COUNTRIES

(Values)

(Monthly Averages)

Country	In thousands of	Imports			Exports		
		1930	1931	1931 as percentage of 1930	1930	1931	1931 as percentage of 1930
South Africa	£	4,995	4,143	— 17.1	2,698	1,875	— 30.5
Germany	RM.	866,096	560,590	— 35.3	944,020	767,160	— 18.7
Australia	£	7,680	3,403	— 55.7	7,407	7,429	+ 0.3
Austria	Shillings	224,928	180,011	— 20.0	154,285	108,739	— 29.5
Belgium	Francs	2,576,812	1,978,495	— 23.2	2,187,420	1,927,207	— 11.9
Brazil	Milreis	195,309	155,590	— 10.3	242,280	283,138	+ 16.9
Bulgaria	Leva	382,477	388,339	+ 1.5	515,928	494,514	— 4.2
Canada	$	84,040	52,342	— 37.7	73,826	50,445	— 31.7
Chile	Pesos	116,468	59,064	— 49.3	110,663	77,198	— 30.2
Denmark	Kroner	138,028	115,894	— 16.0	126,972	104,517	— 17.7
Egypt	£ Eg.	3,823	2,542	— 33.5	2,594	2,138	— 17.6
Spain	Pesetas	203,942	98,092	— 51.9	191,639	80,073	— 58.2
Estonia	E. kr.	8,197	5,102	— 37.8	8,036	5,918	— 26.4
United States	$	260,000	174,176	— 33.0	315,152	202,015	— 35.9
Finland	Markka	437,306	288,089	— 34.1	450,347	372,083	— 17.4
France	Francs	4,362,031	3,516,609	— 19.4	3,569,138	2,535,111	— 29.0
Great Britain	£	79,762	66,512	— 16.6	47,563	32,430	— 31.8
Greece	Drachmas	904,184	735,471	— 18.7	474,933	350,202	— 26.3
Hungary	Pengö	68,612	45,308	— 34.0	75,972	47,550	— 37.4
India	Rupees	156,632	108,954	— 30.4	210,517	137,089	— 34.9
Irish Free State	£	4,630	4,139	— 10.6	3,713	3,023	— 18.6
Italy	Lire	1,443,746	968,691	— 32.9	1,009,597	836,679	— 17.1
Japan	Yen	125,572	100,528	— 19.9	119,222	93,137	— 21.9
Latvia	Lats	24,694	14,735	— 40.3	20,656	13,644	— 33.9
Lithuania	Lita	26,035	23,163	— 11.0	27,812	22,760	— 18.2
Norway	Kroner	87,978	70,824	— 19.5	56,227	38,328	— 31.8
New Zealand	£	3,494	2,015	— 42.3	3,635	2,815	— 22.6
Netherlands	Florins	201,521	157,728	— 21.7	143,240	109,318	— 23.7
Poland	Zlotys	187,164	121,854	— 34.9	202,770	156,561	— 22.8
Portugal	Escudos	200,476	143,996	— 28.2	78,773	67,310	— 14.6
Rumania	Lei	1,878,411	1,409,600[1]	— 25.0	2,377,132	1,726,100[1]	— 27.4
Sweden	Kronor	138,650	119,949	— 13.5	129,160	93,950	— 27.3
Switzerland	Francs	222,017	187,600	— 15.5	147,292	112,400	— 23.8
Czecho-slovakia	Koruny	1,306,664	976,702	— 25.3	1,455,036	1,091,394	— 25.0
U.S.S.R.	Gold Rbles	76,608	80,400[2]	+ 4.9	72,408	54,200[2]	— 25.1
Yugoslavia	Dinars	580,009	400,023	— 31.0	565,005	400,081	— 29.2

[1] Average for six months.
[2] Average for eight months.

FOREIGN TRADE OF TWENTY COUNTRIES

(Quantities)

(Monthly Averages)

Country	Imports			Exports		
	1930	1931	1931 as percentage of 1930	1930	1931	1931 as percentage of 1930
	Thousands of metric tons			Thousands of metric tons		
Germany	4,746	3,397	— 28.4	4,759	4,333	— 9.0
Austria	689	666	— 3.3	293	211	— 28.0
Belgium	3,499	3,223	— 7.9	1,979	2,052	+ 3.7
Bulgaria	26	25	— 3.8	45	64	+ 42.2
Estonia	41	31	— 24.4	32	34	+ 6.3
Finland	246	209	— 15.0	420	356	— 15.2
France	5,063	4,841	— 4.4	3,048	2,527	— 17.1
Greece	214	212	— 0.9	63	49	— 22.2
Hungary	407	275	— 32.4	191	154	— 19.4
Italy	2,114	1,769	— 16.3	356	350	— 1.7
Japan	1,553	1,522	— 2.0	521	441	— 15.3
Latvia	120	87	— 27.5	103	64	— 37.9
Lithuania	59	62	+ 5.1	47	33	— 29.8
New Zealand	188	138	— 26.6	81	70	— 13.6
Netherlands	2,616	2,492	— 4.7	1,384	1,402	+ 1.3
Poland	298	244	— 18.1	1,577	1,559	— 1.1
Switzerland	711	757	+ 6.5	76	58	— 23.7
Czechoslovakia	714	698	— 2.2	899	722	— 19.7
Yugoslavia	126	94	— 25.4	394	277	— 29.7

2. *Commercial Policy*

(1) *Bilateral Agreements and Customs Tariffs*

(*a*) *Bilateral agreements.* — Thirty-two agreements have been concluded, of which twenty include the most-favoured-nation clause. Twenty-two treaties were extended and nine denounced.

(b) *Customs Tariffs.* — Only exceptionally have tariff reductions occurred, Greece and Rumania being the only important cases. The general trend has been always to increase, as is exemplified by Argentina, Australia (with increased preference for the United Kingdom), Canada (with maintenance of British preferential rates), Chile, China, Egypt, Estonia, France, India, Irish Free State, Italy, Lithuania, Mexico, Netherlands and Netherlands East Indies, Poland, Portuguese East and West Africa, Siam, Union of South Africa, Uruguay. A special feature of the year was the adoption of a protectionist policy by Great Britain. Various forms of import control also have been established. Thus the importation of many classes of goods into Estonia, and of selected classes of goods into other

European countries, such as Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Hungary, Iceland, Poland and Sweden, is now subject to licence. Importation of certain goods into Denmark, France, Latvia, Persia, Poland and Turkey is limited to fixed quotas, the scope of the quota system varying considerably in the different countries. In Italy, Netherlands, Spain and Switzerland powers have been or are being taken to authorise the introduction of an import restriction system. Some countries, such as Brazil, Ecuador and Turkey, have instituted total prohibition of some imports. A Government trade monopoly has been instituted by Persia, a Government grain monopoly by Yugoslavia, a Government monopoly of sale and importation of petrol by Costa Rica, and a Government monopoly in petrol, oil and matches by Nicaragua. A large number of countries, mainly in Europe and Central and South America, also have introduced recently measures to exercise a control over exchange transactions, varying considerably as between the different countries.

(2) *International Co-operation*

Reference will be made here to regional economic conferences and agreements and to action by the League of Nations, which are to some extent interdependent.

A. — Regional Conferences and Agreements

(a) *Conferences of European Agricultural Countries*

(1) *Permanent Research Committee of the Agricultural Countries.* — The first meeting of the Permanent Research Committee of the Agricultural Countries, the formation of which was provided for by the Bucharest Conference (October 1930), was held at Bucharest from 16 to 18 February 1931. The Committee was composed of delegates from Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Latvia, Poland and Rumania. It was decided, *inter alia*, to recommend that the countries represented on the Committee should hold a meeting of their representatives in Rome on 24 March 1931 to adopt a common attitude at the Wheat Conference to be held in Rome on 16 March 1931.

The second meeting was held at Belgrade from 23 to 25 April 1931.

(2) *Central European Agrarian Conference.* — The Central European Agrarian Conference met at Vienna on 19 March 1931. In addition to the States represented on the Permanent Research Committee of the Agricultural Countries, Austria and Germany were represented. It was agreed unanimously that it was necessary to conclude regional agreements which would contribute to a close economic collaboration between the States of Central and South-Eastern Europe.

(3) *Second Balkan Conference.* — The Second Balkan Conference was held in Istambul from 20 to 26 October 1931 and was attended by one hundred and forty-seven delegates from Albania, Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania, Turkey and Yugoslavia. The Economic Committee dealt with the protection of cereals and tobacco, the establishment of a Balkan Chamber of Commerce and co-operation among credit institutions.

(4) *Central and Eastern European Conference.* — A Conference of Governments of the agricultural countries of Central and Eastern Europe was held in Sofia from 10 to 13 December 1931 and was attended by delegations from Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Rumania and Yugoslavia, while

Estonia sent an observer. The resolutions passed covered the following subjects: international action, freedom of movement of agricultural produce, industrialisation, short-term debts, preferential tariffs, organisation of exports, trade in animals, international agreements and concerted action.

(b) *International Preparatory Conference of the Second World Wheat Conference.* — The International Preparatory Conference of the Second World Wheat Conference called by the International Institute of Agriculture, in collaboration with the League of Nations, was held at Rome from 26 March to 2 April 1931. One hundred and fifty-two delegates attended on behalf of forty-six countries, including all the important wheat-producing countries, with the exception of the United States, which, however, was represented by two unofficial experts invited by the International Institute of Agriculture. The resolutions embodied in the Final Act approved by the Conference, with certain reservations by the Russian Delegation, were concerned with international organisation of wheat production and of the wheat trade, international agricultural credit and the preferential tariff system. Probably the most important result of the Conference was the decision taken by the representatives of exporting countries, both European and overseas, to meet in London in May 1931 to attempt to formulate an agreed plan for the liquidation of existing stocks and of any surpluses from [the crops to be harvested in 1931-1932.

(c) *London Conference of Wheat-Exporting Countries.* — This Conference, a delegate Conference of nearly forty delegates of eleven wheat-exporting countries, Argentina, Australia, Bulgaria, Canada, Hungary, India, Poland, Rumania, Russia, United States and Yugoslavia, met from 18 to 23 May 1931 to consider the best steps to be taken to deal with the over-production of wheat. The proceedings took place in private, but it is reported that two conflicting theories were put forward. The United States advocated a reduction of the areas sown, while Russia suggested that exportation of wheat should be regulated on the basis of the quantity exported in pre-war years. These two arguments could not be reconciled, so it was decided to leave the way open for further negotiations, and a Committee was appointed, consisting of a representative of each State represented at the Conference, to continue the discussion of all relevant questions raised at the Conference. A central office was set up in London to supply information and to make investigations.

A meeting of the above Committee was held in London on 23 May 1931.

(d) *Paris Conference for Co-operation between Agricultural and Industrial States.* — A meeting was held in Paris on 17 April 1931, under the auspices of the French Government, at which arrangements were discussed for the economic organisation of agriculture through the co-operation of the agricultural with the industrial States. An official communiqué issued at the end of the proceedings indicated that the aim was to give some relief to the Central and Eastern European countries, within the framework of the League of Nations, " without which there can be no true organisation of peace ". Subsequently, on 16 May 1931, at the meeting of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, a French memorandum containing an alternative system of regional agreements to that advocated by Germany was circulated to members of the Commission.

(e) *The question of the Austro-German Protocol for the establishment of a Customs Union.* — On 19 March 1931 the German and Austrian Governments signed the Austro-German Protocol, for the establishment of a customs union. At the request of the British Government, the Council, at its meeting on 18 and 19 May 1931, considered its compatibility with Article 88 of the Treaty of St. Germain and with Protocol No. 1 signed at Geneva on 4 October 1922. Concerned, for the moment, only with the juridical aspect of the case, the Council decided to request an advisory opinion from the Permanent Court of International Justice. Before the Court had given its opinion, the German and

Austrian Governments intimated that they did not intend to pursue this scheme. The Austrian and German delegates at the Commission of Enquiry for European Union on 3 September made declarations to this effect. The Council then decided not to consider the matter further. On 7 September the Council noted the Court's advisory opinion, announced on 5 September, and given by eight votes to seven, that the regime referred to was not compatible with the Geneva Protocol. Of the majority of eight, seven judges declared that, in their view, the regime was likewise incompatible with Article 88 of the Treaty of St. Germain. Seven judges signed a joint dissenting opinion to the effect that, in their view, the proposed regime would be compatible with both Article 88 of the Treaty of St. Germain and with the Geneva Protocol.

(f) *International Conferences on the Coal-Mining Industry.* — An International conference convened by the Central Council of the British coal-mining industry, and attended by representatives of the coal-owners of the seven chief European producing countries—Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain, the Netherlands and Poland—was held in London from 30 September to 1 October 1931. Its purpose was to set forth the general lines of a plan of international organisation of the European industry. It was arranged to hold a further conference.

On 25 August an agreement to last till the end of 1931 was terminated between the Belgian and German Governments, as a result of negotiations between representatives of the Governments and the coal-owners of the two countries, providing for a simultaneous reduction in Belgian coal production and German coal imports into Belgium to adapt them to the necessities of present consumption. A system of licences was to be introduced as in France.

About the same time a similar agreement was concluded between Germany and France, and negotiations took place between Germany and Italy.

(g) *Franco-German Economic Committee.* — Conversations between the French and German Ministers in Berlin from 27 to 28 September 1931, with a view to establishing regular and trustful relations between the two countries, led to the constitution of a Franco-German Committee representing the administrations concerned, together with representatives of the various branches of economic life and of labour. The Committee is to examine all the economic problems concerning the two countries. The opening meeting was held in Paris on 13 November 1931. Meetings of various sub-committees and committees of experts have been held. Arising out of this agreement the French Government has set up a committee comprising thirteen sections. On 30 October 1931, representatives of the French and German workers' organisations on the Committee met in Paris and agreed on a common attitude to be adopted to defend the workers' interests.

(h) *Fourth Pan-American Commercial Conference.* — The Fourth Pan-American Commercial Conference was held in Washington from 5 to 13 October 1931. It was attended by five hundred delegates, from twenty-one republics, including Government delegates and representatives of business organisations. The aim of the Conference was to stimulate and benefit inter-American trade and commerce " through the removal of obstacles in the way of progress and the measures that may be adopted to improve that trade". Resolutions were passed dealing, *inter alia*, with a world conference on the silver question, the problem of excessive tariffs, the possible creation of a Pan-American Economic Organisation, the promotion of a Pan-American highway and a Pan-American railway, an inter-American agreement to remove obstacles to the free use of the air, the establishment of free ports, and the simplification of customs procedure.

(i) *Economic Conference of three South American States.* — An economic conference of delegates from Uruguay, Brazil and Argentina was held in Montevideo from 15 to 30 December 1931. It was hoped that the three nations would co-operate in forming a single economic unit. Problems of production, marketing and tariffs were discussed. The Conference, however, did not fulfil the hopes entertained.

B. — Action by the League of Nations

(a) *Conference of Agricultural Experts.* — The delegation of the Economic Committee studying means of remedying the agricultural crisis in general, and that of cereals in particular, proceeded to a further consultation of agricultural experts from 12 to 14 January 1931. The main subjects discussed were the agricultural crisis and the discrepancy between the price paid to the producer and the price paid by the consumer.

(b) *Conference of Coal Experts.* — The delegation of the Economic Committee appointed to examine the coal question received a delegation from the International Miners' Federation on 18 June 1931. It decided to plan an early consultation with experts representing all factors of production and the Governments most directly concerned, after discovering what some of the organs set up by the Commission of Enquiry into European Union might have to say. This fourth consultation of experts under League auspices, as authorised by the Council on 1 September 1931, was planned for 22 October 1931, but was postponed to 11 January 1932.

(c) *Conference for Concerted Economic Action.* — The second session of the Second Conference for Concerted Economic Action was held at Geneva from 16 to 18 March 1931, in which twenty-three States took part and six others sent observers. Its object was to consider the possibility of bringing into force, under conditions to be determined, the Commercial Convention of 24 March 1930. Eleven countries had ratified the Convention by 25 January 1931, the time limit; the Netherlands ratified it after 25 January, and Spain had asked to be allowed to accede to the Convention. The German Reichstag approved it during the Session of the Conference. The Netherlands' ratification was regarded as having the same effect as if it had been deposited before 1 November 1930. Representatives of the States which had ratified the Convention were obliged to record their inability to agree upon a date for putting the Convention into force; and their conclusions were embodied in a Final Protocol, which further stated that, in recording these findings, the representatives did not intend to express any opinion as to the possibility of putting the Convention into force at a date after 1 April 1931.

(d) *Conference of Experts on Marks of Origin.* — A delegation of the Economic Committee consulted experts on marks of origin from 13 to 15 April 1931.

(e) *Conference of Representatives of National Economic Councils and Economic Research Institutes.* — Two meetings of representatives of National Economic Councils and Economic Research Institutes were held at Geneva in March and July 1931. They were summoned in accordance with a resolution of the Eleventh Assembly, instructing the Economic and Financial Organisation to put itself in touch with national organisations for the purpose of studying the course and phases of the present economic depression.

(f) *Conference of Statistical Experts.* — The first session of the Committee of Statistical Experts, constituted in accordance with the International Convention on Economic Statistics, 1928, was held at Geneva from 23 to 28 March 1931. It considered the various questions referred to it by the above-mentioned Convention and the Final Act of the 1928 Statistical Conference.

(g) *Conference for the Suppression of Counterfeiting Currency.* — A Conference of representatives of the Central Police Offices, summoned by the Council following the coming into force of the International Convention for the Suppression of Counterfeiting Currency (1929), met at Geneva from 4 to 7 March 1931. Twenty-five countries sent representatives to this Conference, which, *inter alia*, recommended that the Council of the League of Nations should study the possibility of preparing a Convention on international co-operation between police forces and the establishment of an official police

information bureau, to ensure more effective prevention and punishment of crime. Also it emphasised the desirability of an agreement for the prevention of the falsification of documents of value other than currency.

(h) *Conference for the Unification of Customs Nomenclature.* — The fourteenth session of the Committee of Experts for the Unification of Customs Nomenclature was held at Paris from 27 January to 14 February 1931, the fifteenth at Geneva from 16 April to 2 May 1931, the sixteenth at Geneva from 30 June to 18 July 1931 and the seventeenth at Geneva from 20 October to 11 November 1931. The work of unification was begun in July 1927, since when the experts have held more than five hundred meetings and have finished the greater part of their work.

(i) *Conference for the Unification of Laws on Cheques.* — The second session of the Conference for the Unification of Laws on Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes and Cheques was held from 23 February to 19 March 1931. Thirty States were represented and one State sent an observer. The Conference dealt with the unification of cheque laws of the continental type and adopted three Conventions: on uniform regulations for cheques, the settlement of conflicts of laws on the subjects, and stamp laws in connection with cheques.

(j) *European Co-operation.* — The second session of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union was held from 16 to 21 January 1931, the third from 15 to 21 May 1931, the fourth from 3 to 5 September 1931 and the fifth on 26 September 1931. The Commission's principal efforts were devoted to the European economic situation. European Governments not Members of the League, Iceland, Turkey and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, took part in its work. Special Sub-Committees have held several meetings and numerous expert committees have studied various aspects of European economic problems such as the position of farmers, and more especially of cereal producers, the Customs system, the organisation of credit, a scheme for a pact of economic non-aggression.

The Assembly invited the Commission to continue its work, recommending that it should refer to the League Organisations such problems as might seem to require settlement on a universal plane.

The following conferences on the question of grain surpluses were held under the auspices of the Commission:

(1) *Conference for the Disposal of European Grain Surpluses.* — In accordance with the resolution of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union of 21 January 1931, a meeting of representatives of the European grain exporting and importing States was held in Paris from 23 to 26 February 1931 to study means of disposing of the grain surplus at present available. Of the twenty-seven European Members of the League, twenty-four were represented (two by observers). The Final Act, in which were embodied the resolutions concerning wheat, maize and barley, as well as a text concerning the reservation of the question of rye and oats, was signed by representatives of seventeen States.

(2) *Conferences on the General Question of the Marketing of European Grain Surpluses.* — In accordance with the resolution of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union of 21 January 1931, a Committee was constituted to examine the question of the disposal of future European harvest surpluses, and to suggest any measures calculated to lead to the desired results, including all customs arrangements. It met in Paris from 26 to 28 February 1931 and was composed of the representatives of eleven countries. A further meeting was held at Geneva from 25 to 27 June 1931 and was attended by representatives of sixteen countries, including two non-Members; one State also sent an observer. Its main task was to study the question of agricultural preferences in regard to the trade in cereals with due regard to the interests of third parties. It regretted the failure of the London Conference (18 to 23 May 1931).

(k) *Decisions of the Assembly.* — The Assembly at its Session in September 1931 expressed regret that, despite two successive attempts, it had not been possible to bring into force the Commercial Convention of 24 March 1930,

and, associating itself with the appeal of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, urged European States to conform, as far as possible, to the principles laid down in the Convention. The view was expressed that Governments should listen carefully to the proposals of experts to solve the economic crisis, and that in general an endeavour must be made to bring the international communities to an understanding of the principles laid down in the recommendations of the 1927 Economic Conference, and the Conferences of 1929 and 1930, in the studies made by the League's economic organs and in the conclusions of the Commission of Enquiry for European Union. The attention of States was directed to the obstacle to the restoration of the economic situation represented by the growing instability of commercial relations, and expressed its approval of the Oslo Convention. The Assembly welcomed expression by the experts of the European Commission of Enquiry of the view that the most-favoured-nation clause was the essential safeguard of normal commercial relations. As regards agriculture, concerning the organisation of the cereal trade, it urged continued active efforts at reaching world agreements. It noted the recommendations regarding preference, recommended a careful study of the co-operative association of production and consumption, and welcomed the establishment of the International Mortgage Credit Company. It expressed the hope that the conference convened by the International Institute of Agriculture for short-term credit would soon achieve practical results. In regard to the question of the treatment of foreigners, the hope was expressed that it would soon be possible to summon a second session of the Conference and conclude an international convention on the subject. The suggestion was noted that the closer co-operation of national economic councils might be achieved by a suitable modification of the existing Economic Consultative Committee. It considered as of world-wide importance the Soviet Government's proposal, put forward in the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, for the creation of a Pact of Economic Non-Aggression, and suggested that certain extra-European States should be requested to take part in the work of the special committee studying the matter. The attention of Governments was drawn to the recommendations concerning international agreements and the Economic Committee was requested to push forward its consultations concerning important branches of production. Further appeals to Governments concerned the bringing into force of the unified customs nomenclature and of the Conventions for the Unification of Laws on Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes and Cheques. Other resolutions of the Assembly concerned a study by the Economic Committee of the problems arising out of the idea of economic *rapprochement* in Europe, with its possible effects on the interests of extra-European States; the extension of special facilities to agricultural products other than cereals; and the question of the preparation of a preliminary Draft Convention on the import and export of animals, meat and other animal products.

(l) *International Committee for Inter-Co-operative Relations.* — This Committee, which is composed of representatives, in equal numbers, of the International Co-operative Alliance and of the International Commission of Agriculture, with additional representatives of the Economic Committee, the Economic Section of the League of Nations, the International Institute of Agriculture and the International Co-operative Wholesale Society, held its first meeting in Geneva on 9 and 10 February 1931, and its second meeting on 9 and 10 November 1931.

VI. — Income

1. *Industrial Profits*

Germany. — Out of a total of 6,096 companies (representing 43.5 per cent. of the total number of existing companies and 70 per cent. of their capital), of which the share capital was

15,564.2 millions RM. in 1930-1931, as against 15,455.6 millions in 1929-1930, the number which paid a dividend fell from 1,985 in 1929-1930 to 1,471 in 1930-1931 (the share capital of companies which distributed a dividend fell to 8.8 milliards of Reichsmarks, i.e. by 19 per cent. in comparison with the previous year). The total net profits (deducting losses) fell from 916.5 million RM. in 1929-1930 to 475.4 millions in 1930-1931, that is from 5.9 to 3 per cent., and the dividends from 6.1 to 4.4 per cent.[1].

United Kingdom. — The following table shows the net profits published during the four quarters of 1930 and 1931 by a group of 2,009 industrial companies:

	Number of companies	Reports published in		Increase (+) or decrease (—)	
		1930	1931		
		£	£	£	Per cent.
1st quarter	596	75,816,474	67,736,226	— 8,080,248	— 10.6
2nd „	619	79,490,653	64,051,136	— 15,439,517	— 19.4
3rd „	320	24,793,702	15,996,685	— 8,797,017	— 35.5
4th „	474	26,460,390	12,292,859	— 14,267,531	— 53.9
Total	2,009	206,561,219	160,076,906	— 46,584,313	— 22.5

The total profits of these companies have shown a constant fall during the year. The percentage decrease of the fourth quarter is the highest which has ever been reached (53.9 per cent. as compared with 52.9 per cent. for the fourth quarter of 1921). From 1930 to 1931 the relation between net profit and ordinary and preference capital decreased from 9.8 to 7.2 per cent., the average dividend on preference capital from 5.7 to 5.2 per cent., and the average dividend on ordinary capital from 9.5 to 7.2 per cent.

The following table gives the figures for 1931 for ordinary and preference capital, net profits and appropriations to reserves[2]:

	Ordinary and preference capital	Net profits		Appropriations to reserves, etc.	
1931	£	£	Per cent.	£	Per cent.
1st quarter	756,871,719	67,736,226	8.9	10,960,617	1.4
2nd „	745,477,186	64,051,136	8.6	9,447,883	1.2
3rd „	343,500,531	15,996,685	4.6	*Dr. 1,419,876*	0.4
4th „	383,451,625	12,292,859	3.2	*Dr. 2,485,419*	0.6
Total	2,229,301,061	160,076,906	7.2	16,503,205	0.7

[1] *Berliner Tageblatt, Handels-Zeitung*, 7th Supplement, 10 Jan. 1932.
[2] *The Economist*, 16 Jan. 1932, pp. 107 and 150.

United States. — The amount of dividend paid by corporations decreased from 5,438 million dollars in 1929 to 4,544 millions in 1930 and 3,271 million dollars in 1931, which is equivalent to a fall of 28 per cent. in comparison with 1930 and nearly 40 per cent. in comparison with 1929 [1].

2. *Wages in Industry*

On this subject reference may be made to the statistics published later concerning nominal wages (in the chapter on " Wages ") and the movement of employment (in the chapter on " Unemployment, Placing, Migration ").

3. *Agricultural Income*

The estimates available for Canada and the United States show that the fall in agricultural income continued during 1931.

Canada. — The total value of the harvest in Canada fell from $1,125,003,000 in 1928 to $948,981,400 in 1929 and $631,592,900 in 1930, and $431,251,000 in 1931. The decrease in 1931 is therefore $200,341,900, or 31.7 per cent. as compared with 1930, and $517,730,400, or 54.6 per cent. as compared with 1929 [2].

United States. — On the basis of the prices for farm produce on 1 December last, the Department of Agriculture estimates the value of the harvest of the United States in 1931 at $4,122,850,000, as compared with $5,818,849,000 in 1930 and $8,088,494,000 in 1929, that is a decrease of 29 per cent. as compared with 1930 and 49 per cent. as compared with 1929 [3].

VII. — Industrial Organisation

1. *International Industrial Agreements*

In 1931 the movement in favour of international industrial agreements, which already had been accentuated in 1930, became more marked.

(1) *Cartels*

Among the cartels which have been set up mention may be made of those for the following branches:

(i) For raw materials and semi-manufactured products: tin (Bolivia, India, Malay Peninsula, Netherlands, Nigeria); zinc (Australia, Belgium, Canada, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Mexico, Netherlands, Poland, Spain; besides an agreement between Czechoslovakia, Germany and Poland); aluminium (Canada, France, Great Britain, Germany, Switzerland); platinum

[1] *The Business Week*, 17 Feb. 1932, p. 17.
[2] *The Times* (Annual Financial and Commercial Review), 9 Feb. 1932, p. XIII.
[3] *Crops and Markets* (published monthly by the U.S. Department of Agriculture), Dec. 1931, p. 501.

(Canada, Colombia, Russia, South Africa; besides an agreement between Great Britain and Russia); bromine (France, Germany); salt (Germany, Poland); nitrogen (Belgium, Germany, Great Britain, Norway); coke (Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany); wood (Rumania, Yugoslavia); paper pulp (Czechoslovakia, Germany, Hungary, Poland).

The former aluminium cartel (France, Germany, Great Britain and Switzerland) has been dissolved.

(ii) For manufactured products: drawn wire goods (Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, France, Germany, Netherlands); industries using wire (Belgium, Germany); artificial precious stones (France, Germany, Switzerland); porcelain (Czechoslovakia, France, Germany); asbestos (Rhodesia and Russia); paper (Austria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary); sugar (Belgium, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Hungary, Java, Poland). Negotiations between industrial groups in France and Germany have led to agreements concerning the importation quota for the following products: iron and steel goods, gas heaters, enamel ware, electric apparatus, wireless articles, hollow glass and optical goods, toys, furniture.

(2) *Trusts or Fusions*

Concentration in the form of trusts or fusions has been particularly noteworthy in the following industries: saltpetre (Chile, Germany, United States); dyestuffs (Germany, Italy); soap and margarine (Great Britain, Netherlands); incandescent lamps (Austria, Hungary, Poland); wireless (technical collaboration) (Germany, Netherlands); telephonic apparatus (Germany, Netherlands); gramophones (formation of a world trust by the amalgamation of the Columbia Gramophone, Ltd., and the Gramophone Company).

2. *Rationalisation*

The further extension of the depression during 1931 and the resultant tendency to reduce costs have stimulated the movement for rationalisation. The spread of unemployment and poverty has turned the thoughts of all to social problems, while the fall in income of private producers and Governments has increased the number of measures taken to promote simplification, unification and standardisation. Marketing difficulties, which have continued to increase throughout the year, have roused more and more interest in the systematic study of market conditions, while the financial crisis has proved the utility of budgetary control and the rational organisation of credit institutions.

(1) *International Movement*

The work of the International Management Institute in 1931 has already been referred to [1]. It is sufficient here to refer to the

[1] *Cf. supra.* Part I, Chapter II, p. 31.

Conference organised by the Institute in Geneva during the month of July, which was attended by about 200 delegates from twenty different countries and at which the discussion turned on the development of groups for joint research and the pooling of experience, and the advantages and disadvantages of rationalisation. A resolution adopted by the fifteenth plenary Congress of the International Federation of League of Nations Societies, held at Budapest in May, emphasised the urgent need of applying the resolutions of the Economic Conference of 1927 on rationalisation.

The human factor in scientific management and the general social aspect of rationalisation were among the main subjects discussed at the International meetings in the past year. In August the International Industrial Relations Association convened a World Social Economic Congress in Amsterdam, when the following were the main subjects of discussion: the paradox of unemployment in the midst of economic progress, the principles of economic planning, the necessity for international economic planning, standards of living as influenced by the relationship of productive capacity and buying power, and the necessity for world social economic planning. The International Technical Education Congress, held at Paris in September, devoted the greater part of its time to the consideration of vocational guidance and training, and the recruiting staff. In September also the Industrial Management Institute of the Swiss Federal Technical College at Zurich organised an international conference to examine the practical results of physiological rationalisation. An International Economic Conference, organised by the Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, was held at Paris during the month of April and discussed, among other questions, rationalisation and international social policy. The social aspects of rationalisation were also studied at the Thirteenth Congress of the Textile Workers' Federation, held at Berlin in August, and to which two reports on rationalisation were submitted. It may be recalled that this problem has also formed the subject of a volume published towards the end of the year by the International Labour Office [1].

International collaboration in questions of standardisation and simplification has been particularly active in 1931. In this connection, attention may be drawn to the International Standardisation Conference organised in May in Copenhagen by the International Standards Association. Eighteen countries now belong to the Association, the work of which is spread over thirty one technical committees. The International Piping and Tubing Cartel, the International Wooden Screw Cartel, and the International Air Traffic Association have also been taking part in the work of these committees. At Oslo, a number of meetings were held in January between the Standardisation Committee of Finland, Norway and Sweden and certain industrial groups, when it was decided to standardise the wood industry in those countries. During

[1] *The Social Aspects of Rationalisation.* Studies and Reports, Series B (Economic Conditions), No. 18. Geneva, 1931. 381 pp.

the German Motor Exhibition in February, the Fourth International Automobile Standardisation Congress was held in Berlin. The Second Committee of the European Conference on Road Traffic, which met at Geneva in March, adopted a number of useful suggestions in connection with the international unification of road signals. The Annual Meeting of the International Bibliographical Institute, which took place at The Hague in August, discussed measures for the standardisation of paper size and forms and the unification of municipal registration systems.

The rationalisation of distribution and the study of market conditions were examined at the Congress of the International Chamber of Commerce, which was held in New York during the month of May. Similar problems were considered at a meeting of the International Association of Department Stores, which met at Brussels in March and was attended by representatives from nine countries.

Questions of management and rationalisation were discussed by a number of other meetings, including the Fifteenth International Agricultural Congress, which met in Prague during July; the International Dairy Conference organised in Parliament House, Copenhagen, in July; and the International Illumination Congress, which sat during the month of September in six different towns in Great Britain.

(2) *The Movement in Different Countries*

Austria. — The Austrian Industrial Management Research Groups have adopted the whole subject of budgetary control as part of their programme. A new Group has also been formed to carry out research work in connection with undertakings selling directly to the public.

Belgium. — The Belgian National Committee for Scientific Management has set up a National Committee for the Scientific Management of Agriculture. The main object of the Committee is to study questions connected with rationalisation. The Belgian State Railways have introduced chain work very successfully in a large number of operations where this method had hitherto been judged impossible.

Brazil. — A Scientific Management Institute has been set up in Sao Paulo with a view to eliminating waste and obtaining the best results by close co-operation between employer and employee.

Czechoslovakia. — Through President Masaryk's personal efforts, a Commission was formed towards the end of 1930 to study the application of rationalisation to public administration. The Commission is attached to the Czechoslovak National Committee for Scientific Management. The Ministry of Commerce has taken steps to reduce the cost of production in the textile industry, especially in connection with articles required by the State. The Ministry of Education has set up a special Committee to frame general regulations for the standardisation of school materials and appliances. The National Committee for Scientific Management

has appointed a special Committee to study budgetary control. A section has been attached to the Czechoslovak Food Ministry, which will devote itself to the consideration of theoretical and practical questions relating to consumption in the Czechoslovak Republic.

Denmark. — The Danish Standardisation Council has appointed a Textile Standardisation Committee to deal with goods for hospital use.

France. — During April a new Eastern Society of Applied Psychology was set up in Nancy. The Society intends to study social problems from a psychological standpoint, pursue investigations into the science of vocational guidance and selection, and encourage further research work. The Permanent Committee on Banking Organisation, to which forty-five banks are affiliated, has appointed its officers, a central committee and a certain number of committees, which will take steps to simplify banking operations, improve working methods, avoid needless expenditure, and ascertain and make known the machines best meeting the requirements of banks. The Paris Special School for Training in Banking organised in October a Conference on Banking Organisation, during which the delegates visited a number of banks in Paris, Rouen, Brussels, Amsterdam and London. In order to promote modern methods of scientific management in commerce and to facilitate the formation of management research groups, a "Commercial Management Week" was held in Paris during October, under the auspices of the French Trades Committee on Management in Commerce. A management research group has been attached to the General Federation of French Production, to discuss the use of statistical machines, and this has led to the appointment of a Statistical and Mechanical Accounting Committee.

Germany. — When dealing with the estimates for the Reichskuraturium für Wirtschaftlichkeit, the Reichstag recommended that Institution to pay special attention to the human factor in all investigations on rationalisation. As a result of this request, the Reichskuraturium convened a conference in Berlin last February to draw up a programme of study in this connection. During the course of a meeting in Berlin last March, the Executive Committee of the German General Federation of Trade Unions decided to carry out an enquiry into the social, economic and psychological consequences of rationalisation in industrial undertakings in Berlin.

The Association of Masters Weavers, the Union of Knitting Manufacturers in Chemnitz and the Association of Cloth Glove Manufacturers in Limbach, together have set up two Credit Protection and Information Offices in Chemnitz. The Federation of Lecturers in the Science of Management at German Universities held its annual Conference at Homburg v/Höhe in May, when it discussed the question of "elasticity in business management", i.e. the measure of adaptability to the fluctuations of the market.

Great Britain. — On the centenary of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, a large number of lectures on various branches of rationalisation was organised last September

in London by the Industrial Co-ordination Committee, the speakers being chosen from among authorities of world-wide repute. During 1930-1931 the British Universities carried out a large amount of research work in industrial psychology and allied subjects. Research work of this kind was undertaken at the Universities of Cambridge, London, Leeds, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen and St. Andrews, the main subjects studied including apprenticeship, the psychological effects of noise on output, the eye movements of proof readers, vocational guidance, the effects of discomfort on visual glare, blood distribution during mental work, the influence of pleasant and unpleasant states upon output, incentives, etc. The Scottish Engineers' and Shipbuilders' Association held a meeting in Glasgow last October to discuss time studies in civil engineering. The Bankers' Industrial Development Company, Ltd., which was formed under the auspices of the Bank of England to facilitate the progress of rationalisation, in January made its first issue in connection with the Rationalisation Loan of £1,000,000 5 per cent. First Mortgage Debenture Stock of the National Shipbuilders' Security, Ltd. During March an important Business Efficiency Exhibition was organised in London by the Office Appliance Trades Association of Great Britain and Ireland. The recently formed British Works Management Association held its first conference in London during last October, when the question of works management in relation to rationalisation was considered.

Hungary. — At the end of January the Hungarian Government appointed a Government Commission to simplify the machinery of public administration.

Italy. — The Council of the National Institute for the Unification of Italian Industry (E.N.I.O.S.), which met at Rome in January, has so far drawn up 132 standard specifications. The circulation of these specifications is about 2,000. In Milan a group has been formed to discuss and make public the advantages of rationalisation.

Norway. — During the Thirteenth Congress of the Norwegian Federation of Trade Unions, which was held at Oslo in February, Mr. Alfred Madsen, Secretary of the Federation, emphasised the necessity for collaboration between the workers' organisations of the Scandinavian countries and those of other countries, for the purpose of obviating the disadvantages of rationalisation. Following the appointment of a committee to draw up a report on rationalisation, the Norwegian Engineers' Association has appointed a Permanent Rationalisation Committee.

Sweden. — The Seventeenth General Congress of the Swedish Confederation of Trade Unions, held in August, adopted a resolution which emphasises that rationalisation rightly understood is an economic necessity but that its primary aim must be social.

Switzerland. — The Federation of Swiss Hospitals has adopted the principle of the pooling of experience through the formation

of research groups. Three of these groups are studying the problem of the rationalisation of hospitals belonging to the Federation. The management of the Federation of Commercial Firms of Zurich has set up a Joint Information Group. The secretariat work of the Group will be undertaken by the Industrial Management Institute of the Federal Technical College.

United States. — An Executive Order issued by the President of the United States on 25 April 1931 provides for the establishment of a Council of Personnel Administration and Advisory Committees, entrusted with the application of modern management methods to public administration. The National Industrial Conference Board has carried out an enquiry into budgetary control as practised in a number of large scale industrial concerns. The New York Credit Men's Association has begun to organise research groups to study questions of credit affecting the various branches of industry and trade. A Conference was held at Boston in June, with a view to promoting improved co-operation between commercial houses and banks. Following its tripartite Packaging Conference in New York during May, the American Management Association held in June a Conference in Rochester (U.S.A.), which discussed questions such as the effect of design on overhead expenses, the reduction of fixed charges by the use of three shifts, the indirect production costs during seasonal and cyclical fluctuations of business. The National Office Management Association held its winter meeting in New York during February and its Twelfth Annual Conference in Chicago in June. The object of the Association is to promote a free exchange of ideas on office management and to encourage standardisation. The seven leading piano factories in the United States have decided to build in future only one standard type of piano. This arrangement will enable the factories concerned to reduce the sale price of pianos by about 25 per cent. During the four months from March to June, the Division of Simplified Practice of the Department of Commerce organised ten general Conferences. The Regional Conference of the Society of Industrial Engineers, held in New York during April, studied the question of the function of industrial technique in the solution of present day management problems. The nineteenth annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States was held in Atlantic City during the month of April. The meeting discussed a number of questions connected with business leadership and market organisation

3. *Industrial Relations* [1]

In this section of the *Year-book* reference will be made, first, to the continuation of the movement for securing closer collabora-

[1] This section was included in last year's *Annual Review* under Chapter VIII: " The Workers' General Rights. " It has seemed more appropriate to insert it here under " Industrial Organisation ".

tion between the national central organisations of employers and workers; second, to the development of the study of industrial relations practised within the factory, and finally, to the action in the field of industrial relations taken by the Office itself.

(1) In 1931 the movement for securing closer collaboration between the national central organisations of employers and workers, to which attention was directed in former reports by the Director, and in the *Annual Review*, 1930, gave rise to certain discussions in Great Britain and in Sweden.

It will be remembered that, as a result of the so-called Melchett-Turner Conference, agreement was reached between the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations, the Federation of British Industries and the Trades Union Congress for the carrying on of direct discussions on matters of common interest. In accordance with this arrangement, conversations took place in 1931 between the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations and the Trades Union Congress and between the Federation of British Industries and the Trades Union Congress. The discussions between the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations and the Trades Union Congress related to the problem of the displacement of labour due to rationalisation. No joint decisions were reached and the discussions are continuing. The discussion between the Federation of British Industries and the Trades Union Congress related to the position of the film industry and the working of the Cinematographic Films Act, 1927. As a result of the discussions the Federation of British Industries and the General Council of the Trades Union Congress adopted a joint decision in favour of securing amending legislation to this Act.

In Sweden the Permanent Committee appointed in 1929, consisting of two representatives of the Swedish Employers' Federation and the Confederation of Trade Unions, together with an impartial chairman appointed by the Government, issued in 1931 a report dealing with safety services in Swedish industrial undertakings. The Committee expressed the hope that this report would not merely prove the value as a source of information on the present state of development of safety services in Swedish industry, but would be of practical use in promoting collaboration between employers and workers at workplaces where such collaboration has not yet been achieved. In August 1931, however, at the General Trade Union Congress, it was resolved to withdraw the representatives of the Confederation of Trade Unions from the Committee. This decision, which was taken against the advice of the Executive Committee of the Confederation, was deplored not only by the Minister of Social Affairs and the representatives of the Government and the employers on the Committee, but also in an editorial article in the organ of the Confederation itself.

(2) Much attention continues to be devoted to the study of the development of industrial relations within the factory. In Great Britain the Conference of the Institute of Labour Management,

held in Liverpool, discussed in some detail the advantages of labour management and the desirability of the development of works councils which, as Sir Max Muspratt said, could speak with the joint voices of management, staff and manual workers in everything that pertained to smooth working and comfort.

In the United States the economic depression has greatly stimulated conference and research on various aspects of industrial relations. For example a conference was held on 21 and 22 March 1931 under the joint auspices of the Personnel Research Federation and the Social Science Research Council on the need for research during industrial depression with special reference to the part played in industrial relations by industrial psychology.

As a result of the efforts of its Advisory Committee on Industrial Relations, the National Industrial Conference Board published an important report on the administration of policies and programmes of industrial relations. The National Industrial Conference Board considers that a point has been reached in the development of personnel administration when it seems desirable to compare the industrial relations policies and methods of representative manufacturing concerns in order to ascertain whether there is a basic similarity underlying their individual procedures, and whether experience with different types of policies are leading to the formation of a general industrial relations code that may in the future become a recognised guide for the conduct of human relations in industry.

The conclusions of the study are highly interesting. The authors find that industrial management generally appears to be satisfied that the time, trouble and expense involved in the conduct of industrial relations programmes are justified.

They also consider that the more careful attention that has been devoted to this subject during recent years and the experience of many companies in endeavouring to find the type of personnel administration best suited to their needs have resulted in the wide acceptance of certain basic principles upon which their industrial relations programmes have been built. First of these is the importance of selecting the right employees to begin with. Next, it has been recognised that, after the best available applicants have been employed, they must be adequately trained if their full utility is to be realised. With provision made for the careful selection and adequate training of employees, it is important that they be placed under competent supervision. Many employers are recognising as a fourth essential the setting aside of certain reserves to meet what they consider obligations towards their employees.

At the annual meeting of the Taylor Society on 30 April and 1 May 1931, an Industrial Employment Code was discussed which includes the following items:

> Human relations and conditions in unemployment: the need to respect the rights of all concerned and also to secure for the workers the liberation of their creative energies and a recognition of their right to responsibility.

Employee group relationships: desirability of definite group organisation of the workers, with clear responsibility for functioning as a group in attaining the accepted objectives of the business; Labour's right to organise as a party to collective agreements; deprecation of any condition of the labour contract binding the workman not to join an independent (standard) trade union.

In the international sphere some discussion of industrial relations practice took place at the World Social Economic Congress held in Amsterdam in August under the auspices of the International Industrial Relations Association. In the course of the Congress a Round Table Conference on the workshop was held, which discussed various aspects of industrial relations, starting with the Industrial Employment Code of the Taylor Society. The Congress as a whole dealt with the problem of industrial maladjustment and the possibilities of dealing with that problem by social-economic planning.

The International Industrial Relations Association considered that this problem was within its scope, for it defines industrial relations as the purposes, procedures and attitudes of individuals and groups whose functioning together constitutes industry and trade. These relations are satisfactory when they permit all groups concerned in economic life to function effectively toward a socially desirable end. Maladjustment between productive capacity and buying power as a cause, and unemployment and insecure standards of living as results, were therefore considered to be within the immediate scope of interest of the I. R. I., for they are problems of industrial relations and they condition human welfare.

(3) The International Labour Office has continued its special research on the organisation of industrial relations. As a sequel to its first volume of studies on industrial relations, it has published a second volume containing studies on industrial relations in four undertakings, namely the Zeiss works, Germany, the Fiat works, Italy, the Philips works, the Netherlands, and the Sandvicken Steelworks, Sweden.

The aim of these studies on industrial relations, as of those in the first volume, is not to build up any theory, or to inculcate any doctrine. Its primary object is to ascertain the actual development of the relations between employers and workers, both in the works and in collective negotiations between representative organisations. This development naturally differs to some extent from country to country, as it must necessarily be largely influenced by the conditions in which industry has grown up, by national habits of thought and other factors of a national character. But these general problems of the development of industrial relations are common to all countries, and, despite diversities in method, the attempts to solve them are largely similar.

A meeting of the heads of the industrial relations departments or other officials dealing with industrial relations in the under-

takings studies of which had been made by the Office was held in Geneva on 29 and 30 June 1931. The purpose of this meeting was to supplement the information which had been collected and to furnish an opportunity for an exchange of views on industrial relations in these firms. Representatives were present from the Bata works, the Siemens works, the Zeiss works, the Lens mines, the Saar mines, and the London Traffic Combine.

The Office has also made progress in the preparation for publication of a series of five monographs on the development of industrial relations since the war in France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy and the United States. The monographs on France and Italy are being prepared in the Office. For the three others recourse has been had to external collaborators: Professor Zimmermann, of Hamburg, for Germany; Mr. Glenn A. Bowers, of New York, for the United States; and Professor J. H. Richardson, of Leeds, for Great Britain. Each monograph will contain an introductory account, with a general picture of the economic and industrial background in the country concerned since the war. Subsequent chapters will deal with the development of employers' organisations and trade unions, their present position, philosophy and history. Information will also be given on the development of machinery for collaboration between employers' organisations and trade unions through collective bargaining, conciliation and arbitration, and so forth. Particular attention will be devoted to the growth of machinery for consultation between management and workers at the place of work through works councils or other forms of representative organisations. Reference will be made to methods within the individual undertaking for securing the more active interest and collaboration of the workers, such as co-partnership and profit-sharing, insurance and pensions, suggestion schemes, works exhibitions, social service and welfare interests, clubs, sports clubs, works magazines, etc. Each monograph will go on to give an account of the application of scientific methods of management to industrial relations within the individual factory, personnel management, employment management, vocational selection, vocational training and the general application of methods of industrial psychology within the firm. In each case the monograph will close with a description of collaboration between employers and workers through national economic councils and similar bodies in national affairs.

The programme of research in industrial relations has been carried out with the assistance of Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc., of New York, whose representative at the International Labour Office, Mr. T. G. Spates, has collaborated in all the studies undertaken.

CHAPTER II

CONDITIONS OF WORK

Hours of Work

National Regulations

Argentina. — The application of the Act of 12 September 1929 and Administrative Regulations issued thereunder on 11 March 1930, to make the eight-hour day compulsory in industrial and commercial establishments, encountered some difficulty on account of the general character of some of the sections of the Act and the profusion of administrative regulations. A Congress attended by representatives of the Labour Departments of all the provinces met in Buenos Aires in March 1931 and adopted a number of resolutions urging the amendment or repeal of certain provisions contained in the Act and its administrative regulations. In his Report to the Government the Director of the provincial Department of Labour and Social Welfare of Buenos Aires supported these suggestions.

A Decree issued on 13 February 1931 reduced the hours of workers employed by the provincial administration of Buenos Aires from eight to six in the day. The hourly wages of these workers are unchanged by this measure which is intended to make it possible to increase the number of workers in employment by 33 per cent.

Australia. — The movement in favour of a revision to the forty-eight-hour week was continued throughout the whole country with the exception of New South Wales. In *Western Australia* the Arbitration Court granted an application by the Government for the amendment of various awards fixing conditions of labour for workers in State employment. The Chairman, giving judgment, said that in 1923 the Court had, after thorough investigation, fixed a forty-eight-hour week for workers employed by the State, but later, by an Act of Administration, hours had been reduced to forty-four in the week. The Crown, as the employer, had now stated that it could no longer afford to maintain such short working hours, and the Court therefore ordered a reversion to the forty-eight hour week for all workers, with the exception of engine-drivers and firemen during the slack period of the year, and painters in building construction. With regard to the latter, the

Court, having decided in 1924 that painting was an unhealthy occupation, and that the shorter hours of work would do something to improve the conditions inseparable from that trade, expressed the opinion that when the health of the workers was at stake financial considerations had to go by the board.

In *New South Wales* the Act of 23 December 1930, which came into operation on 5 January 1931 and prohibited the rationing of labour in private industry, is estimated to have involved the dismissal of 26,000 workers. The employers' Federation and the Retail Traders' Association have protested against the Act. Employees themselves have endorsed the opinion of the retail traders that in the present crisis rationing is preferable to dismissal pure and simple. The Treasurer of the Chamber of Manufacturers declared that the abolition of rationing would mean wholesale dismissals and would force employers into the Federal Arbitration Court if they wished to compete with success against other States. Certain labour leaders also support rationing, as they are of opinion that the time has come for a State-wide system of uniform rationing.

The Arbitration Court of Brisbane *(Queensland)*, on 11 September 1931, fixed the standard hours of work for a large number of occupations at thirty-eight in the week. In some trades a forty-four-hour week was established, for instance, for engine-drivers, bread bakers and pastrycooks, day workers in the Northern Division, and workers employed in the extracting, crushing, burning and bagging of lime. A forty-six-hour week was fixed for biscuit makers.

Austria. — As a result of the depression, numerous establishments were forced to work short time. In order to avoid dismissals and facilitate the engagement of unemployed persons, the Minister of Social Affairs instructed the factory inspectors to supervise with great strictness the observance of the Eight-Hour Day Act, and to take proceedings against all persons guilty of infringement. By a circular letter of 14 November 1931 the Minister also asked the Chambers of Commerce and organisations of employers to urge their members to see that overtime is limited to cases of absolute necessity.

As in other countries, there is a movement in Austria to reduce working hours below the statutory limits. At the opening of the autumn session of the National Council on 21 October 1931, the Social Democratic Party asked the Government to introduce a forty-hour week. In reply to this request, Mr. Resch, Minister of Social Affairs, stated that the question of reducing working hours by legislative measures raised great difficulties in view of the lack of uniformity in the existing legislative provisions and the diversity of economic conditions. The question was raised anew during the debate on the estimates of the Ministry of Social Affairs, when a motion relating to the adoption of a forty-hour week was rejected. On the other hand, the Council approved a proposal made by

Mr. Spalowsky (Christian Socialist) on 11 December 1931, that the Government should request the International Labour Office to examine the possibility of establishing international agreements in regard to the reduction of the eight-hour day, and to take the necessary measures to see that they were applied in the principal countries.

Belgium. — The number of exceptions granted to firms in 1931 to enable them to cope with extra pressure of work due to unforeseen causes fell considerably as a result of the depression and stricter supervision. From 1 January to 1 November 1931, 258 permits were issued, as against 611 in the whole of 1930 and 1,159 in the whole of 1929, the number of workers affected being 8,628 (27,129 in 1930 and 49,412 in 1929), and the overtime allowed 862,128 hours (2,370,160 in 1930 and 4,108,417 in 1929).

The latter half of 1931 witnessed the growth of a movement in favour of a reduction of working hours. The press discussed at length a proposal put forward by Mr. Marquet, a manufacturer and Liberal M.P., calling for an international agreement, in which Belgium would take the initiative, to establish a six-hour day in certain industries, with a 12.5 per cent. reduction in wages.

The discussion on this proposal was reflected in Parliament. During debates on the industrial depression and unemployment in the Chamber of Representatives, and on the estimates of the Ministry of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare in the Senate, several speakers stressed the effect that a reduction in working hours might have in relieving unemployment. The Minister of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare stated in the Chamber of Representatives that he did not believe it possible to take sweeping legislative measures for a compulsory reduction of the working week, but that he was prepared to promote, with the help of the factory inspectors, agreements between employers and workers with a view to shorter hours and a better distribution of factory working hours over the largest possible number of workers.

Brazil. — In August 1931 the Brazilian Minister of Labour, Industry and Commerce submitted to the Head of the Provisional Government a Bill to limit hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week. The Bill states that during the night (from 10 p.m. to 5 a.m.) hours of work may not exceed seven. Whether the work is performed by day or by night, a rest period of at least one half-hour must be given and may not be deducted from the total hours of work. Hours of work may be prolonged, subject to the approval of the Ministry of Labour, up to a maximum of ten in the day and sixty in the week, but only if such a lengthening of hours is provided for by a collective agreement or is necessary to compensate for loss of time resulting from an unavoidable interruption of the work of the undertaking. In exceptional cases the Minister of Labour may authorise a twelve-hour working day in specified departments of undertakings when this is necessary for the continuation of work in the other

departments. The Bill does not apply to persons holding managerial or supervisory posts. Penalties are provided for breaches of its provisions. A body of inspectors will be formed and every manufacturing undertaking will be bound to pay every year for this purpose a sum to be fixed at a later date.

The Bill was submitted to the persons concerned who were required to put forward any suggestions they had to make within a period of sixty days.

Canada. — In his annual report for 1930 the Minister of Labour for British Columbia has devoted a chapter to the administration of the Hours of Work Act. The Board administering the Act reported that throughout the period of declining production the hours worked in the undertakings subject to the Act have not exceeded forty-eight in the week. The average weekly working hours of the 4,704 undertakings making returns for the year were 48.62; 77.60 per cent. of the wage earners worked eight hours a day or less; 13.36 per cent. worked more than eight but less than nine hours a day, while only 9.04 per cent. worked over nine hours a day.

In order that all available work in the Province might be spread over as many men as possible and thus absorb to a certain extent those out of employment, the Board of Adjustment decided that the grant of all further temporary exceptions to meet an exceptional pressure of work would be suspended until such time as conditions again became normal. In July 1931 the Order, in force since 1925, sanctioning a maximum of ten hours' overtime per week for working bakers and twenty-six hours' overtime per month for bakery salesmen and deliverymen was accordingly cancelled.

Colombia. — In accordance with a decision taken by the Colombian Legislature in 1929 the draft Labour Code to which reference was made in last year's *Annual Review* has been examined and amended by a special committee. On the recommendation of the Reporter on the Code, the Senate adopted it on its first reading without discussion and referred it to the Committee on Social Questions for immediate examination. If the Code is passed by the Senate, it will then be sent to the Chamber of Representatives for final approval.

A Bill to establish shorter working hours as a means of reducing unemployment and ensuring social peace has been submitted to the Chamber of Representatives. This measure, which covers all classes of wage earners in private or State employment, proposes a maximum working day of seven hours, which may be reduced to six hours for adult workers employed in dangerous or unhealthy occupations.

Czechoslovakia. — With a view to relieving unemployment, the Czechoslovak Minister of Social Welfare has drafted a Bill relating to the forty-hour week, which has been referred to the various Government departments for preliminary examination. The Bill

contains proposals for wide amendments to the Act of 19 December 1918, especially in those sections which govern hours of work.

The Preamble to the Bill states that technical progress in production has led to an immense increase in output, which has not been counterbalanced by a similar rise in consumption. Output has therefore had to be reduced and labour dismissed. The large number of unemployed persons also helps to lower the purchasing power of the community and has further aggravated the depression. In view of the fact that shorter working-hours appear to be the best means of improving the situation, the Bill stipulates that in all undertakings covered by the Industrial Code, hours of work shall as a rule not exceed eight per day and forty per week, including all breaks and rest periods. Normal hours of work may be reduced in connection with unhealthy, dangerous or specially exhausting work. A special distribution of hours of work will be permitted for certain groups of undertakings, including transport and agriculture, provided that the total number of hours worked shall not exceed 120 in any period of three weeks (instead of 192 hours in any period of four weeks, as at present). Overtime will be limited to one hour a day up to a maximum of 120 hours a year (instead of two a day with a maximum of 240, as at present), and will be permitted only as a last resort. Mining establishments will be subject to a special arrangement as regards hours of work and overtime. The Bill will come into operation fifteen days after promulgation, except in the case of certain industrial groups.

The National Statistical Office states that 5,972,752 hours of overtime were authorised during 1930 as against 16,277,873 hours in 1929. This decrease is due partly to the industrial depression and partly to the action taken by the Minister of Social Welfare, who had issued formal instructions to the competent authorities in this connection.

Danzig (Free City of). — In order to cope with the economic depression and the spread of unemployment, the Government of the Free City of Danzig issued, in October 1931, an emergency Order providing for the introduction of a forty-hour week in Government and municipal departments and in the public services of the Free City. Under this Order overtime may be worked only with the approval of the labour inspectors.

The Social Democratic Party had previously demanded the introduction of the forty-hour week in all undertakings, public and private alike. The Government has not given entire satisfaction to this demand, but the measures taken will provide practical experience in this field, and will show whether it is possible to introduce a general reduction of working hours as a means of increasing opportunities of employment.

Estonia. — In Estonia there has hitherto been no statutory general limitation of hours of work, although an eight-hour day has been maintained in practice. On 10 June 1931, however, the State Assembly adopted an Act whereby hours of work may not exceed

eight in the day or forty-eight in the week. If hours are longer on certain days and shorter on others, they may not exceed nine in the day nor may the total number of hours worked in the week exceed forty-eight. In undertakings in which it is necessary for technical reasons that work should be carried on continuously day and night throughout the week, the normal hours of work may not exceed 168 in the course of three consecutive weeks. The Act contains a number of provisions relating to exceptions, rest periods, breaks, and penalties for infringements. It is stipulated that the Government may require hours of work to be shorter for workers engaged in dangerous occupations. When the prevalence of unemployment justifies such a measure, the Government may prohibit overtime during a specified period for an entire branch of industry or merely for a part of it.

France. — A Decree dated 3 September 1931 extended the scope of the Act of 23 April 1929 to private undertakings engaged on behalf of the larger railway companies in handling goods on the property of the companies.

The extension, by the issue of Orders, of the hours of work regulations to the departments of Alsace-Lorraine has been actively pursued throughout the year.

By a circular letter of 21 March 1931, the Minister of Labour ordered the divisional factory inspectors to examine carefully the necessity for overtime permits before issuing them. Even when the working of overtime is not subject to permission from the inspector, he may request the employers' organisations not to have recourse to it but to engage extra staff instead. The inspectors must examine in every case whether the exceptions to normal hours are justified, and take measures against abuses.

Since the beginning of 1931 French factory inspectors and mining engineers, acting on instructions of the Ministry of Labour, have been carrying out a monthly enquiry into the number of workers and hours of work in undertakings under their supervision in which at least 100 persons are employed. The enquiry made at the beginning of 1932 covered 8,781 undertakings and 2,459,371 workers The percentage distribution of weekly hours of work was as follows: 48 hours and over: 48.40 per cent; over 40 and under 48 hours: 19.78 per cent.; 40 hours: 9.44 per cent.; over 32 and under 40 hours: 13.40 per cent.; 32 hours: 5.03 per cent.; under 32 hours: 3.95 per cent. These percentages were respectively 82.98, 11.53, 3.37, 1.83, 0.20, 0.09 on 1 January 1931 for the same number of undertakings, and 96.6, 2.76, 0.34, 0.30 (less than forty hours), on 1 January 1930 for the undertakings then considered.

Several of the political parties have expressed themselves in favour of shorter hours as a remedy for unemployment. These ideas have been reflected in Parliament, especially in the Chamber of Deputies, where during the debate on unemployment, a resolution proposed by the Socialist Party requested the Government among other things to introduce a Bill for the reduction of working hours.

The Government decided to treat this resolution as a question of confidence, and it was rejected by the Chamber on the final vote. The Chamber adopted another resolution expressing its confidence that the Government would fight the depression by other methods.

Germany. — The factory inspectors' reports for 1930 show that, as a result of the depression, the amount of overtime worked has undergone a great decrease and that hours have varied largely with business fluctuations.

In order to check the growth of unemployment and to provide employment for those out of work, measures have been taken to reduce individual hours of work. At the end of January 1931 the Government appointed a Commission of experts to enquire into remedies for unemployment and nominated Mr. Brauns, former Minister of Labour, as its Chairman. The report issued by the Commission stated that the vast army of unemployed workers could be considerably reduced by shortening the hours of persons still working normal hours. It went on to suggest that legislation should be enacted authorising the Federal Government, when necessary, to reduce the statutory hours of work to forty in the week in those industries and occupations where such a reduction was technically and economically possible. Wages should be reduced in the same ratio as hours of work so that money might be saved to provide work for unemployed persons. It was further proposed that the clauses of collective agreements dealing with overtime should be submitted to the competent authorities for approval.

The Government approved the suggestions of the Unemployment Commission and on 5 June 1931 promulgated a Legislative Decree, which was completed on 30 September 1931 by the issue of the necessary administrative regulations. In virtue of the Decree, the Government may, with the approval of the Federal Council, reduce hours of work to forty in the week in all industries and administrative departments employing at least ten workers or salaried employees. The number of hours of overtime allowed may be made subject to the approval of the factory inspectors or mining engineers. Before reducing working hours attention must be paid to the technical and economic position of the industry concerned and the number of workers available. Negotiations with the economic organisations concerned must aim as far as possible at obtaining a voluntary reduction of working hours and the engagement of the largest possible number of workers. So far the Government has issued no Orders in this connection, for negotiations promoted by the Minister of Labour between the parties concerned have given positive results in a number of industries. For example, an agreement concluded in the cigarette industry, affecting 28,000 workers, has reduced the working week from forty-eight to forty-two and a half hours and fixed wages on the basis of a forty-five-hour week. In the brewing industry some twenty agreements, covering over 20,000 workers, have established a working week of forty hours with a slight compensation in the form of wages. The forty-hour

week has been introduced in virtue of an agreement in the limestone industry, each undertaking being bound to increase the number of its workers in proportion to the reduction of hours. It has also been possible to provide work for a certain number of unemployed persons in the cement industry, in which a number of undertakings have introduced a forty-hour week. Similar arrangements have also been made by municipal authorities. The City of Berlin has introduced a forty-four-hour week in the gas, water and electricity works, the Municipal Opera House, the aerodrome and the transport services. This measure affects approximately 65,000 workers; agreements concluded in Hamburg affect 22,731 workers. Similar agreements have been arranged in Dresden and Leipzig. The reduction of working hours in these four towns has prevented the dismissal of about 10,000 persons.

As in certain industries the workers' earnings are too low to allow any such reductions, the Government promulgated on 6 October 1931 a Legislative Decree which introduced a new system of employment by rotation (known as the *Krümpersystem)* and defined the conditions under which unemployment benefit is payable to workers so laid off. An agreement has been concluded on this basis in the coal basin of Silesia between the miners' unions and the Niebag Mining Company; one seventh of the total number of workers are laid off each month, which has made it possible to re-engage 1,800 men.

The Federal Statistical Office has for the second time carried out enquiries into actual working hours in the wood and textile industries. It has also published the results of the investigations made in the building, brewing, bakery and confectionery, and paper trades.

In the wood industry, the enquiry undertaken in March 1931 —three years after the first investigation—covered 23,752 workers employed in the cabinet-making trades and the manufacture of musical instruments, etc. As a result of the depression the proportion of persons wholly unemployed increased, according to trade union figures, from 11.1 per cent. in 1928 to 48.5 per cent. in 1931, while the number of workers on short time rose from 5.4 per cent. to 12.9 per cent. in the same period. Average weekly hours were: 39.95 for specialised workers on time rates, 41.24 for those on piece rates, 41.51 for skilled workers and 40.45 for unskilled workers, both on time rates.

The new enquiry carried out in the textile industry during September 1930 was on a larger scale than that made in September 1927 and covered 55,795 workers, including 29,505 men and 26,290 women. According to trade union statistics, the proportion of workers on short time and wholly unemployed rose from 2.4 per cent. and 2.5 per cent. respectively in 1927 to 17.4 per cent. and 40.1 per cent. in 1930. Average weekly hours in the cotton industry were 40.14 for male spinners and 40.53 for female spinners; the corresponding figures for the wool-spinning industry were 45.58 and 42.39 hours. Short time was widely adopted in the lace (about thirty hours a week) and flax (about thirty-five hours a

week) industries. The longest hours were worked by skilled wool, velvet and silk weavers (forty to forty-five hours a week).

The results of the enquiry undertaken in the building industry in August 1929 were published in February 1931. The information obtained covers 228,104 workers, or about 20 per cent. of the total number of workers in the industry. Average daily hours were: 8 for masons, 8.06 for carpenters, 8.18 for helpers and 8.51 for labourers.

The enquiry into conditions in the brewery trades undertaken in August 1930 covered different districts and the various branches of the industry. Data were collected for 30,788 workers, or about half the total number. The average weekly hours for all groups of workers were 47.7, including two hours' overtime. The average was exceeded by transport hands (50.1 hours including 3.5 hours' overtime), while brewers and auxiliary staff worked less than the average, or 46.2 hours, including one hour overtime.

The enquiry into the bakery and confectionery trades was carried out in March 1931 and covered 33,405 workers, of whom 83.3 per cent. were women and 19.7 per cent. men. Average hours of work were 44.8 a week. On an average men worked 46.6 hours and women 44.4 hours. Working hours were longer for workers on time rates (45.3 hours) than for piece workers (44.5 hours).

The enquiry into the paper industry, undertaken in May 1930, covered 27,499 workers. Average working hours were 46.4 a week. Time workers were employed 46.1 hours as against 43.4 hours worked by piece workers.

Great Britain. — The effect of the change of Government in Great Britain on the fate of the Hours of Industrial Employment Bill, introduced early in 1931 by the Labour Government with a view to bringing British legislation into conformity with the Hours Convention, was the subject of a question in the House of Commons. A Liberal Member asked the Minister of Labour what was the intention of the Government with reference to the Bill, to which the Minister replied that the Government did not propose to embark on a programme of contentious legislation and therefore the Bill could not be proceeded with for the time being.

The annual report of the Chief Inspector of Factories and Workshops for 1930 states that the five-day week has made further progress in British industry. Although no industry as a whole has adopted the system, in most of them individual firms are practising it. The system seems to be popular with the workers, although, on the whole, it has not involved a reduction of total weekly hours. Analysis of the actual hours worked shows that in 25 per cent. of the works they are about forty-five a week, and in 64 per cent. from forty-seven to forty-eight. In 48 works they exceed forty-eight and in 25 works they are less than forty-five. According to the report, the five-day week has had a favourable effect on output and employers have found among other advantages a reduction in overhead costs, while the workers have

found the scheme beneficial to their health, and considerably more satisfactory from the point of view of recreation. The system is said to be more prevalent in the South and in the newer industries than in the old industrial centres.

Greece. — At a Conference of employers' and workers' representatives of the Greek spinning industry, which was convened by the Minister of National Economy, an agreement was concluded recognising the necessity of standardising hours of work in all Greek spinning mills.

India. — The latest statistics published in 1931, which relate to the year 1929, show that the number of factories in India increased from 7,863 in 1928 to 8,129 in 1929. The number of workers employed in these factories was 1,553,169 as against 1,520,315 in 1918. In factories employing men, 40 per cent. (41 per cent. in 1928) and in those employing women, 44 per cent. (44 per cent. in 1928) worked fifty-four hours or less per week. In factories employing children, 34 per cent. (30 per cent. in 1928) worked a maximum of thirty hours a week. The general situation remained very much the same as in the previous year, the main difference being that the number of exceptions authorised under section 27 of the Factories Act (maximum working hours increased to sixty per week) fell from 751 in 1928 to 204 in 1929.

The report of the Railway Board on Indian Railways for 1929-1930 shows that the total number of employees on all Indian railways and in the Office of the Railway Board and other offices subordinate thereto (excluding staff employed on construction) was 819,058 at the end of the year 1929-1930 as compared with 803,433 at the end of 1928-1929. The report states that a scheme has been under investigation for several years relating to the application of the Washington and Geneva Conventions, prescribing respectively a sixty-hour week and a weekly rest day in industrial undertakings. By the end of the year under review the regulations had already been applied in the North-Western Railway and the East Indian Railway. The report states that in specifying the branches of railway service to which the new regulations should be applied and in other directions, the Board has gone beyond the statutory obligations incurred by the ratification of the Conventions, the principles of which have on humanitarian grounds been applied to the vast majority of railway servants. The whole scheme is estimated to cost 6,000,000 rupees per annum on account of additional staff and 7,500,000 rupees under the head of capital for the provision of their quarters.

The Royal Commission on Labour in India which was appointed in 1929 issued its report in July 1931. The report gives a detailed and comprehensive review of present working conditions in factory industries, on railways, in mines, and on plantations. Some of the recommendations made concern the regulation of hours of work. In non-seasonal factories hours of work should be reduced to fifty-four a week and ten a day, and the maximum should be

limited to five a day in the case of children. New legislation should be passed applying to unregulated factories, i.e. small factories using power and factories not using power; in the latter group no child under ten should be employed, and the hours of work for children should not exceed seven a day. Hours of work underground in mines should be reconsidered; hours above ground should be limited to fifty-four a week. All workers should be entitled to a weekly rest of twenty-four hours or a fortnightly rest of forty-eight hours.

Italy. — An Order issued by the Ministry of Corporations on 22 April 1931 stipulates that the ninth hour of work must be noted separately in a special register so that the factory inspector may ascertain if the employer has actually paid the increased rates laid down for overtime by law or in collective agreements.

The growth of unemployment in 1931 has led to a movement in favour of three methods of providing work for the largest possible number of workers. These are the abolition of Sunday and holiday work, the suppression or at least strict limitation of overtime, and above all the introduction of employment by rotation wherever possible. The *Lavoro Fascista* states that the rotation system must not be considered as a means of reducing unemployment or as a system to be adopted permanently, but rather as a temporary and partial remedy against the effects of unemployment.

The National Federation of Fascist Industrial Workers' Unions has conducted an active campaign for the adoption of these suggestions. According to the Fascist General Confederation of Italian Industry a reduction of working hours is rarely effected by shortening daily hours, but in most cases is obtained by stopping work on one or two days a week. In undertakings where stoppages of work are neither possible nor desirable, hours are reduced by introducing a system of rotation, though no worker is called on to work less than three days a week.

Towards the end of 1931 the Government took official steps to support the action taken by the Confederations. The Head of the Government instructed the Government departments, the provincial and municipal authorities and public utility undertakings under State control, that until further notice persons in their employment must not work overtime on ordinary working days and on no pretext on Sundays and holidays.

In accordance with a decision of the National Council of Corporations, a Committee for the revision and co-ordination of labour legislation was set up by a Ministerial Decree of 30 November 1930. This Committee has completed the draft of a revised and consolidated text of the legal provisions relating to the compulsory limitation of hours of work, with the exception of those contained in special laws applicable to specified classes of undertakings or workers. The new measure is confined in the main to giving the existing provisions a new legal form. The Committee has not deemed it desirable to adopt the proposal of some of its members

to include in the new text the amendments required to bring the legislation into harmony with the Washington Convention. As a Bill for the purpose was submitted to the Senate in March 1930, the Committee is of opinion that prior to the adoption of that Bill it should confine itself to co-ordinating the existing regulations.

Luxemburg. — The Act of 5 March 1928 gave force of law to the Convention concerning the eight-hour day and the forty-eight-hour week. In order to bring legislation into conformity with the provisions of the Convention and to ensure their application, the Grand Ducal Bill concerning the application of the various Conventions adopted by the International Labour Conference during its first ten sessions devotes a special chapter to hours of work. The exemption granted by the Ministerial Order of 14 December 1918 to industrial establishments employing less than twenty workers, which is incompatible with the obligations arising out of the Convention, will be abrogated, but that made in favour of craft undertakings employing less than twenty workers will be maintained. The preamble to the Bill embodies several interpretations of the various articles of the Convention.

Mexico. — On 21 August 1931 the President of the Republic promulgated a new Labour Code which applies to the whole of the Mexican Union. The general principles of the Code are the same as those of the Constitution of 1917, which had been used as a basis for legislation in the various States of the Union. This legislation, however, was found to be lacking in uniformity and co-ordination and led to difficulties of practical application. As far back as 1929 a plan of constitutional reform which enabled the National Congress to legislate on social matters for the whole Republic was adopted, a draft Federal Labour Code being prepared at the same time. After careful examination by committees appointed by Congress, the draft Code was adopted with various amendments and came into operation on 21 August 1931. The new Code applies to all classes of employers and workers. Hours of work are fixed at eight in the day, except for domestic servants. By agreement between the employer and the workers, hours of work may be spread over a forty-eight-hour week so as to ensure a Saturday half-holiday. For young persons under sixteen years of age hours of work may not exceed six in the day; night work between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. is limited to seven hours; when a worker is required to work partly by day and partly by night, hours worked are fixed at seven and a half. The Code permits overtime in exceptional circumstances up to a maximum of three hours a day three times a week. Overtime is paid at twice the normal rate except in cases of *force majeure.* Special provisions deal with the work of domestic servants, seamen, railwaymen, and agricultural workers, employment in small industrial undertakings, home work, and the work of apprentices. Finally, the Code provides for penalties of a general kind for infringement of its provisions.

Netherlands. — A Joint Congress of the Netherlands Federation of Trade Unions and the Social Democratic Labour Party, held at Rotterdam on 4 October 1931, adopted a resolution demanding the early ratification by the Netherlands of the Washington Hours Convention, the limitation of overtime, and the submission of the question of the 40-hour week to the International Labour Office. A few days later, the Netherlands Prime Minister stated that while the Government was not prepared to lay the question of the forty-hour week before the International Labour Office, it would do all in its power to encourage any voluntary steps taken by employers to reduce hours of work and so to avoid dismissals of staff, but it would not have recourse to legal compulsion. In the Prime Minister's view, the responsibility for any such measures could and should lie with employers alone.

As far back as January 1931, the Philips factory at Eindhoven decided to reduce working hours in a number of departments to forty-two a week, in order to avoid dismissing some 1,500 workers. A few weeks later, faced with the necessity of dismissing another 500 workers, most of whom were fathers of families, the firm went a step further and reduced the working week to forty hours in several shops. At the same time, in order not to cut down the earnings of these workers unduly, the undertaking determined to pay them for a forty-two hour week and to bear for the time being the cost of any loss thus involved.

Poland. — With a view to relieving unemployment, the Government has taken energetic action to abolish overtime. The Minister of Labour and Social Welfare has on several occasions called the factory inspectors together to consider what measures can be applied to carry out the resolutions adopted by the Council of Ministers, especially those referring to the abolition or reduction of overtime. He has also sent to all factory inspectors special instructions recommending them to inform employers that under present conditions overtime cannot be allowed, that all breaches of the Hours of Work Act will be severely punished, and that the authorities may carry out reprisals even before the opening of proceedings against the guilty parties. The inspectors must bring to the notice of the Minister of Labour those firms which obstinately refuse to comply with these decisions. The Chief Inspector of Factories has also informed the factory inspectors, through a circular letter dated 3 September 1931, that permits to work longer hours may be granted only in exceptional cases and only when it is impossible to find workers with necessary skill among the ranks of the unemployed.

At the opening of the Diet on 1 October 1931, the Prime Minister once again stressed the fact that the Government felt obliged to increase the penalties for infringement of the Hours of Work Act, as it could not tolerate that, at a time when hundreds of thousands of persons were in search of work, overtime worked by those in employment should deprive others of their means of existence.

The Government would issue overtime permits whenever necessary, but in no circumstances would it allow the manager of an industrial undertaking concerned to decide as to such necessity. The Minister hoped that the adoption of stronger measures would help to check unemployment.

On 16 September 1931, the Council of Ministers approved a draft amendment to the Hours of Work Act of 18 December 1919, intended to give the Government power in times of economic depression to reduce hours of work, so as to distribute employment over a larger number of workers, and thus to diminish the number of persons unemployed. The draft amendment was sanctioned on 7 November 1931. Section 6 (*d*) of the Act is thus amended to provide that " in the event of national or economic necessity the Government, on receiving a proposal from the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare drawn up after consultation with the employers' and workers' organisations, shall be entitled to promulgate Orders permitting the extension or requiring the reduction of daily or weekly hours of work." The Orders will remain in force for a specified period not exceeding one year and may be limited to specified branches of industry or classes of undertakings throughout the territory of the State or in the territory of the different administrative units.

Various trade associations have demanded the introduction of the six-hour day as a measure against unemployment. A meeting of the workers' delegates in the petroleum industry held at Drohobycz on 13 September urged the introduction of a six-hour day based on the four-shift system, and a similar resolution was adopted by the delegates from mineral mines in the Czestochowa district.

Finally, the Commission on Unemployment, at a meeting held on 8 October 1931, recommended that the system of four six-hour shifts should be introduced in sugar refineries for unskilled workers.

Rumania. — Towards the end of the year, the general management of the Rumanian railways drew up a working time-table for the offices and workshops under its control which establishes the following weekly hours: head offices in Bucarest: 42 hours; traffic management offices, offices for outside staff, inspectors, and stores: 42½ hours; workshop offices: 42 hours; workshops: 44 hours. Duty on free afternoons, and on Sundays and public holidays from 9 a.m. to 12.30 p.m., performed in rotation.

In order to avoid further dismissals, the Monopolies (tobacco and salt) Fund of the Kingdom of Rumania has introduced local and temporary reductions in working hours. In some salt works a system of employment by rotation has been instituted which ensures a minimum of twelve eight-hour days a month for each worker. In certain branches the working week has been reduced to thirty hours. The effect of these reductions is to suppress output bonuses and to limit the payment for the days or hours during which the workers are not employed to the basic wage only. In

the metal industry the reduction of hours of work appears to be general and to vary from two to four hours a day.

At a Congress held in Bucarest in January 1931, the Rumanian Confederation of Trade Unions urged that certain amendments should be made in the hours of work legislation: for instance, better adaptation of the Hours of Work Act to the Washington Hours Convention; extension of the Act to State undertakings; and stricter supervision of its enforcement.

Spain. — In order to facilitate the unconditional ratification of the Washington Convention, the Spanish Government has made certain amendments in the existing legislation and, at the same time, has consolidated all the special provisions issued since 1920. The most important amendments refer to (*a*) the rate of overtime pay, which is increased from 20 to 25 per cent. above the normal rates, to conform with the Washington Convention, and (*b*) the working hours of underground workers in mines, which are reduced to seven a day, time being reckoned from the entrance of the first workers into the pit to the arrival at the pit's mouth of the first workers on leaving. The new Decree, which was promulgated on 13 July 1931, contains special provisions for agriculture, stock-breeding, private industry and allied work, mining, tile works, the metal industry, work on board ship, railways, road transport, shop assistants, the hotel industry, and hospital and lunatic asylum staff.

Sweden. — As already recorded in the *Annual Review* for 1930, the permanent Hours of Work Act of 16 May 1930, which replaced the provisional legislation previously in force, came into operation on 1 January 1931.

Switzerland. — At a meeting held on 8 October 1931, the Swiss Factory Commission formally declared that permits to work fifty-two hours a week should be given only for very urgent reasons, such as the impossibility of otherwise competing with foreign trade. The Commission decided to refuse permits to work longer hours unless the undertaking concerned could show that they were needed to cope with a temporary pressure of business and would undertake not to reduce staff during the period of the permit.

A meeting of the General Council of the Swiss Federation of Trade Unions, held in Berne on 19 March 1931, adopted a resolution protesting against the application in times of depression of section 41 of the Act of 1919 concerning hours of work in factories, which empowers the Federal Council to prolong working hours to 52 in the week in certain industries. The Council demanded that no such permission should be given during 1931.

Union of South Africa. — An Act dated 5 June 1931 authorises noteworthy amendments in the Factories Act, 1918, especially as regards hours of work. Section 3 of the new Act substitutes an eight-hour day and a forty-eight hour week for the nine and a half-hour day and fifty-hour week previously in force. When less

than eight hours are worked on one day a week, overtime up to a maximum of one hour may be authorised on the other days of the week. When, however, work is carried out only on five days a week, a maximum of one and a half hours' overtime may be worked on the other days of the week. The new provisions came into force on 31 July 1931.

United States. — An Act to provide a 44-hour week for postal workers was adopted and received the President's approval on 17 February 1931. Under the Act, which came into operation on 1 July 1931, these workers are entitled to a half-holiday on Saturdays; where this is inexpedient, as in the case of railway postal workers, compensatory time is allowed on one of the five following working days. The Act reduced hours of work for about 150,000 postal employees. It was estimated that about 10,000 new hands would have to be engaged as a result of shortening the working week from forty-eight to forty-four hours.

In Wisconsin, a statutory eight-hour day was introduced for the whole State in June 1931. The new Act provides that overtime shall be paid for at the rate of time and a half; exemption is granted in respect of farm and domestic workers, watchmen, and workers in establishments employing less than three persons.

In order to relieve unemployment, a well-known firm engaged in the preparation of cereal foods, the Kellogg Company, whose main business is situated at Battle Creek, Michigan, has introduced a six-hour day on a four-shift basis in its production, mechanical, and maintenance departments. After six months' experience of the new plan, the chairman of the company, Mr. Lewis J. Brown, announced that unless some unlooked-for development occurs the six-hour day would be maintained permanently in the company's establishments in view of its satisfactory effects. The introduction of the fourth shift has made it possible to increase the number of workers by 25 per cent.

The periodical enquiries of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics into wages and hours in various industries have been continued. In 1931 they dealt with the cane-sugar refining, hosiery and underwear, and men's clothing industries, among others. In the two latter, there was a slight increase in full-time weekly hours: the average for the hosiery and underwear industry rose from 51.3 in 1928 to 51.6 in 1930; that for men's clothing manufacture from 44 in 1928 to 44.3 in 1930. In the cane-sugar refining industry, where the first enquiry was made in 1931, average weekly hours of work were found to be 58.7 for the workers as a whole.

A comparison of working hours in 1914 and 1930 was published in May 1931 for a certain number of major industries. From this study it appears that in the boot and shoe industry full-time weekly hours decreased from 54.7 in 1914 to 48.9 in 1930; in the cotton goods industries, from 56.8 in 1914 to 53.4 in 1928-1930; in the iron and steel trades, which had the longest working hours, full-time hours decreased from 64.9 in 1914 to 54.6 in 1929. In the

men's clothing industry, hours fell from 51.3 in 1914 to 44.3 in 1930, while in the manufacture of woollen and worsted goods they decreased from 55 in 1914 to 49.3 in 1930.

An enquiry carried out in 1931 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that of 37,587 establishments, 673 employing 221,587 workers (5.6 per cent. of the total number of workers covered by the enquiry) had permanently adopted a five-day week, while 234 employing 54,124 workers had adopted it for a part of their staff. From information received by the Bureau it would appear that there is a growing sentiment in favour of the five-day week in industry, and that a considerable number of establishments now working five days or less per week temporarily will, when the depression has passed, definitely adopt the five-day week. The automobile industry is in the lead, so far as the percentage of workers on the five-day week is concerned, with 44.3 per cent., followed by the radio industry with 34.4 per cent., the dyeing and finishing textiles industry with 27 per cent., and the aircraft industry with 24.9 per cent.

In August 1931 President Hoover set on foot a movement to direct unemployment relief measures throughout the country during the winter of 1931-1932. An advisory committee was constituted and took the name of the President's Organisation on Unemployment Relief. In September, the Organisation published a report received from its Committee on Unemployment Plans and Suggestions, in which it is recommended that every effort shall be made to adjust hours of work " so that the work which may be available during the winter may be more widely and equitably distributed among a large number of workers. This may be done either through a reduction in the number of days worked per week or of the hours worked per day, or through the application of such other practical methods as may be suited to the peculiar conditions of different industries ".

In October 1931, Mr. W. D. Huntington, of Baltimore, Chairman of the Board of the Manufacturing Chemists' Association, which includes all the most important chemical works in the country, informed President Hoover that the Board had advised its members to substitute a system of four six-hour shifts for that of three eight-hour shifts, so as to be able to increase the number of workers by about 33 per cent. Several undertakings have already reduced their hours and others intend to do so. The President expressed the fullest approval of the plan of the Association.

Yugoslavia. — As a result of various protests received from firms ordered by the courts to pay for overtime performed several years previously by porters, firemen, watchmen, etc., the Confederation of Industrial Corporations submitted, on 8 May 1931, a petition to the Ministry of Social Affairs. Basing its petition on the section of the Workers' Protection Act of 28 February 1922 which stipulates that " in case of doubt the Minister of Social Affairs shall decide whether particular classes of persons shall be deemed to be wage earners for the purpose of the Act ", the Confederation requested the Minister to decide that the workers mentioned above should not

be considered to be wage earners. The workers' organisations, on the other hand, considered that, as the work carried out by these persons was an integral part of the work of the undertaking, they should be covered by the Act. After examination of the question, the Minister of Social Affairs published, on 5 June 1931, his decision that porters, servants, drivers and their assistants, office boys and cooks are not to be considered as wage earners and are therefore not covered by the Act.

The International Movement

The increasing gravity of the economic depression has given further impetus to the trend of opinion in favour of a reduction of hours of work to which attention was called in the *Annual Review* for 1930. As a result both of the decline in the volume of business and of the effort to avoid dismissals or reduce employment, the number of hours worked by the majority of wage earners has been well below the normal 48-hour week, and some of them have worked on only two or three days a week.

In spite of the alarming growth of unemployment, however, there are still a number of employers who have not exhausted all the means at their disposal before dismissing staff; and there are others who could re-engage a certain number of unemployed workers by introducing a system of rotation, but have not done so.

For reasons of solidarity the workers' organisations everywhere are unequivocally in favour of a reduction in hours, despite the loss of wages which such reductions imply. They have placed in the forefront of their demands the forty-hour week proposed by the Joint Committee of the International Federation of Trade Unions and the Labour and Socialist International at a meeting held in Zurich on 27 and 28 October 1930. The International Federation of Trade Unions and the various international and national federations of trade unions, the Labour and Socialist International, and a large number of the Christian Socialist organisations are at one in thinking that a reduction of this sort would lead to the employment of the largest possible number of workers and would give them their fair share in the benefits of post-war technical progress.

For their part, many manufacturers, publicists and politicians have come to the conclusion that a 48-hour working week is really too long in view of the substantial technical progress of recent years, and that in order to cope with the resultant unemployment there must be a reduction not only in individual hours, but also in the working time of undertakings. For this, a seven-hour, or even a six-hour day have been suggested, but, generally speaking, it is the forty-hour week of five working days which seems to be most in favour.

In several countries the authorities have thought it necessary to lay down guiding principles to ensure that employers will not

lose sight of the general interests of the community. The factory inspection services have been instructed to reduce overtime to a minimum and to insist on the strict observance of labour legislation (weekly rest, public holidays, annual holidays with pay). Several States have even taken legislative action to ensure that schemes for the redistribution of employment will be carried out in accordance with national requirements. During the year, the Free City of Danzig, Germany and Poland have passed legislation to facilitate a better distribution of employment by means of a reduction in working hours. In Czechoslovakia, a Bill for the introduction of a forty-hour week has been submitted to the various Government Departments for their consideration. Whether merely as a temporary remedy or as a permanent measure, the reduction of the working week to less than forty-eight hours has become a national problem in many countries. It is also, moreover, an international problem. At its session in October 1931, the Governing Body was called on to consider a proposal of the Workers' Group to convene a tripartite Conference to establish the principles of an agreement on the forty-hour week. The Governing Body rejected this proposal by 8 votes to 6, but authorised the Director to convene a meeting of the Unemployment Committee for the purpose of considering the possibility of arriving at a more satisfactory arrangement of hours of work by international agreement, whether general or by industry.

The Unemployment Committee met in December 1931, and prepared the text of a resolution for submission to the Governing Body [1].

[1] The resolution, as amended at the meeting of the Unemployment Committee held in January 1932, was submitted to the Governing Body at its Fifty-sixth Session (January 1932) and adopted by 15 votes to 3:

" The Governing Body,

" having regard to the increasing gravity of the unemployment crisis,

" recognising that the crisis can only be solved by the adoption of economic, financial and political measures which are outside the competence of the International Labour Organisation,

" urges Governments in the first place actively to explore every possibility of increasing employment both nationally and through the international organisations,

" urges in particular that the international action which has been undertaken with regard to public works should be pushed forward with the greatest possible energy.

" In conformity with the resolution adopted by the Governing Body at its Session of October 1931, the Committee has devoted special attention to the possibility of arriving at a more satisfactory arrangement of hours of work by international agreement, whether general or by industry;

" taking note of the fact that in all industrial countries efforts of various kinds have been made spontaneously in the majority of undertakings for the purpose of keeping in employment the largest possible number of workers in spite of reduced production,

" the Committee draws the attention of all industrial communities to the measures referred to below, some of which have already been applied, either completely or partially.

" The Committee considers that in present circumstances it is more than ever desirable that the International Conventions on hours of work,

International Regulation

The following action was taken in 1931 in respect of the Convention limiting the hours of work in industrial undertakings to eight in the day and forty-eight in the week (1919):

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Lithuania. — Ratification was registered on 19 June 1931.

Spain. — The Provisional Government of the Spanish Republic has ratified the Convention unconditionally and has withdrawn the reservation made when

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and, in particular, the Washington Convention, should be ratified, and that in any case pending ratification their principles should be, or continue to be, universally applied so as to constitute a solid framework for all the arrangements proposed below:

" (1) Overtime should be abolished. In exceptional cases, in which that is impossible, owing to technical difficulties, seasonal requirements, or the necessity of complying with a time limit in executing orders subject to a penalty for non-fulfilment, it should be reduced to a strict minimum.

" (2) Whenever the technical conditions, the composition of the staff and the individual position of each wage earner permit, the hours of work of each worker should be diminished for the whole of the staff in preference to discharging workers. This diminution may be brought about by reducing either the number of hours per day or, preferably, the number of days per week. It may also be achieved by a periodical rotation of workers over a period of weeks. The Committee draws attention to the measures taken in certain countries to facilitate these practices by paying unemployment benefits during the period of idleness.

" (3) In spite of serious difficulties, which, however, it would seem possible to overcome, and subject to technical, commercial and financial possibilities, the principle of diminishing temporarily the hours of work of each worker should be adopted in those undertakings which are working at normal capacity so as to make it possible to engage unemployed workers in those undertakings.

" (4) With a view to redistributing employment among as large a number of workers as possible, while at the same time preserving the satisfactory working of the establishment and maintaining the individual earnings of the workers at an adequate level, it appears that under the conditions of the present crisis the best results have been obtained by reducing the weekly working period to a figure approximating to forty hours, distributed over the week by different methods, but preferably distributed equally over five days where the technical conditions allow.

" (5) The Committee thinks it desirable to draw attention to the fact that in certain countries measures have been adopted to make up for the possible reduction in weekly earnings, at least in part, and that this has been facilitated by a decrease in social charges due to the re-employment of a certain number of wholly unemployed persons.

" (6) It considers it desirable to draw attention to the importance of the measures adopted in the legislation of different countries to safeguard the rights to superannuation or to insurance benefits of workers subject to these special arrangements concerning hours of work.

" The Committee recalls that, without wishing to take the initiative in bringing about international negotiations, certain Governments have expressed a desire that temporary agreements concerning the hours of work should be arrived at in certain industries. It invites the Director to study these suggestions or desires, to consider in respect of different industries whether the situation is such as to render international agreements possible, and if so, to offer his services to the Governments con-

the instrument of conditional ratification of the Convention by Spain was deposited. This reservation, which stated that the ratification by Spain was conditional on ratification by France, Germany, Great Britain and Italy, is deemed to have been withdrawn as from 1 October 1931.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three sessions, which had previously been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, with the exception of the Conventions concerning women's work, which will therefore have to be submitted to the Chamber anew. [1]

Hours of Work in Coal Mines

National Regulations

Czechoslovakia. — The draft Bill for the introduction of a forty-hour week, which has been prepared by the Minister of Social Welfare and submitted to the various Government Departments for consideration, stipulates that in mining establishments (mines, coke ovens, roasting furnaces and blast furnaces) hours of work should, as a rule, be limited to seven and a half per day and thirty-six per week. For underground work, time would be calculated from the moment the first worker enters the mine to descend until the last worker leaves the mine on completion of the ascent. A maximum of sixty hours' overtime a year would be authorised. Hours in excess of normal hours would be paid at not less than one and a quarter times the usual rate. When such work is done on Sunday or at night it would be paid at not less than one and a half times the normal rate.

France. — The monthly enquiry carried out by the French factory inspectors and mining engineers into the number of workers and hours of work in undertakings under their supervision, in which at least a hundred persons are ordinarily employed, showed the percentage distribution of weekly hours of work in the whole of the mining industry, including coal mines, to be as follows on 1 December 1931:

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cerned with a view to convening any meeting which may be considered useful for this purpose.

"The Committee had a mandate at its present Session only to study arrangements of hours of work during the crisis. It has taken note of the desires of the workers' organisations in favour of the forty-hour week, and also of the opinion formulated by certain industrial employers that when prosperity has been re-established a permanent reduction of hours of work might be possible in those industries in which technical progress has been considerable.

"It invites the International Labour Office henceforward to pay particular attention to this question in the course of its investigations with a view to submitting the information obtained, especially on the experience gained in certain cases, to the Governing Body at a later date."

[1] The information given for the four countries in this section refers only to 1931. See the tables appended to this volume for the general situation as regards this Convention.

Number of undertakings: 326; number of workers: 332,088; staff working 48 hours and over: 26.52 per cent.; over 40 and under 48 hours: 59.45 per cent.; 40 hours: 7.49 per cent.; over 32 and under 40 hours: 3.53 per cent.; 32 hours: 2.85 per cent.; under 32 hours: 0.16 per cent.

At the beginning of December 1930, the number of workers was 368,933, of whom 82.29 per cent. worked forty-eight hours and over per week, 15.62 per cent. over forty and under forty-eight hours, 0.91 per cent. forty hours, and 1.18 per cent. thirty-two hours.

Germany. — The renewal of collective agreements in the mines of the Ruhr basin gave rise during 1931 to certain difficulties concerning wages and hours. On the second point the employers were in favour of the maintenance of existing hours of work, whereas the workers demanded a reduction in their hours. In order to settle this dispute, the President of the Republic has promulgated an Order in virtue of which the Minister of Labour has declared binding an award of a special Conciliation Chamber to the effect that the existing regulations concerning hours of work (seven hours a day, plus one hour overtime) shall remain in force unchanged until 31 March 1932.

In the lignite mines of Central Germany, hours of work have been considerably reduced as the result of an agreement concluded at the beginning of May 1931 between the trade associations concerned. Actual hours of work in open and surface undertakings are reduced from eight and a half or nine to eight in the day, the length of the total shift being eight and a half hours. For underground work, hours which were formerly eight and a half to nine are now seven and three-quarters in mines situated at the centre of the mining areas and eight and three-quarters hours for those on the outskirts, the quarter of an hour's break not being included in either case. Hours of work are reckoned by the individual time spent in the mine. These changes, which are caused by the industrial depression, affect about 60,000 workers.

Great Britain. — The system established by the Act of 8 July 1926, as amended by the Act of 1 August 1930, which fixed daily hours of work at seven and a half with an option of a spreadover of fifteen days, expired on 8 July 1931 and the seven-hour day was then to come into force automatically. Negotiations concerning hours and wages between the parties concerned were fruitless in spite of Government mediation. The Government then introduced a Bill for provisionally suspending the application of the seven-hour day so as to allow of reconsideration of the question and to give the mine owners, the miners, and the Government time to study the situation created by the adoption of the international draft Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines. The Bill was passed and came into force on 8 July 1931. The seven-and-a-half hour day without spreadover is thus maintained for twelve months, as are the minimum percentage additions to basic rates of wages and the subsistence wage rates in force in each district.

Japan. — The report of the Inspector of Mines for 1930, published in 1931, gives the results of the application from 1 September 1930 of the new regulations reducing the maximum hours of work for underground miners from eleven to ten in the day, including rest periods. These regulations have involved no change in metal mines, where one shift of eight to ten hours a day was worked. In coal mines, however, where 80 per cent. of the miners are employed and two shifts of ten to twelve hours each were worked, hours of work have been reduced by thirty minutes a day on an average.

Spain. — The Decree of 1 July 1931 concerning hours of work introduced special regulations for mines. It revised the old regulations and restored in amended form the legislation in force in 1920. For persons employed underground, hours of work may not exceed seven in the day except in special cases authorised by the joint committees. Hours are reckoned from the moment the first workers of the shift enter the pit to the moment when the first workers of the shift arrive at the pit head when leaving. An eight-hour day is in force for surface work and in salt pits and quarries. Breaks for meals and rest are not included in hours of work, but all interruptions not due to the worker and necessitated by the requirements of the mine are included. The regulations provide for lengthening or reducing hours in specified cases and according to a certain procedure.

A Decree of 28 August 1931 introduced a seven-hour day in coal mines as from 1 September 1931. For other mines the eight-hour day was maintained until 31 December 1931. A second Decree, of 28 December 1931, prolonged these provisions until 30 June 1932, before which date the Minister of Labour will take a final decision in respect of the undertakings that consider the reasons for the prolongation still exist.

United States. — According to information compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, miners and loaders employed in bituminous coal mines worked only seven days a fortnight in 1931, or 23.1 per cent. less than in 1929. The average number of days worked per fortnight for workers other than hewers and loaders decreased from 10.2 in 1929 to 8.3 in 1931.

The number of actual hours of work per fortnight, based on time at the face including the lunch period, fell from an average of 68.1 in 1922 to 64.6 in 1924, rose to 75.4 in 1926, and fell again to 72.6 in 1929 and 56.5 in 1931.

The information for 1931 covers 469 mines employing 137,788 workers, or 27 per cent. of the total number of mine workers reported by the Bureau of Mines of the Department of Commerce as engaged in bituminous coal mining in 1929.

International Regulation

The International Labour Conference, at its Fifteenth Session in June 1931, adopted a Draft Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines (hard coal and lignite). In underground hard coal

mines, the time spent in the mine by any worker may not exceed seven and three-quarters hours a day; in underground lignite mines, the time spent in the mine may be prolonged under certain conditions by a collective break of not more than thirty minutes; in open hard coal or lignite mines, hours of work may not exceed the limits fixed in the Washington Convention: eight in the day and forty-eight in the week. For each of these three classes of mines, the Convention establishes the maximum amount of overtime and this must be paid at not less than one and a quarter times the regular rate. Not later than three years from the coming into force of the Convention, certain specified provisions will come up for possible revision.

The Convention thus means a considerable change for the better in the position of mine workers, and implies the international recognition of the principle that underground workers should have a shorter working day than other workers—a principle which was always applied before the war because of the particularly arduous and dangerous nature of underground work.

Besides its obvious social advantages, the Convention has certain economic advantages. It should pave the way for the economic agreements that the League of Nations considers desirable. In fact, the Conference adopted a resolution inviting the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to request the League of Nations " not to delay further the taking of any measures which could contribute in the economic field to remedying the international crisis in the coal industry, where a solution of the social problem was not possible unless supplemented by an economic agreement ".

The coming into force of the Convention is conditional on its ratification by at least two of the following European coal-producing States: Belgium, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain, the Netherlands, and Poland. During the visit of the British Prime Minister and Foreign Minister to Berlin in July 1931, the British and German Ministers discussed the recently adopted Convention. During the same month, Mr. Shinwell, Secretary for Mines, stated in the House of Commons that the British Government intended to get into touch with the representatives of the other States mentioned in the Convention with a view to discussing the possibility of simultaneous ratification. Some days previously, the Executive Committee of the Miners' Federation of Great Britain had adopted a resolution urging the Government to take the necessary steps for the ratification of the Convention. The meeting arranged for September 1931 was held up on account of the British elections, and at the request of the British Government was postponed until early in 1932 [1].

[1] This meeting took place at the International Labour Office, Geneva, on 7 January 1932. The representatives of the seven countries concerned explained the position of their respective Governments in regard to the ratification of the Convention and drew special attention to the necessity for simultaneous ratification by the seven Governments represented. After examining the position, they decided that a further meeting was necessary. This was provisionally arranged to take place during April.

The workers' organisations for their part have been concerned to hasten the ratification of the Convention. At a meeting held in Vienna in July 1931, the Executive Committee of the Miners' International Federation, although of opinion that the Draft Convention did not comply fully with the demands of the mine workers, requested the affiliated national organisations "to use every effort in order to promote the earliest possible ratification of the Convention[1]".

Convention limiting hours of work in coal mines (1931)

Argentina. — Submitted for examination to the competent technical authorities.

Brazil. — The Convention has been examined by the committee appointed by the Minister of Labour to consider international labour conventions.

Canada. — Referred to the law officers of the Crown to decide whether the subject matter of the Convention falls within the jurisdiction of the Dominion or of the Provinces.

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the General Labour Office.

Denmark. — Transmitted to the Rigsdag by a letter of 8 October 1931 addressed to the Presidents of the Folketing and the Landsting.

Great Britain. — The text of the Convention was submitted to Parliament in a Command Paper in October 1931.

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the competent authorities in November 1931.

Lithuania. — Submitted to the competent authorities on 10 November 1931.

Luxemburg. — Submitted for observations to the authorities and to the chambers of industry concerned.

New Zealand. — Submitted to Parliament on 11 November 1931.

Portugal. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers and the Department of Mines.

Rumania. — Submitted for observations to the public authorities and to the trade associations concerned.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities, who, in view of the fact that there are no coal mines in Siam, have decided that the Convention does not concern that country.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Council.

Yugoslavia. — By letter of 30 December 1931, the Minister of Social Policy and Public Health requested permission from the Minister of Foreign Affairs to submit the Convention to the legislative authorities.

Hours of Work of Salaried Employees

National Regulations

Brazil. — The Brazilian Minister of Labour, Industry and Commerce has submitted to the Government a draft Bill limiting hours of work in commercial establishments. Before adopting

[1] Later, at a meeting held in Geneva on the day after the informal Conference of Governments, the Executive Committee stated that the Conference had not reached satisfactory conclusions and again called on the affiliated national organisations "to examine and determine appropriate measures with the object of inducing recalcitrant Governments to abandon their regrettable attitude".

this measure, the Government has referred it to the parties concerned for their consideration. The provisions of the Bill are based on the Convention of 1930. In establishments where work is continuous, such as hotels, hospitals, theatres, etc., which are not covered by the Convention, the staff must be divided into shifts, none of which may work longer than eight hours in the day or forty-eight hours in the week.

Finland. — The committee appointed to bring Finnish legislation into conformity with the Convention has published its report; it proposes to incorporate in a special Act the regulations governing the conditions of employment of salaried employees in commercial establishments, shops and offices, and suggests that hours of work might be extended to permit a nine-hour day provided that the forty-seven-hour week were not exceeded.

France. — Decrees have been issued to bring within the field of application of the Act of 23 April 1919 pharmacies, hairdressing establishments, butchers' and porkbutchers' shops, bakeries, and confectioners' shops in a certain number of towns or departments.

Great Britain. — As recorded in last year's *Annual Review*, a Select Committee was appointed to obtain information in connection with the Bill introduced in Parliament with the object of limiting hours of employment of shop assistants. In a report published during the year, the Committee recommends that the normal hours of employment of all shop assistants should be limited to forty-eight in the week, and that a fixed amount of overtime should be allowed provided it is paid for at increased rates. These proposals, however, do not apply to employees in hotels and boarding houses other than those covered by the provisions of the Shops Acts, or to employees of wholesale market trades, or persons employed wholly or mainly in canvassing for orders or collecting payments.

Italy. — As already stated, a national agreement was concluded on 22 October between the National Fascist Confederation of Commerce and the National Confederation of Fascist Commercial Trade Unions with a view to establishing a plan for reducing unemployment. The trade organisations are urged, when concluding agreements for particular branches of commerce, to suppress overtime or to reduce it to a minimum, and to introduce a system of employment by rotation in the establishments where this is practicable. Agreements have already been signed in a number of towns, including Rome, which stipulate that establishments which normally require certain categories of employees to work ten, twenty or thirty hours' overtime must provisionally engage one, two or three extra persons. Other agreements have been concluded for the winter season between the National Federation of Hotel and Restaurant Proprietors and the National Federation of Fascist Trade Unions in the Hotel Industry, and between the

National Federation of the Textile Trade and the National Federation of Fascist Unions of Commercial Employees.

Netherlands. — The Royal Decree of 13 June 1929 which established a fifty-three-hour week for shops and gave shop assistants the right to a weekly half-holiday has been amended by an Order of 5 June 1931. In reply to a question in Parliament on the exceptions to normal working hours authorised by the Order, the Minister of Labour stated that the chief district labour inspectors are authorised to allow hours of work to be extended during a maximum period of ten weeks in shops in which workers are given a holiday with pay of one week or more, provided the hours of work do not exceed nine and a half in the day and fifty-eight and a half in the week in the case of adult men and women, and nine and a half in the day and fifty-five in the week in the case of young persons. These limits are maximum hours that may be worked only in certain circumstances. The maximum number of weeks during which the weekly half-holiday may be suppressed is eight, but frequently the period of suppression is much shorter, often only a week. The Minister added that the main motive for the Order was the fact that the working of many establishments would be hampered if, during the holiday period, a weekly half-holiday had to be given to the remaining staff.

Under the Labour Act of 1919, special administrative regulations are necessary to bring into operation the section of the Act which regulates hours of work in chemists' shops. The Netherlands Government has published the text of draft regulations which fix the normal hours of work at eight and a half in the day and forty-eight in the week, excluding Sunday and night duty. This exclusion is justified on the ground that it would be very difficult to deduct such periods from the weekly hours of work in view of the fact that the distribution of hours of work over the whole week must be shown in advance in the weekly time-table.

Poland. — As a measure against unemployment, the Government has decided to prepare a Bill for the temporary limitation of hours of work of office clerks to seven in the day and forty in the week.

Rumania. — As in 1930, the Minister of Labour has authorised banks to extend the working day of their accounting clerks by an additional two hours per day, except on Saturdays, for the balancing of their half-yearly accounts. Such overtime is paid at an increased rate of 50 per cent. above the normal salary.

Spain. — The Decree of 1 July 1931 concerning hours of work which, as previously stated [1], has consolidated legislation hitherto in force, also contains provisions relating to the hotel industry and hospitals. The hours of the resident staff of hotels, inns, restaurants, etc., may be not more than ten per day, but those

[1] Cf. *supra*, " Hours of Work ", p. 171.

of staff not exclusively in the service of the proprietor are subject to the general provisions, that is to say, to a forty-eight-hour week. The Joint Committees may authorise an increase in the statutory daily hours of work of the nursing and domestic staff of public hospitals, nursing homes, and lunatic asylums, provided that the hours of service do not exceed a maximum of seventy-two in the week for men and sixty for women. Hours worked in excess of forty-eight in the week must be paid at the increased rates fixed by the Joint Committees.

Sweden. — During the year the Government has published an Act reducing the hours of work of attendants in State lunatic asylums. In future, hours of day duty are reduced from 240 per 28 days to 240 per 30 days, and those of night duty from 216 per 28 days to 216 per 30 days. The reform does not fully meet the demand of the staff for an eight-hour working day (208 hours per month), but it is nevertheless considered a step in the right direction, and it is hoped that it will lead to a similar reform in the hospitals. The first collective agreement for workers in hospitals was concluded in 1931 for the Stockholm municipal hospitals. Hours of work of the kitchen staff, cleaners, etc., and stretcher-bearers are 216 per period of four weeks, i.e. 231 hours per month; laundry staff, seamstresses, firemen, etc., work 192 hours per four weeks, i.e. 206 hours per month.

United States. — The Act of 1927 which established a forty-eight-hour week for salaried employees in commercial establishments in *New York State* has been amended during the year. The working week may consist of either six eight-hour days or five nine-hour days plus a half-day of four and a half hours, i.e. a forty-nine and a half-hour week. For the taking of inventories six hours' overtime twice a year are allowed to firms working a forty-eight-hour week and five hours twice a year to those on the forty-nine and a half-hour week schedule. Apart from this special exception, overtime is limited to ten and twenty-five hours a year respectively with equivalent time off. Previous legislation authorised seventy-eight hours' overtime a year in establishments giving a weekly half-holiday, while those working on a six-day week basis were not allowed to work any overtime.

Demands of Salaried Employees' Organisations

Bulgaria. — From reports submitted to a congress of the Bulgarian Commercial Employees Union, held in Sofia on 19 October 1931, it would seem that the eight-hour day is often not enforced in commercial establishments. The congress accordingly adopted a resolution urging the executive committee of the Union to try to secure a final solution of the question.

Finland. — The annual report of the Federation of Salaried Employees calls for the introduction of a forty-seven-hour week.

France. — The principal French unions of employees in the catering trades have set up a committee to take steps to check and reduce unemployment in their respective trades. At a meeting held in Paris from 3 to 5 November, the committee appealed to the various trade unions of the French hotel industry for the strict application of the Decree of 2 August 1920 concerning the regulation of hours of work in the Paris district, and for its extension to all establishments, whatever the number of staff employed.

Germany. — At a congress held in Leipzig from 5 to 7 October 1931, the General Federation of Salaried Employees *(Allgemeiner Freier Angestelltenbund)* adopted a resolution urging the Government to ratify the Convention of 1930 with the least possible delay.

Great Britain. — At the annual session of the British Trades Union Congress held in Bristol on 7 September and the following days, a resolution was adopted urging the Government to ratify the Convention. Mr. H. H. Elvin, secretary of the National Union of Clerks and Administrative Workers, stated that the Convention would certainly bring benefit to a large number of shop workers.

Poland. — At a meeting held in Warsaw on 26 and 27 September 1931, the permanent committee of the Polish Federation of Salaried Employees advocated a series of measures to counteract the disastrous results of the economic depression, including the reduction of working hours and the prohibition of overtime.

Rumania. — During meetings held to consider the means of reducing unemployment, the salaried employees' organisations of Rumania urged that the laws and regulations should be strictly enforced and that overtime should be abolished or reduced to a minimum.

The Executive Committee of the *International Federation of Post Office, Telephone and Telegraph Workers*, at a meeting in Locarno at the end of May 1931, decided to recommend the affiliated organisations in the various countries to support ratification of the Convention.

The first international conference of public health officials, convened by the *International Federation of Public Servants*, was held in Berne on 10 and 11 September 1931 and adopted a resolution calling for the enforcement of the forty-eight-hour week.

International Regulation [1]

Convention concerning the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices (1930)

Australia. — Submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament on 21 April 1931; also communicated to the State Governments. The subject-matter

[1] The information given here refers only to 1931.

of the Convention falls within the jurisdiction both of the Commonwealth and of the States. The Commonwealth and State laws in force in South Australia either provide for a working week of not more than 48 hours, or provide machinery whereby a working week of not more than 48 hours can be brought into operation; the provisions of the Convention are already substantially contained in the laws in force in that State. In New South Wales the Convention is more than covered by the Industrial Arbitration Act and Early Closing Act. In Queensland, the Convention is also covered by existing legislation. In Tasmania, the undertakings to which the Convention applies are already covered by existing legislation. In Victoria, the hours of work of employees in shops are limited by the Factories and Shops Act, 1928, which also provides a rate of payment for overtime; hours of shop employees are fixed at nine in the day and fifty-two in the week. A Bill to amend this Act is now before Parliament. The hours fixed by the Act may, however, be varied by the wages boards. The number of hours fixed by shops boards vary from forty-four to forty-eight in the week; the Commercial Clerks Board has fixed the hours of clerks at from forty-three to forty-six in the week. In Western Australia, commercial and office clerks enjoy the same rights of association as industrial workers and can approach the Arbitration Court or other properly constituted authorities for the determination of their working hours and conditions. The ordinary working hours for office workers in this State range from thirty-eight to forty-four in the week.

Austria. — Submitted to the National Council. In the memorandum accompanying the text of the Convention, the Government states that it is not in a position at present to propose ratification. Generally speaking the present regulations are in accordance with the Convention. The provisions of Article 11 of the Convention, however, go to some extent beyond the Austrian regulations. Subject to reservation of the exemption provided by paragraph 3 of Article 1 of the Convention under which public departments, including Posts and Telegraphs, are excluded from the application of the Convention, the Government states that it has no objection to the contents of the Convention. At present, however, in view of the fact that Austria has conditionally ratified the Washington Hours Convention and that the condition attached to the ratification of this Convention has not yet been fulfilled, the ratification of the Convention concerning the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices would entail the existence of two distinct systems of regulation of hours of work in Austria. This would result in difficulties in the application of the hours of work regulations, which in Austria are not separate for industry and transport on the one hand, and commerce and offices on the other, but uniform for all such undertakings under the Eight Hour Day Act. In consequence, ratification cannot be considered at the present time.

Brazil. — Submitted for examination to the competent services of the National Labour Department.

Bulgaria. — Submitted to the Sobranie by an order of the Council of Ministers of 15 December 1931.

Canada. — The Convention, together with an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and of the provincial legislatures respectively in relation to the subject matter of the Convention, have been submitted to Parliament. The Order in Council states that the implementing of the Convention depends in part upon executive and administrative action and in part upon a basis of statutory requirements. Legislative jurisdiction touching the subject matter of the Convention, as regards those parts of Canada included within the several provinces, is primarily vested in the provincial legislatures. The Minister of Justice is of opinion that it is within the competence of the several provincial Governments by appropriate legislative or administrative action to give effect to the proposals of the Convention, subject only to the following qualifications: (1) Legislation may perhaps be enacted by the Parliament of Canada in an ancillary or incidental way in relation to industrial undertakings subject to its exclusive legislative authority. The effect of such legislation is to supersede the provincial authority; but until Parliament so legislates the primary authority

of the provincial legislatures remains unimpaired and unrestrained. (2) The Parliament of Canada has exclusive legislative and executive authority for the application of the Convention in relation to such undertakings as are carried on by the Dominion Government. (3) The Parliament of Canada possesses exclusive legislative and administrative jurisdiction to provide for the enforcement of the Convention for those parts of Canada which are not within the boundaries of any province.

The text of the Order in Council and the text of the Convention have been transmitted to the respective provincial Governments.

Chile. — A report of the Factory Inspectorate dated 28 August 1931 states that the Legislative Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 to come into operation on 29 November 1931, contains the provisions necessary to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate by a Message from the executive authority of 23 February 1931.

Estonia. — Submitted to the Riigikogu on 10 December 1931.

Finland. — In order to bring Finnish legislation into conformity with the Convention, the Government has requested a special committee to study the amendments required in the Act of 24 October 1919, as amended by the Act of 29 May 1922.

Germany. — Submitted to the Reichstag on 27 December 1931.

Great Britain. — By a letter of 13 July 1931, the Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs informed the Secretary-General of the League of Nations that the Government was not prepared to ratify the Convention. In Command Paper No. 3693, submitted to Parliament, the Government stated that it considered that before taking any steps to regulate the hours of work of the classes of workers mentioned in the Convention it was necessary to make a detailed investigation of the circumstances in which each class of work is carried on in the various countries and that only when the facts were known could a decision be reached as to the action to be taken by the International Labour Organisation. The Conference, however, decided to adopt a Convention covering a wide field of employment based on such information as had been submitted to it. In the opinion of the Government this Convention covered too wide a range of occupations to be included in any single instrument and permitted such a variety of exceptions as to render it unsuitable as a basis of international regulation.

Hungary. — Submitted for observations to the employers' and workers' organisations.

India. — On 1 April 1931 the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify the Convention. The Secretary of the Industries and Labour Department said that it was not a practical proposition to attempt to include within one Convention conditions of work which varied so much. It was premature to ask India to accept the forty-eight-hour week at once, when the Washington Hours Convention laid down a sixty-hour week for India in industrial undertakings. There was, moreover, a serious practical difficulty in maintaining an inspectorate to see that every employer fulfilled the requirements of the Convention. In the name of the Government he declared that if evidence were found to show that the time was ripe for action on the lines of the Convention in respect of particular classes of undertakings, it would be fully prepared to revise its present attitude.

The Legislative Assembly, after a further examination of the Convention, adopted a resolution on 3 October 1931 recommending the Governor-General in Council not to ratify it.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 26 December 1931.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 9 December 1931.

Netherlands. — Submitted to the States General. In a note accompanying the Convention, the Government states that in principle it is not opposed to the provisions of the Convention. It is not yet, however, in a position to decide as to ratification, for the provisions of the Convention differ in important respects from the system of regulation of hours of work in shops and offices established by the Labour Act of 1919. A Bill to amend the Act will be submitted to the Higher Labour Council so as to give the organisations concerned an opportunity of expressing their views. The Government will then decide what attitude to adopt in regard to ratification.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 14 July 1931 and to the Legislative Council on 22 July 1931.

Norway. — Submitted to the Storting on 13 February 1931. The Minister of Social Affairs stated that the Convention could not be ratified by Norway without a change of law. During the revision of the Labour Protection Act now in progress, the Ministry would, however, consider the possibility of adopting provisions that would allow of ratification.

Poland. — On 25 August 1931 the Council of Ministers approved and referred to the President of the Chamber a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Portugal. — Submitted on 6 January 1931 to the competent Government department; also referred to the Committee appointed by the Ministerial Order of 10 February 1930 to revise existing legislation on hours of work and adapt it to the Conventions.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. In existing conditions the Government does not consider that the time has yet come for it to take any measures in this respect.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Council.

Sweden. — Submitted to the Riksdag on 14 January 1931. The Minister of Social Affairs stated that the Government favoured the idea of regulating the hours of work of the class of workers covered by the Convention, but it was impossible as yet to say whether any such legislation would coincide with the provisions of the Convention. As a result, there could be no ratification of the Convention by Sweden for the time being. On various points, the Convention contained provisions which could hardly be embodied in the regulation of hours in industry in Sweden at the present time, and would give rise to still more serious objections if applied to salaried employment. He agreed with the Social Board that the Convention should be regarded as a reason for accelerating and completing the enquiries already carried out or in progress concerning the hours of work of the groups of employees concerned. When the results were available, the regulation of hours of work in these occupations should be taken up for renewed consideration, and if legislation was then found to be expedient and necessary, the principles laid down in the Convention should of course be followed so far as possible. On 13 March 1931 the Riksdag took note of the considerations put forward by the Minister of Social Affairs.

Switzerland. — Submitted to the Federal Assembly by the Federal Council in a report dated 31 March 1931. In this report the Federal Council states that the provisions of the Convention are acceptable. Before ratification can take place, however, legislation must be promulgated fulfilling the requirements of the Convention. No such legislation exists at present, but the necessary provisions will be included in the Act relating to labour in industrial and commercial undertakings which is being prepared and which will apply to small-scale industries and to commercial establishments. As soon as this measure is finally approved and it has been ascertained that its provisions correspond to those of the Convention, the Federal Council will be in a position to propose ratification.

The report of the Federal Council was approved by the Council of States on 10 June 1931 and by the National Council on 18 June 1931.

Union of South Africa. — Submitted to the competent authorities on 2 October 1930.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the legislative authority on 23 December 1931.

Recommendation concerning the regulation of hours of work in hotels, restaurants and similar establishments.

Recommendation concerning the regulation of hours of work in theatres and other places of amusement.

Recommendation concerning the regulation of hours of work in establishments for the treatment or care of the sick, infirm, destitute or mentally unfit.

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Great Britain. — The Government is not prepared to accept the Recommendations. In Command Paper No. 3693, presented to Parliament, it stated that the Recommendations were integrally bound up with the Convention concerning the regulation of hours of work in commerce and offices and postulated acceptance of its provisions as applicable to these additional classes of workers as a preliminary to the ascertainment of the facts in Great Britain and other countries. This was opposed to the policy of the Government with regard to the Convention, and in these circumstances the Recommendations could not be accepted (13 July 1931).

Irish Free State. — The Recommendations were submitted to the Houses of Parliament on 17 December 1930 (12 January 1931).

Sweden. — The Recommendations were submitted to the Riksdag on 14 January 1931. The Government instructed the Social Board to submit, if possible by 1 January 1932, a report on the existing conditions in Sweden with regard to hours of work in establishments for the treatment or care of the sick, infirm, destitute or mentality unfit. The Board was also instructed to submit by 1 September 1931 a programme for an enquiry into the hours of work of certain classes of workers employed in theatres and other places of public amusement (9 June 1931).

Uruguay. — The Recommendations have been submitted to the competent authorities. The Act of 17 November 1915 and the Administrative Regulations issued thereunder have already given effect in a general manner to the Recommendations. The National Labour Office will carry out the enquiries suggested in the Recommendations (11 March 1931).

Other Information

Australia. — Submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament on 21 April 1931 and communicated to the State Governments. The Commonwealth and State laws in force in South Australia either provide for a working week of not more than forty-eight hours, or provide machinery whereby a working week of not more than forty-eight hours can be brought into operation. The Recommendations are covered by existing legislation in Queensland and Western Australia. In Tasmania, rates of wages, hours of work, and conditions of employment of persons employed in hotels, restaurants, etc., are subject to a wages board determination; provision already exists under Federal and State law in respect of theatrical undertakings. No statutory regulations exist in regard to hours of work in establishments for the treatment of the sick, with the exception of the Mental Diseases Hospital; the persons therein employed are subject to regulations under the Public Service Act. It is considered that special investigations, as are recommended, are unnecessary at the present time. Machinery exists in Tasmania for the establishment of wages boards, and hours of work and conditions of employment may be determined at any time thereunder, upon application by any of the parties interested.

In Victoria, the Factories and Shops Act 1928, restricts the weekly hours of work in hotels, restaurants, etc., to fifty-six for females and fifty-eight for

men. There is further restriction under the determinations of the Hotel and Restaurant Wages Board and the Boarding Houses Board. These Boards fix forty-eight hours in the week. The Hospital and Benevolent Asylum Attendants Board determines working hours, wages and conditions for hospital and benevolent asylum employees. Asylums for the mentally unfit are conducted in this State by the Government. The weekly hours of work of the employees do not exceed forty-eight in the week.

Austria. — Submitted to the National Council. The memorandum accompanying the text of the Recommendations states that they have been approved by the Government.

Brazil. — Submitted to the technical services of the Government.

Bulgaria. — Submitted to the Sobranie by an order of the Council of Ministers of 15 December 1931.

Canada. — Submitted to the Parliament of Canada together with an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and of the provincial legislatures respectively in relation to the subject matter of the Recommendations. Transmitted also to the Governments of the provinces. The only regulation of hours of employment in hotels and restaurants in Canada is effected through orders of the minimum wage boards of several provinces and applies to women only. These boards have authority to review or alter orders issued. Laws providing for a weekly rest day in Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec apply to hotel employees. No action appears to have been taken to regulate hours of labour in establishments for the care of the sick, etc.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate by a Message from the executive authority of 23 February 1931.

India. — On 3 October 1931 the Legislative Assembly adopted a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council not to accept these Recommendations.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Japan. — On 23 December 1931 the Cabinet decided to adopt the Recommendations.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Council of Ministers on 9 December 1931.

Netherlands. — Submitted to the Second Chamber of the States General in October 1931. In a note accompanying the Recommendations, the Government observes that the enquiry proposed by the Recommendation concerning the regulation of hours of work in hotels, restaurants and similar establishments would cover undertakings of the most varied character, would be extremely costly, and would require much time. For these reasons, the Government cannot pledge itself to undertake such an enquiry. In its opinion, it is possible to draw up a system of statutory regulations on hours of work in such establishments without such an enquiry, especially if the authorities empowered to draft the regulations consult the employers' and workers' organisations concerned. The Government is at present preparing such regulations and has begun its consultation of the organisations concerned.

For the same reasons, the Government cannot pledge itself to carry out the enquiry proposed in the Recommendation concerning the regulation of hours of work in theatres and other places of public amusement.

In regard to the application of the Recommendation concerning the regulation of hours of work in establishments for the treatment or care of the sick, etc., the Government states that the treatment and care of the sick and mentally unfit are already regulated in the Netherlands by the Decree of 1928. This Decree provides for a normal working week of fifty-five hours. The Government does not think that it would be possible to reduce these hours to forty-eight in the week in the near future, especially in view of the fact that this work has to be carried out on all seven days of the week. It therefore appears to it that the enquiry proposed by the Recommendation would serve no purpose.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the House of Representatives on 14 July 1931 and to the Legislative Council on 22 July 1931.

Norway. — Submitted to the Storting on 13 February 1931.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. In existing conditions the Government does not consider that the time has yet come for it to take any measures in this respect.

Switzerland. — Submitted to the Federal Assembly by the Federal Council in a report dated 31 March 1931. In this report the Federal Council states its intention to give effect to the Recommendations and to carry out the enquiries they call for within the period fixed.

Union of South Africa. — Submitted to the competent authorities on 2 October 1930.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the legislative authority on 23 December 1931.

Weekly Rest

Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings

National Regulations

Bolivia. — On the initiative of the National Chamber of Commerce, a Bill relating to public holidays and Sunday rest has been tabled in the Chamber of Representatives. The Bill proposes that all public and private offices and all industrial and commercial concerns, with the exception of those engaged in the sale of bread, meat, and vegetables, should close from Saturday midday till Monday morning. These regulations would not apply to pharmacies opening at special hours, or to post and telegraph offices, which will be subject to the hours laid down respectively by municipal by-laws and service regulations.

Chile. — A Decree of 29 May 1931 entitled slaughterhouse employees to a Sunday rest.

The Sunday Rest Act of 5 November 1917 has been embodied in the consolidated text promulgated by the Legislative Decree of 13 May 1931, which incorporates in amended form the various labour laws in force.

Colombia. — An Act was promulgated on 18 May 1931 amending the Sunday Rest Act of 1926; the administration of both Acts is governed by the Decree of 23 July 1931. It reinforces the previous Act by providing more severe penalties for industrial or commercial employers who require or allow manual workers or salaried employees to perform work for them on Sundays.

Czechoslovakia. — The draft Bill relating to hours of work prepared by the Minister of Social Welfare increases the weekly rest period from thirty-two to thirty-six hours. Special measures are laid down to facilitate the changing of shifts in establishments carrying on continuous processes. The weekly rest period for

women is to begin at 12 noon on Saturday (instead of at 2 p.m. as at present).

France. — A classification made in 1930 of 331,641 industrial undertakings whose weekly rest arrangements were known to the factory inspectors gave the following results: normal system (collective Sunday rest): 318,285; collective rest on a weekday: 2,261; collective rest from Sunday midday to Monday midday: 399; collective rest on Sunday afternoon with compensatory time off: 1,055; rest by rotation: 8,952; special systems in works carrying on continuous processes: 689.

Germany. — In Prussia, a Police Order of 23 November 1931, which came into force on 15 December 1931, safeguards rest periods on Sunday and on holidays by prohibiting, except in specified cases, all work that is done in public and all noisy work, unless specially authorised by Federal legislation.

India. — For details concerning weekly rest on the railways, see under " Hours of Work ".

Italy. — The Royal Decrees of 28 May and 28 September 1931 authorise the granting of the weekly rest period in rotation in the wood-preserving industry for workers engaged in filling or emptying steeping-vats and in oversea passenger traffic companies for staff employed in agencies and offices.

The spread of the economic depression and unemployment has drawn the attention of all circles to the necessity of observing the Sunday rest legislation and of suppressing Sunday work. On 25 November 1931, the Head of the Government sent instructions to the Government departments, provincial and municipal authorities, and public utility undertakings under State control that, until further notice, persons employed by them must on no pretext work on Sundays and holidays.

Japan. — Since 1 April 1931, train staff on the railways have been officially entitled to a regular monthly holiday of three days in the case of engine-drivers and two days in the case of guards. Hitherto these workers had only one or two days' rest a month and this practice was not official.

Luxemburg. — A decision of the Correctional Court of Luxemburg, dated 4 July 1931, lays down that even when the workers consent, an employer who permits work on the compensatory rest day prescribed by the Act of 21 August 1913 shall be liable to the penalties prescribed in that Act, since any surrender by the workers of their rights under the provisions in question is void.

Mexico. — The Federal Labour Code of 21 August 1931 stipulates that as a rule workers shall be entitled to at least one day's rest for every six days' work and that the rest day shall fall on a Sunday. In industries engaged in continuous processes the workers shall also be entitled to the number of weekly rest

days fixed by the Code as compulsory, the parties concerned being required to establish by mutual agreement the days on which workers are entitled to rest days after six days' work or the days to be granted in lieu.

Morocco. — An Order of 8 May 1931 embodies regulations relating to the supervision of the enforcement of the Decree of 18 December 1930 which established the weekly rest in French Morocco. In virtue of certain exemptions stipulated in the Decree, three other Orders were issued on the same date, the first of which completes the list of undertakings permitted to grant the weekly rest by rotation, the second determines the exemptions to be granted to skilled workers employed in factories engaged in continuous processes or in the printing of newspapers, and the third contains the lists of undertakings permitted to suspend the weekly rest.

Switzerland. — On 26 September 1931, the Swiss Federal Parliament adopted an Act relating to the weekly rest which is intended to secure the uniform regulation of the matter throughout the cantons. In the opinion of the Federal Council, this Act will allow the ratification of the Convention concerning weekly rest in industrial undertakings. The new regulations apply to public and private undertakings in trade, handicrafts, industry, transport and communications, and all similar branches of the economic system, in so far as the provisions of Federal legislation relating to factory workers, public servants, and the hours of work in railway services and transport and communications do not apply. As a rule, a weekly rest period of twenty-four hours must be granted and must fall on a Sunday. During the period workers are forbidden to do any work connected with their trade for a third person. The Federal Council is empowered to issue the Orders and administrative regulations necessary for the enforcement of the Act, after consultation with the cantonal authorities and the trade organisations concerned. The cantonal authorities are responsible for the application of the Act and Orders issued thereunder, subject to the supervision of the Federal Council.

International Regulation [1]

Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings (1921).

Brazil. — The Committee appointed by the Minister of Labour to study Conventions has recommended the ratification of the Convention.

Canada. — In a memorandum communicated to the International Labour Office, the Dominion Government states that the question of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings falls within Federal legislative jurisdiction. The provisions of the Lord's Day Act embody substantially the provisions of the Convention.

[1] The information given here refers only to the year 1931. The tables given at the end of this volume show the general situation in respect of this Convention.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Denmark. — On 1 December 1931 the Folketing discussed a resolution proposing ratification. The resolution has been referred to the competent committee.

Lithuania. — Ratification registered on 19 June 1931.

Sweden. — Ratification registered on 22 December 1931.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had previously been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been adopted by the Senate, with the exception of the Convention concerning women's work; it will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions to the Chamber anew.

Weekly Rest in Commercial Establishments

National Regulations

Belgium. — A decision of the Correctional Court of Brussels, dated 13 October 1931, states that the prohibition of Sunday work applies to managers of shops even when they have an interest in the business.

Colombia. — (See under "Weekly Rest in Industrial Undertakings".)

Czechoslovakia. — A decision of the Council of Ministers establishes a complete Sunday rest in commerce in the town of Bratislava. The general meetings of the Private Employees' Association (Prague, 18 and 19 April 1931) and of the Commercial Employees' Union (Prague, 26 April 1931) both demanded the introduction of legislation to establish a complete weekly rest in commercial establishments.

France. — The enforcement of the Act of 29 December 1923 concerning the general closing of establishments during the weekly rest has again added to the number of commercial employees who can benefit by the collective rest.

A Bill, already passed by the Chamber of Deputies, which proposes to make an exception to the general closing regulations under the Act of 29 December 1923 in favour of sites rented by exhibitors within exhibitions, fairs or salons, on condition that the paid staff be not employed during the weekly rest day, is at present before the Senate and has been favourably reported on by the Commerce Committee.

The trade organisations of hotel, restaurant and café employees have on several occasions called for the observance of the Weekly Rest Act, which, they allege, is not yet applied in numerous establishments.

Great Britain. — The question of the opening of cinemas on Sundays has not yet been definitely settled, but pending a final settlement, the Act of 7 October 1931 allows establishments which

were authorised by the local authorities at least twelve months ago to give Sunday performances and concerts to continue to do so for another year.

Hungary. — The Minister of Commerce has issued several Orders concerning the weekly rest, one of which, dated 4 May 1931, suspends as a temporary measure the statutory rest period in firms manufacturing soda, while others, dated 9 June 1931, regulate the sale of petrol and lubricating oil and the work authorised in garages and film renting agencies on Sundays and St. Stephen's Day.

A national meeting of the food, drink and grocery trades, held in Budapest in March 1931, called for the introduction of complete day's rest on Sundays; on the other hand, a meeting of master bakers held on 19 May 1931 protested against any limitation of existing working hours on Sundays.

Italy. — The Corporation of Commerce has expressed a favourable opinion on the draft Bill for the regulation of the weekly rest and public holidays in commerce and of the opening and closing hours in shops.

In commerce, as in industry, attempts are being made to prevent work on Sundays and holidays as a means of reducing unemployment. The national agreement concluded on 23 October 1931 between the National Fascist Confederation of Commerce and the National Federation of Fascist Commercial Workers' Unions with a view to establishing guiding principles for the reduction of unemployment among commercial workers, which has already led to the conclusion of a number of local agreements, recommended the strict enforcement of the statutory provisions relating to weekly rest and public holidays.

Morocco. — A number of Orders issued by the Resident-General in October 1931 regulated the weekly rest in hairdressing establishments, wine and beer shops, and chemists' shops in a certain number of Moroccan towns.

Poland. — The Executive Committee of the Polish Hairdressers' Union adopted, on 6 October 1931, a resolution protesting against all plans to authorise the opening of hairdressing establishments on Sundays and public holidays. The Committee considers that unemployment can be reduced only by the general closing of hairdressing establishments on Sundays and public holidays and by the strictest observance of the eight-hour day.

Rumania. — The workers' organisations, including the General Confederation of Labour, are continuing their campaign in favour of stricter observance of the Act relating to the weekly rest in commerce.

Switzerland. — The Federal Act of 26 September 1931, which, as previously stated [1], applies to commercial establishments,

[1] Cf. *supra*, p. 193.

contains special provisions for hotels, restaurants, and public houses in order to permit the normal working of such establishments on Sunday, which is their busiest day.

Uruguay. — The Act of 22 June 1931 prescribes Sunday closing for chemists' shops, with the exception of those opening on special duty from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m. Provision is also made for night work. The Act of 22 October 1931 provides for an uninterrupted weekly rest of 36 hours from 12.30 p.m. on Saturdays in all commercial establishments except those enumerated in the Act. The Decree of 27 October 1931 exempts stores of home-grown fruit and shops for the sale of woollen and leather goods for export from the application of the Act of 22 October 1931.

International Regulation [1]

Recommendation concerning the application of the weekly rest in commercial establishments (1921)

Canada. — In a memorandum communicated to the International Labour Office, the Dominion Government states that the object of the Recommendation is substantially met in Canada by the Lord's Day Act. The One Day's Rest in Seven Act of the Province of Manitoba provides for a weekly rest for the majority of workers in that province.

Weekly Rest in Occupations other than Industrial or Commercial

Colombia. — The workers employed on the banana plantations of the Magdalena zone are demanding a weekly rest day with pay.

France. — A Bill to give chauffeurs of private motor-cars the right to a weekly rest has been laid before the Chamber of Deputies.

The question of better weekly rest arrangements for Government and public office clerks is still under consideration in the Chamber of Deputies.

New Zealand. — The Arbitration Court has decided that sheep-shearing on Sunday is illegal and must be prohibited.

Spain. — The Order of 20 April 1931 applies the statutory weekly rest to the municipal police.

Uruguay. — A Decree of 7 June 1931 has introduced various amendments in the weekly rest regulations for drivers of private vehicles. These workers are no longer allowed to arrange with their employer to forgo half of the weekly rest day in order to accumulate periodical leave.

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[1] The information given refers only to 1931.

International Activity in 1931

The international regulation of the Sunday rest made further progress in 1931. The Draft Convention concerning hours of work in coal mines adopted by the Conference at its Fifteenth Session provides for the observance of the Sunday rest in the mines. Workers must not, as a rule, be employed on underground work on Sundays and legal public holidays. The exceptions are clearly fixed and limited. Work permitted under the exceptions must be paid for at not less than one-and-a-quarter times the regular rate; workers who are engaged to any considerable extent on such work must receive either a compensatory rest period or an extra payment over and above the increased rate already mentioned. The new regulations complete, so far as coal mines are concerned, the provisions of the 1921 Convention concerning the application of the weekly rest in industrial undertakings, where the provisions relating to exceptions are much less precise.

The question of the international regulation of the weekly rest in the glass industry will in all probability soon be carried a step further. It has in fact been submitted to the Governing Body with a view to inclusion in the Agenda of the Conference [1].

The measures so achieved, or on the way to achievement, tend to secure a collective Sunday rest for the largest possible number of workers. This was also the aim the International Conference of Paper Workers (Stockholm, 8-10 October 1931) had in view when it requested the assistance of the International Labour Office in an effort to secure certain measures by means of international Conventions, including the statutory prohibition of Sunday work, with the exception of work in the sections of cellulose factories where processes are necessarily continuous.

The Weekly Half-Holiday

In the English-speaking countries, many workers, especially those employed in commerce, are entitled, in addition to a complete rest on Sunday, to a weekly half-holiday which falls either on a Saturday or on another day of the week, usually Wednesday, Thursday or Friday. In this field two new measures are to be noted for 1931.

Canada. — During the winter session, the Saskatchewan Legislature passed an Act granting a weekly half-holiday on Wednesday afternoons to shop employees in the larger cities.

United States. — An Act of 3 March 1931 grants a weekly Saturday half-holiday with pay throughout the year to all civil

[1] At its session in January 1932, the Governing Body decided to enter on the Agenda of the 1933 Session of the International Labour Conference the question of the methods of providing rest and alternation of shifts in automatic sheet-glass works.

employees of the Federal Government and the District of Columbia, except employees of the Postal Service, employees of the Panama Canal on the Isthmus, and employees of the Interior Department in the field. This measure does not in any way deprive employees of any leave or holidays with pay to which they may be entitled under existing laws.

Night Work in Bakeries

National Regulations

Austria. — The Ministry of Social Welfare has drafted a Bill to amend the Act of 3 April 1919 relating to conditions of work in bakeries. The Bill provides that the period during which night work is forbidden shall be from 8 p.m. to 4 a.m. instead of 9 p.m. to 5 a.m. as formerly. Preliminary work, such as the preparation of dough, the heating of ovens, etc., will be allowed before the time for beginning work, but not more than the essential number of auxiliary workers may be employed on such work. The workers' organisations adopted at their sitting of 22 February 1931 a resolution urging all bakery workers to oppose the Bill. According to recent information, the Bill has not yet come up for discussion before the Committee on Social Questions.

Belgium. — A Congress of Bakery Operatives, held in Brussels on 29 March 1931, discussed the question of night work. Regret was again expressed at the unequal treatment meted out to large and small bakeries, the latter not being covered by the Act unless they employ on night work persons not belonging to the owner's family.

On the other hand, the Belgian Co-operative Union, at its Congress at La Louvière on 20 June 1931, showed itself in favour of reintroducing night work in bakeries. The main passages of its resolution on this question are as follows:

"Recalling that the co-operative societies have stated their readiness to bear the financial sacrifices entailed by the abolition of night work, provided that the Act is applied generally and to all undertakings, whether carried on by small master bakers or as a small, medium or large-scale industry;

"Considering that the provisions of the Act are not respected by small master bakers or in small and medium-scale mechanical bakeries, that all such establishments work in notoriously unhygienic conditions, and that many facts have come to hand during recent years to show that neither the measures taken by the factory inspectors nor the action of the trade unions has induced these establishments to comply with the Act . . .

"Decides to support the amendment of the Act of 14 June 1921 so that the regulations applying to undertakings or branches of undertakings in which work is organised in successive shifts may be extended to bakeries organised on similar lines."

Following this Congress, the Central Union of Food and Drink Workers convened a special Congress of bakery workers at Brussels on 12 July 1931. After discussing the above resolution, the meeting protested against the attitude adopted by the Co-operative

Union. It, too, demanded revision of the Act of 14 June 1921, but on the lines of the provisions of the international Convention prohibiting night work in bakeries. If this were found to be impossible, the Congress called for the adoption of the Uytroever-Hallet Bill which would prohibit work between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. The Union expressed its readiness to discuss the question with the delegates from the Co-operative Union.

Bulgaria. — A circular of 5 December 1929, to which attention was drawn in the Report of the Director to the Fourteenth Session of the Conference, instructed factory inspectors to insist on the strictest enforcement of the Convention. The difficulty of applying the provisions of the Convention on the basis only of a circular, however, led the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour to issue a new circular during October 1930 to suspend the application of the first.

As a result of a Conference held on 21 September, and attended by representatives of master bakers and bakery workers, the Bulgarian Department of Labour issued regulations subsequently sanctioned by a Royal Order of 22 October 1931, under which night work is forbidden from 9 p.m. until 4 a.m. Preparatory work in connection with kneading must be carried out during the night by the workers on duty. On the eve of public holidays work is to begin at midnight, and at 3 a.m. on days following holidays.

France. — On 21 May and 3 July 1931, meetings of representatives of the employers' and workers' organisations were convened by the Minister of Labour with a view to arriving at an agreement on the abolition of night work, but without result.

The exclusion of large mechanical bakeries from the scope of the Act prohibiting night work in bakeries continues to win fresh support. Mr. Justin Godart, a convinced supporter of the prohibition of night work, when carried out in conditions likely to endanger the health of workers and consumers and requiring bakery operatives to work every night, has recently given his opinion on night work in large mechanical bakeries installed in bright, well-ventilated premises where human labour is lightened and even done away with by machinery. A large mechanical bakery set up by the Cambrai Co-operative Union was fined for infringing the Act prohibiting night work in bakeries. It requested Mr. Justin Godart to give his opinion on the present situation. He stated that, although the Act of 1919 had resulted in technical improvements and useful innovations in a trade hidebound by tradition and grossly anti-hygienic, and although it was a step in the right direction, there was a risk at present of its becoming an obstacle to further progress. Mechanical manufacture of bread in large centres of consumption was, in his opinion, inevitable, but it entailed considerable expenditure and the necessity for mass production; it could not have its full effect of lowering the cost of production unless the work were organised in a way impossible under the present Act, but urgently necessary. Mr. Godart there-

fore considered that, as in all other undertakings with continuous processes, there should be an alternation of day and night work.

At its thirty-fifth session, held in Paris from 16 to 20 November 1931, the Supreme Labour Council took note of the following resolution adopted by the bakery unions affiliated to the General Confederation of Labour and submitted by the workers' delegation to the Council:

"Considering that all attempts to industrialise the bakery trade should be supported and encouraged as the sole means of allowing work to be carried out more rationally in spacious and healthy premises, and as tending to facilitate the strict enforcement of the eight-hour day and the weekly rest by an alternation of day and night work such as is adopted in many concerns, for instance transport undertakings, works carrying on continuous processes, etc.;

"Considering, further, that mass production facilitates the wrapping up of bread and the lowering of the cost of production, results which the consumer appreciates from the twofold standpoint of hygiene and economy;

"But convinced that the Act of 28 March 1919 absolutely prevents the progress of industrialisation in France;

"The meeting expresses the desire:

"That the Supreme Labour Council should be requested to study what amendments should be made in existing legislation to allow the normal development of mechanical bakeries."

The National Federation of Food and Drink Workers has protested against this resolution, reaffirmed its conviction that night work is unnecessary in the so-called mechanical bakeries, and maintained that it is inadmissible that technical progress should be the cause of retrogression in the social field.

Germany. — The Order of 23 November 1918 prohibited work in bakeries between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. It was intended to replace this Order by clause 24 of the Labour Protection Bill, which has been approved by the Federal Council (17 January 1929). This clause would prohibit night work from 9 p.m. to 5 a.m. and empowers the authorities of the various Federal States to advance or delay the period of prohibition by not more than one hour.

A Legislative Decree issued by the President of the Republic *(II. Notverordnung)* on 5 June 1931 contains (Chapter II, section 2) an amendment to the Order of 23 November 1918, which authorises the Minister of Labour to suspend or relax the provisions relating to the prohibition of night work in bakeries employing three or more shifts of workers, on condition that only male workers over eighteen years of age shall be required to work at night and that the undertakings are situated in towns of at least 100,000 inhabitants, except in special circumstances.

The Committee on Labour, which was asked by the Provisional Federal Economic Council to give its opinion as to the suitability of a suspension or relaxation of the provisions relating to night work in bakeries, unanimously declared that the reintroduction of night work should not be considered unless it involved a considerable reduction in the price of bread. Opinions, however, were divided on the question whether this step would in fact result in a reduction of prices.

The Committee adopted two proposals, one of which authorised the commencement at 3 a.m. of preliminary work for the making of bread and rolls, while the other called for the repeal of the provision prohibiting the delivery of bread before the time for which sales were permitted to begin, on the ground that this provision raised the price of bread. The Committee expressed itself unanimously in favour of maintaining the provision making it illegal to sell the products of bakeries before 7 a.m.

Since the promulgation of the Decree, the National Association of Consumers' Co-operative Societies has reopened its campaign in favour of night work and has asked the competent Federal and State authorities to use their influence to enable the authorisation to be put into practice immediately.

At a meeting held in Berlin on 25 November 1931, the Executive Committee of the German General Federation of Trade Unions adopted a resolution protesting against the powers given to the Minister of Labour to reintroduce, partially or otherwise, night work in large bakeries. The Federation is convinced that this measure will not lead to a reduction in the price of bread, since it affects only large establishments which, after all, form a bare 10 per cent. of the bakery trade. The Federation considers that a reduction in the price of bread should be brought about not by the repeal of an important measure for the protection of labour, but by lowering the high customs duties on wheat.

Great Britain. — In the House of Commons on 26 March 1931, the Home Secretary stated that, as previously announced on various occasions, the Government intended to introduce provisions relating to night work in bakeries in the Factory Bill, but he could not say when that Bill would be adopted.

Italy. — The National Managing Committee of the Italian Master Bakers' Association, at a meeting held in Rome on 16 and 17 July 1931, again discussed the Act of 22 March 1908 prohibiting night work in bakeries and the Decree of 27 March 1927, which empowers the Minister of Corporations to authorise night work in large mechanical bakeries with ovens constructed for continuous operations, provided that night work alternates with day work.

The Committee stated that it favours a revision of both instruments, which, in its opinion, are too rigid. The workers' organisations have replied, through the medium of the press, that the Decree of 1927 has not led to the expected technical improvements and that the 1908 Act is sufficiently elastic, for it makes provision for all the exceptions required.

Lithuania. — The Act of 31 October 1931 prohibits the making of bread, pastry and other flour confectionery between the hours of 9 p.m. and 4 a.m. It permits night work in case of unavoidable circumstances or for repairs to be done to machinery or plant, and allows exceptions for the execution of preparatory and sup-

plementary work, provided that no more than the strictly necessary number of workers shall be employed in such work, and for work immediately before the principal national holidays, when an increased demand for the products in question is to be expected.

Luxemburg. — The Draft Administrative Regulations issued under the Act of 5 March 1928 approving the provisions of the Convention are in conformity with those provisions.

Netherlands. — In a message to the Superior Labour Council the Minister of Labour, Commerce and Industry has asked it to give an opinion on a proposed amendment to the Hours of Work Act. The proposal is to allow work to begin at 5 a.m. instead of 6 a.m. in bakeries employing less than six workers; hitherto this was permitted only in establishments employing more than six workers. In his note the Minister set forth the attitude of the Netherlands Government with regard to the Convention concerning night work in bakeries, and stated that the national legislation was not in conformity with the Convention on the following two points:

(1) A master baker who does not employ outside labour may work at night if he has received permission to do so. Such permission is not refused unless the interests of other bakeries require it.

(2) The law covers only the manufacture of bread to the exclusion of all other bakery products.

The Minister considered that a restriction of the employer's freedom, as suggested in the Convention, would not raise many practical difficulties, but that he could not admit that the employer's right to work whenever he wants, a principle embodied in the national legislation, should be attacked without very urgent reasons. By ratifying the Convention the Netherlands would lend considerable support to the work of the International Labour Organisation, but this gesture was not worth while if it resulted in further and useless restriction of the employer's freedom of action. He finally declares that he has decided to withdraw the draft Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Yugoslavia. — On 5 November 1931 the Minister of Social Policy and Public Health convened a meeting of employers and workers in the bakery trade, when the question of ratification was discussed at length, but it was found impossible to conciliate the views of the two parties.

Attention should also be called to the resolutions adopted at the following *international* meetings.

The International Union of Federations of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades, during its Fifth Ordinary Congress in Prague on 20 June 1931, expressed regret that the Convention had ob-

tained so few ratifications. The Congress opposed the re-establishment of night work in undertakings working on a three-shift system as this practically meant the general reintroduction of night work. It repudiated the idea that the price of bread would be lowered by the introduction of the three-shift system, since in practice the cost of production increased as a result of night work.

At a Congress held in Königswinter on 7 and 8 July 1931, the International Federation of Christian Workers in the Food and Drink Trades once again urged the abolition of night work which had contributed greatly to the improvement of the health of the workers without adversely affecting the industry in general or the quality of the products. The Congress expressed regret that the Convention had been ratified by so few countries and adopted the following resolution:

"The Congress demands that no exemption from the prohibition shall be allowed to large undertakings by way of an introduction of the three-shift system. In practice, the number of undertakings in a position to introduce the three-shift system is so insignificant that the system would only apply to a small number of workers, while all the rest of the workers employed in the baking industry would be condemned to night work. Such a proceeding would necessarily have most undesirable effects from an economic point of view."

On 29 November 1931 a Conference, organised by the International Union of Food and Drink Workers and attended by representatives of the bakery trades in Belgium, France, Germany and the Netherlands, was held in Brussels to discuss the attitude of the leaders of the co-operative movement as regards night work in bakeries. The Conference decided on an energetic campaign in all countries against this attitude; the campaign would be supported by the International Union. The workers' organisations should do all in their power to secure complete abolition of night work in bakeries.

International Regulation [1]

Convention concerning night work in bakeries (1925)

Brazil. — The Committee appointed by the Minister of Labour to study Conventions has recommended against ratification of the Convention.

Chile. — A report of the Factory Inspectorate dated 28 August 1931 states that the Decree for the codification of labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 to come into force on 29 November 1931, contains the provisions necessary to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Hungary. — The Government has pointed out that the amendments made in 1929 in the Act of 1923 relating to the limitation of hours of work in bakeries show that the Legislature is not prepared to ratify the Convention.

Netherlands. — See under the heading of the Netherlands above.

Portugal. — The question of ratification is being studied by the Government.

[1] The information given here refers only to 1931. The tables given at the end of this volume show the general situation in respect of this Convention.

Shop Closing

Chile. — The Act of 14 February 1931 authorises chemists' and druggists' shops to remain open to the public from 8 a.m. to 8 p.m. Exceptions are provided for chemists' shops opening during special hours in rotation and for those attached to the Public Assistance Department. When there is only one chemist's shop in the district, the Act does not apply.

Italy. — The Corporation of Commerce met at the Ministry of Corporations on 6 July 1931 to discuss a draft Bill for the regulation of hours of work in shops. The Bill proposes that the basic principles of such regulations for certain classes of shops and for certain districts may be drawn up by the prefects at the unanimous request of the trade associations concerned. The Corporation of Commerce approved the Bill, which was subsequently transmitted by the Ministry of Corporations to the various departments concerned for examination.

Japan. — The Bureau of Social Affairs in the Ministry of Labour has prepared a Shop Hours Bill, under which shops must be closed at 6, 7 or 8 p.m., according to the class to which they belong. Provision is made for exceptions for retail commerce, hairdressers' establishments and beauty parlours from the provisions of the Act. Restaurants, cafés, chemists' shops, tobacconists, etc., may remain open till midnight. The Bureau of Social Affairs has submitted the Bill to the Chamber of Commerce and Industry and to the Federation of Commercial Workers' Associations. In the Tokyo district, retail commerce is in favour of the Bill, but the Chambers of Commerce of Tokyo and Osaka are against it. Manufacturers are opposed to the Bill on the ground that if it were accepted it would give rise to a movement in favour of the regulation of hours of work of male adults employed in factories, as the latter would then be the only workers whose hours are not regulated by law.

Annual Holidays with Pay

Bolivia. — A Bill has been submitted to the Bolivian House of Representatives to give every salaried employee or worker who is employed in commerce or industry by the proprietor of an undertaking the right to an annual holiday of at least fifteen days with full pay. The Bill provides further that the date is to be chosen by the worker or salaried employee, and that if the holiday is not accorded he shall receive double pay during a period of fifteen days.

Brazil. — The application of the Act of 24 December 1925 concerning annual holidays with pay and the public administrative regulations issued thereunder on 30 October 1926 was suspended

by a Decree promulgated by the Head of the Provisional Government on 28 March 1931. A Committee composed of representatives of the Ministry of Labour, employers and wage earners will be appointed to frame new provisions. In the meantime annual holidays with pay are governed by the Decree of 28 March 1931. According to the provisions of this Decree, salaried employees and workers in commercial, industrial or banking establishments, land or maritime transport companies, and charitable or welfare institutions, who, between 1 January 1930 and the date of publication of the Decree of 28 March 1931, have worked more than 250 consecutive days will be entitled to fifteen days' holiday with pay; those who have worked between 200 and 250 days will receive eleven days' holiday, and those who have worked between 150 and 200 days, seven days' holiday. Persons who have worked less than 150 days during the specified period are not entitled to any holidays.

Colombia. — An Act of 18 May 1931 which amends the Sunday Rest Act of 1926 provides for holidays with pay of two weeks after one year of continuous employment for salaried employees or manual workers employed in Government offices or undertakings. Holidays will be given in rotation so as not to interrupt the work of the offices or undertakings.

In August 1931 a Bill relating to the seven-hour day and holidays with pay was introduced in the Colombian House of Representatives by Mr. Guillermo Rodriguez. The explanatory memorandum states that the Bill is intended to be a means of ensuring social peace and permanent employment.

The Bill covers wage-paid workers of all classes and occupations, both urban and rural, whether employed by private persons or by the State. It provides for an annual holiday of twenty days with full pay; this holiday is extended to forty days for those engaged in work of an injurious, dangerous, or exhausting character, and for those working in unhealthy conditions.

France. — The Government Bill introduced in 1925 by Mr. Durafour, then Minister of Labour, was discussed and adopted by the French Chamber of Deputies on 2 July 1931.

The Bill underwent considerable amendment during the discussion. Its scope was extended to employees in Government departments and registrars' offices and to domestic servants and agricultural workers. As regards the latter, the conditions of application will be determined by Decree, after consultation with the organisations concerned. The scope of the Bill was also extended to Algeria, and the Departments of the Lower Rhine, Upper Rhine, and the Moselle. The length of the holiday was fixed at " one week " instead of " eight working days ", as suggested in the original draft. After a three years' engagement the worker is entitled to a holiday of two weeks, which may be taken in two weekly parts. A special provision grants an additional holiday of two days to workers holding the French family medal and their

wives. Up to January 1933 the Bill will apply only to undertakings employing more than five workers.[1]

Mexico. — The Labour Code promulgated on 21 August 1931 stipulates that workers are entitled to four days' holiday with pay after one year's service and to six days' holiday after two years' service.

Netherlands. — The official statistics published by the Central Statistical Office show that out of 1,478 collective agreements in force on 1 June 1931, covering 358,354 persons in 23,341 undertakings, 1,251, covering 316,432 workers—or 88 per cent. of the total number in industry—contained provisions on annual holidays. Out of this total, 1,202, covering 311,654 persons, provided for the payment of wages during the holidays and some of the agreements even prescribed the payment of a special allowance during the holiday.

Poland. — In June 1931 the Polish Institute of Economic and Social Science published the results of an enquiry into the extent of holidays with pay in the printing trades. The enquiry covered 3,421 workers out of a total number of 14,665 employed in that industry. The length of the annual holiday varied in most cases from eight to fifteen days. The report also gives an analysis of the use made of holidays, e.g. travel, cures or removal to the country, and emphasises the need, especially for women and adolescents, to spend the time away from home. Finally, the report proposes the establishment of camps in which workers on holiday but without sufficient means could spend some time in the open air. Some details are given of existing arrangements for workers' holidays.

Sweden. — The Bill to amend the Labour Protection Act of 1912, to which attention was drawn in last year's *Annual Review*, has been adopted by both Houses of the Riksdag. The Bill establishes the principle of an annual holiday of four working days. The Social Board, which was called on to examine the various amendments, suggested that the annual holiday should not be less than one week, but the Social Minister was of opinion that for the moment all that they could do was to extend to all workers the privileges to which the large majority of the employers had agreed.

Switzerland. — The Bill on holidays with pay in the Canton of Basle-Town, to which attention was called in last year's *Annual Review*, was adopted on 13 September 1931. The Act applies to all persons employed by any public or private undertaking in the whole canton, whether salaried employees, skilled workers, unskilled workers, apprentices, student employees, unpaid employees,

[1] This Bill was submitted to the Senate on 21 January 1932 and referred to the Committee on Commerce, Industry, Labour, and Postal Services and the Committee on Agriculture.

domestic servants or nurses. A number of persons, including those who come under the Federal Factory Act and those employed by Federal undertakings or authorities, are excluded from the operation of the Act. Six working days' holiday must be accorded after a year's service, nine days after five years' service, and twelve days after ten years' service. Young workers and apprentices have the right to twelve working days' holiday annually up to and including the year in which they reach the age of eighteen years.

U.S.S.R. — In several Orders (notably in that issued on 27 April 1931) the Commissariat of Labour recommends the equal distribution of annual holidays over the whole year in all undertakings and enterprises which are not subject to seasonal interruptions.

An Order of the Commissariat of Labour dated 3 April 1931 establishes supplementary annual holidays for pilots, observers, mechanics and photographic operators employed in civil aviation.

Public Holidays

Bolivia. — A Bill tabled in the House of Representatives on the initiative of the Bolivian National Chamber of Commerce proposes to reduce the number of public holidays. In future public holidays will include 1 January, Carnival Monday and Tuesday, Good Friday, 6 August, 12 October and 25 December, in addition to the local holiday in each department. On certain occasions the public authorities may authorise public holidays without the compulsory closing of offices and private undertakings.

Brazil. — Early in 1931 the Brazilian Provisional Government issued a Decree reducing the number of local public holidays. In future the only public holidays will be: 1 January, 1 May, 7 September (the anniversary of Brazilian Independence), 2 November, 15 November (Proclamation of the Republic) and 25 December.

Canada. — In the Province of Saskatchewan an amendment to the legislation relating to towns, villages and communities, which came into operation on 1 May 1931, empowers the municipal administrative authorities to order the closing of shops of all classes on public holidays, except in districts which are affected by the Act relating to the weekly half holiday.

Czechoslovakia. — The Minister of the Interior has prepared and submitted to the Council of Ministers a Bill concerning the regulation of public holidays, which will restore the public holiday on the second day at Easter, Whitsun and Christmas.

Greece. — In order to avoid the confusion which arises from the diversity of public holidays observed in the public services and in commercial undertakings, the Athens Chamber of Commerce

has requested the Minister of National Economy to draw up a uniform list for banks and joint stock companies, commercial establishments, and public offices.

Iraq. — An Act of 19 May 1931 fixes the number of official public holidays at twelve a year. In addition, the Act fixes eleven other public holidays for Israelites and five other public holidays for Christians.

Italy. — The list of national festivals and public holidays was established by the Act of 27 December 1930. In a letter of 16 May 1931, the Minister of Corporations states that the workers' right to a rest on the official holidays, especially in the retail trades, can be recognised only when a suspension of work is authorised by a collective agreement or by trade union instructions relating to the closing of shops on such days.

Japan. — The Ministry of Shipping has decided that workers employed in arsenals will in future receive full wages on four national public holidays and half wages on two public holidays at the New Year.

Mexico. — The Federal Labour Act of 21 August 1931 fixes 1 May, 16 September and 25 December as compulsory holidays for the whole of the Republic.

Spain. — In accordance with a Decree issued on 22 April 1931, 1 May will in future be a public holiday. The Decree of 28 October 1931 states that 1 January, 14 April, 1 May, 12 October and 25 December will be non-working days for all public, legal, commercial and administrative purposes.

Industrial Medicine

Several medical men engaged in the study of social hygiene and pathology have made fresh contributions to the knowledge of the effect of the present widespread and persistent unemployment on public health. Even without a detailed analysis of their researches, it may be of interest to note that their conclusions are not wholly concordant.

Some of them are prepared to admit that the spirit of apathy and irritability engendered by unemployment coupled with the privations endured, tend to lower the standard of health of the working classes. Others, however, believe that unemployment has not had an adverse effect on the health situation, as judged by the incidence rates for the more serious social scourges, especially tuberculosis. Despite the underfed condition of part of the population as shown in certain districts by a recrudescence of rickets amongst the children of the unemployed, some medical authorities consider that this condition is compensated by inaction, which after all represents for the workers a certain husbanding

of their resources. Finally, to judge from the returns of 166 German sickness funds, comprising about 5½ million insured persons, it would appear that on the whole unemployment has not had an adverse effect on public health during recent years. But this is probably due to the beneficent action of the comprehensive preventive and curative measures that form part of the system of social insurance and assistance.

It is very difficult to draw a definite conclusion from these contradictory data, since over a short space of time, it is hard for the symptomatology of social phenomena to become obvious enough to permit of accurate observation and interpretation. It is indeed to be hoped that the crisis will not seriously injure the health of the working population, and that under the circumstances the responsible authorities will realise the need of improving and extending preventive measures.

A proof of this need is found in the results of a recent study reported by the American Public Health Service covering 100,000 adult males examined by 9,000 doctors throughout the country. In studying causes of ill-health, diagnosed as far as possible also in their incipient stages amongst these persons, inclusive of those who were able to be about and at work, the fact was revealed that it is chiefly amongst the skilled workers—that is to say, the most precious element in the modern technical organisation of industry—that the highest rate of physical defects and diseases, and hence of deaths, occurs.

Industrial Physiology

The value of preventive action was also emphasised at the First International Congress of Socialist Doctors (Karlovy Vary, Czechoslovakia, May), which once more drew attention to the interdependence of economic conditions and public health, and declared that the medical profession must make the health of the worker and his family its supreme goal, and must bestow special care on children, young persons, and women.

The protection of children's health was demanded, for instance, at the United States Eastern Interstate Conference on Labour Legislation at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, in which ten States participated (June); the Commission appointed by the Government of Massachusetts has even adopted a resolution maintaining that the employment of children under fourteen years cannot be justified by any economic or social considerations. The development of children should not be endangered by occupations requiring excessive fatigue and overstrain. In four Southern States Bills have been introduced for the exclusion of children of under eighteen years from night work and from dangerous trades, and for the production of a certificate of fitness for the employment of children of from fourteen to sixteen years. The International Conference of Labour and Socialist Women (Vienna, July) has demanded the development of protective measures for children, whilst the General

Federation of Jewish Labour in Palestine (memorandum submitted to the High Commissioner on the employment of women and children in industry), the Congress of the Feminist Federation, Brazil, the Taylor Society, and the First International Congress of Socialist Doctors have all stressed the necessity for school attendance up to the age of sixteen years. In Mexico a draft Labour Code makes provision for medical examination prior to the granting of the entrance certificate in the case of children.

The above resolutions concerning children have as a rule also applied to young persons.

The question of the protection of women is once again in the foreground. Admittedly, even the Congress of the International Association of Women Doctors (Vienna, September) was very much divided in its opinions on this subject; while some of the delegates demanded better working conditions and legal protection for women because their physiological constitution differs from that of men, others were strongly opposed to the principle of special regulations. In support of this opposition, data were advanced regarding women spinners in India, women's work during the war, etc., types of work which were " apparently " harmless. But the most recent researches of biologists, doctors in maternity institutions, and professors of gynaecology have made it possible to assemble such striking data relative to the immediate and retarded effects on women of certain work, and especially tiring work done in a standing position, that one is impelled to enquire whether the arguments advanced against the principle of protection are prepared with the requisite scientific objectivity and accuracy.

As has been said by an eminent professor of industrial medicine:

" Women have essentially a function of reproduction to perform; to divert them from this task in order to allow them to engage in intellectual work or tiring labour in fields or factories is contrary to the laws of physiology and sociology. Since woman represents more essentially than man the vehicle of preservation of the human type, since she exercises a function which facilitates evolution by utilisation of those variations useful to the race, it is the duty of society to entrust to her care the defence of the family and the uplifting of humanity, by withdrawing her as far as possible from industry in order to assure her organic soundness.

" All assiduous and compulsory work, either physical or mental, which is contrary to the natural aptitudes of woman, is harmful to her biological economy and is dysgenic because detrimental to the conservation and improvement of the race." (Pieraccini, 1931.)

In the United States, the Women's Bureau has again drawn public attention to the occupational risks to which women are exposed and to its misgivings on this subject. The Eastern Interstate Conference on Labour Legislation referred to above has demanded not only limitation of working hours in industry but also prohibition of night work. The Congress of Labour and Socialist Women has passed a resolution calling for the gradual extension of protective measures and for the admission of women to all trades and occupations, so far as their physiological constitution permits.

Legislation to complete this protection continues to make progress. In Australia (Victoria), a Bill has been brought in to exclude women under sixteen years from engineering and iron trade industries and those under twenty-one years from work at emery grinding wheels. In the U.S.S.R. the Commissariat for Labour in January drew attention to the fact that women should not be employed on underground work or unduly trying work (casting, rolling mills, transport by rail or otherwise).

Fatigue: carrying of weights. — Fatigue has been the subject of a series of studies of a Committee constituted by the Society of Industrial Engineers, Chicago, with a view to the elimination of unnecessary fatigue. This Committee, embracing experts on the subject from different countries, has devoted its attention not only to fatigue in different occupations, but also to certain factors such as energy cost in industry, nerve *versus* muscle fatigue, fatigue tests, the effect of noise, etc.

The problem of the carrying of weights has been considered by the workers' organisations specially interested in it and by certain research institutes. Thus the Industrial Health Board (Great Britain), in its eleventh annual report emphasises the fact that the study of industrial fatigue due to heavy work has advanced to the point at which, according to the Board, it furnishes proof of the error of long working hours and of the benefit of favourable objective conditions and well-distributed rest periods. This is especially true in the case of the mental work involved in long hours of monotonous occupation in mechanical industry. The International Conference of Christian Dockworkers (Hamburg, July) noted the large number of accidents occurring in different ports, during loading and unloading of ships, and adopted a resolution on the need of an international Convention fixing the maximum weight of loads at 75 kilograms. The Congress of the International Union of Federations of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades (Prague, June) has protested against the failure to place this question on the Agenda of the International Labour Conference.

Experts in industrial medicine have naturally given this question their consideration; some of them have criticised the adoption of 75 kilograms as the maximum load for transport workers. An eminent physiologist (Patrizi) goes so far as to say: " When the physiologist who studies fatigue problems considers that of loads, which arises out of industrial requirements, he looks at it experimentally, as a laboratory matter, and thinks more of the conservation of the human machine than of its economic efficiency." In seeking how to reconcile the various aspects of the problem, " he seemed to have reached two alternatives as the only possible solutions: either to reduce the maximum load of 75 kilograms by at least one third, or to make the rest periods between the periods of active work proportionately longer." The problem is one in which pure and applied physiology appear to clash; but in considering it, account must be taken of the measures essential to

the preservation of health, while at the same time making full allowance for the exigencies of the work. It may be pointed out, however, that the movement is proving fruitful in practice and has led to protective measures of undoubted value, since in native labour legislation, where forced labour is often taken to mean porterage, a maximum load is fixed.

In Finland an Act which came into force in January prohibits the employment of women under twenty-one years of age for certain loading and unloading work in ports. In Australia (Victoria) a Bill has been introduced prohibiting women over eighteen years employed in factories or workshops from lifting a greater weight than 35 pounds, and maintaining the maximum of 25 pounds for women under eighteen years.

The problem of rationalisation is interesting the medical man more and more, wherever it relates to the human factor. The Congress of the International Textile Workers' Federation (Berlin, August) adopted a resolution opposing all rationalisation that tends merely to exhaust the worker, physically and mentally, by obliging him to concentrate his attention to an ever-increasing degree. The Congress of the Swedish Federation of Trade Unions (Stockholm, August) voted a resolution which draws attention to the danger of over-exertion and accidents due to the intensification of the working rhythm, and points to the necessity for a complete and methodical study of rationalisation. The Taylor Society (Philadelphia, April to May) has had under discussion a Draft Labour Code which comprises very important measures of hygiene and proposes an age of admission to industrial work more in accordance with the exigencies of modern technical organisation. In Czechoslovakia a Bill relating to a forty-hour week provides for shorter working hours in unhealthy, exhausting, or dangerous work.

American experience of a six-hour day has revealed numerous advantages as regards the health of the workers: less tendency to succumb to monotony, less fatigue, more time for recreation and study, and, especially for women, more time to devote to their households and, what is certainly of no less importance, the possibility of having all meals at home.

Legislative comparisons bring into relief the extensive progress made in the protection of native labour. Not only are the legislative authorities taking an interest in the acclimatisation of workers coming from long distances, but they have also grasped the importance of measures for the promotion of sanitation and health as a means of maintaining a healthy and efficient body of workers. They have therefore imposed detailed regulations in regard to housing, food supply, drinking water, medical treatment, hospital organisation, camp hygiene, the campaign against alcoholism, etc. The question of food rations during transport of the natives, during their encampment at rest stations and at work is minutely regulated. It will be sufficient here to mention the provisions concerning workers on banana plantations (Colombia), those concerning the granting of a certificate of fitness for work (Belgian Congo), the

Bill dealing with health and safety of women in industrial undertakings (Uganda), the numerous measures of social hygiene adopted in Nyasaland, Madagascar, French West Africa, the Cameroons, Indo-China, etc. In brief, it is being recognised more and more that the part the health expert has to play is not less important than that of the administrative authority.

Reports on the protection of the health of native workers were discussed, for instance, during the "Days devoted to Colonial Medicine" (*Journées médicales coloniales*) and the International Colonial Congresses held in Paris in 1931.

Industrial Pathology

Poisons

Lead poisoning. — Lead poisoning was the subject of a Recommendation in 1919 and a Convention in 1921. During 1931, the following measures were taken by the States Members [1]:

Recommendation concerning the protection of women and children against lead poisoning (1919)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has informed the Office that in New South Wales regulations can be issued to protect the health and safety of workers under the Factories and Workshops Act, 1912, as amended by Act No. 12 of 1927.

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that no legislation on this subject appears to exist in Canada, beyond general provisions contained in the various provincial Factory Acts. Partial measures exist in British Columbia, Manitoba, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Saskatchewan. In Quebec and other provinces power is given to the Lieutenant-Governor in Council to classify as dangerous, unhealthy or incommodious such establishments as he considers dangerous to the health of the operatives, especially children, young persons and women.

Convention concerning the use of white lead in painting (1921)

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Netherlands. — A Bill respecting safety measures during work in general and in particular during the presence of the workers in factories and workshops was submitted to the Second Chamber of the States-General on 25 November 1931. The object of this Bill is to replace the Safety Act at present in force. Section 7 of the Bill contains the necessary provisions to adapt Netherlands legislation to the Convention.

Persia. — The Convention has been examined by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with a view to its submission to Parliament.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to resubmit these Conventions to the Chamber.

[1] The information given here refers only to 1931. The tables given at the end of this volume show the general situation in respect of this Convention.

Scientific contributions to the solution of the problem of lead poisoning are becoming more and more numerous. Yet though they throw light on certain aspects of the pathogenesis of lead poisoning, there is no reason to believe that they can modify the lines followed hitherto in regard to prophylaxis.

Attention was drawn in the *Annual Review* for 1930 to the danger to which children may be exposed by lead paint on buildings or articles. Recent X-ray researches, especially those made in America, have shown that lead poisoning is more frequent than is imagined, and that certain disease pictures of obscure origin among children may be attributable to lead. This suggests the importance of prohibiting the use of lead pigments for the painting not only of houses for living in, but likewise of articles for current use.

It is the storage battery and the enamel and enamelling industries which, in certain countries at least, show the highest number of cases of lead poisoning. The Correspondence Committee on Industrial Hygiene has taken cognisance of this fact and has studied measures of prevention likely to attenuate or eliminate the risk in question. It has expressed the opinion that each country which has not yet done so should regulate work in accumulator or storage battery factories, and, further, that the ideal solution in regard to the use of enamels with a lead content in the process of coating sheet and cast iron with vitreous enamel by the spray method would be prohibition, but that, pending a solution of the technical problem, the strict application of measures regarding the plant and the medical supervision of the workers would produce satisfactory results.

Another subject to which medical experts and authorities are paying more and more attention is spray painting, by reason of the risk involved, not only in the poisonous pigment used, but also in the volatilisation of the solvents. The growing use of this method in small-scale industries, and even in home work, naturally enhances the risk. Moreover, the spray method is becoming usual in other industries, for instance the enamelling industry. It is therefore urgently necessary to spread information on the risks run by the workers, which fully explains the appeal made by the head of the Women's Bureau in the United States.

That the lead risk may threaten workers using so-called leadless products has once again been proved by an enquiry carried out by the British Medical Inspectorate of Factories (1930). Workers engaged in rubbing down the basic coat in a perambulator factory showed signs of lead absorption; the so-called leadless filling product contained 27 per cent. of soluble lead. It can thus be readily understood why the competent authorities widen the scope of protection.

The German Railways, for instance, have introduced (October) measures for protecting workers against lead poisoning. In Prussia, (August), an Order deals with protection of the workers engaged in painting. In Spain the Decree of 28 May, in Estonia the Order of 20 May, and in Yugoslavia the Regulation of 7 May, all prohibit

painting as defined in the International Convention of 1921. Canada has passed no laws on these lines because the question is one which comes within provincial legislative jurisdiction. In New Zealand, the Bill dealing with the protection of the health of painters and decorators has been referred back by the House of Representatives to the competent Committee for reconsideration (September). In New South Wales, a Labour Code dealing with accumulator factories and white lead factories provides for notification of cases of lead poisoning, which is likewise required by the Act amended in 1926. In the Dutch East Indies the Volksraad adopted an Ordinance, coming into force on 1 January 1932, which prohibits the use of powdered white lead, after amendment, however, of the original Section 3, giving the Governor-General power to grant exemptions, under conditions laid down by himself, from the prohibition of the manufacture of powdered white lead provided for in section 1.

It is likewise comprehensible that workers' organisations at each meeting continue to demand stricter legislation in regard to lead poisoning, among others the seventh International Conference of the International Painters' Secretariat (Prague, September); while the fourteenth German Trade Union Congress adopted a proposal of the Metal Workers' Union in favour of extending to railways, construction, etc., the existing Order relative to protection against lead poisoning. These organisations have always stressed the grave risk which lead poisoning represents for their members and once more emphasise the necessity for ratification of the Geneva Convention. The International Painters' Secretariat received from its Belgian section a proposal for the wider adoption of the methods used under Belgian legislation on white lead and the submission of this question for study to the International Labour Organisation.

White phosphorus. — The conference has adopted a Recommendation concerning the use of white phosphorus. The information received by the Office concerning the effect given to this Recommendation in 1931 relates only to one State Member:

Recommendation concerning the application of the Berne Convention of 1906 on the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches (1919)

Persia. — The Convention has been examined by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with a view to its submission to Parliament.

Mercury. — For years medical experts and workers' organisations have devoted close attention to all proposals for carotting of hair by means of a solution free from mercury. Unfortunately, the numerous methods suggested so far have not stood the industrial tests effected. A workers' organisation claims, however, that the possibility of making this substitution has recently been definitely established by practical experiments. The organisation in question has invited the International Federation of Hat Workers to take all steps to induce the health authorities in the different countries

to prohibit the use of carotting solutions with a mercury basis. It is to be hoped that this method will fulfil the expectations it has raised amongst those interested. The Office will in any case follow closely all developments in regard to the matter. If only its finances had allowed, it might have organised a prize competition with a view to the discovery of a harmless carotting solution.

Solvents. — The chemical industry is daily placing on the market products which in practice often prove to be highly poisonous to the human system. This has been found to be true in regard to solvents. Technical committees have therefore been appointed in several countries to ascertain the extent of the risk and to study how to reduce it. The Italian Congress on Occupational Diseases has decided to discuss at its forthcoming meeting (April 1932) the pathology and hygiene of workers coming into contact with solvents. Furthermore, the Correspondence Committee of the Office has undertaken to make a detailed study of this problem and to co-ordinate, where possible, the researches instituted in the various countries. The number of products placed on the market, frequently under fancy names and without any formula of their contents, is very high. This naturally complicates the contemplated study, yet it is essential that it should not be delayed.

Infections

Anthrax. — The Conference has adopted a Recommendation concerning anthrax infection. The information received by the Office concerning the effect given to this Recommendation in 1931 relates only to one State Member:

Recommendation concerning the prevention of anthrax (1919)

Canda. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that under the provisions of the Quarantine Act the Governor in Council may, by regulation, make provision for giving effect to the proposal of this Recommendation. The Dominion Government issued an Order in February 1921 making more explicit an Order issued in the previous August in regard to anthrax infection. The earlier Order confirmed previous regulations under the Animals Contagious Diseases Act.

The Code of Draft Regulations for the prevention of anthrax in the hides and skins industry has been distributed, in accordance with the decision of the Governing Body, to the Governments of the States Members of the International Labour Organisation. Observations and suggestions raised by the draft are being received from day to day, as well as data relative to the legislation so far adopted in each country. It is intended to assemble this information and to communicate it to those concerned.

In accordance with the decision of the London Conference (1922), the Office had prepared draft regulations for the industries other than that of hides and skins involving exposure to anthrax. The discussion which took place at the last meeting of the Correspondence Committee suggests that the whole question of anthrax prevention calls for reconsideration.

Recently, the Congress of Industrial Chemists (Basle, September) requested the collaboration of the Office on the Committee which it has appointed to study anthrax prevention in the hides and skins industry.

The education of workers exposed to anthrax infection is one of the underlying principles of all prophylaxis in this sphere. It is with this in view that the British medical factory inspectorate has judged it advisable to prepare and distribute amongst those concerned an illustrated tract summarising preventive measures.

Other Diseases

Tuberculosis and silicosis. — The tuberculosis problem is often closely connected with that of silicosis.

Motions in favour of giving effect to resolutions passed by the Johannesburg Conference (1930) have been passed by the international federations of the workers concerned (stone workers, pottery workers, miners, etc.). The problem is certainly a difficult one and does not lend itself to rapid solution, for in several countries it is only recently that scientific investigators have become preoccupied with the matter, and the requisite medical study with its indispensable accompaniment of radiological research is both long and costly. Nevertheless, the research at present in progress appears to be yielding positive results and clinical experts believe themselves to be in a position to achieve accurate diagnosis of silicosis, even in its initial stages, provided the clinical and radiological data are interpreted with the requisite elasticity. Analysis of 700 certificates of death due to pulmonary fibrosis received by the British authorities in 1930 shows silicosis to have been the cause of death in 241 cases. In the majority of these the individual in question had been engaged in an industry involving exposure to the risk of silicosis—manufacture of pottery, manipulation of sandstone, work in quarries or mines and on refractory products, etc.

It is reported that the Medical Institute of South Africa is engaged in establishing a standard method of dust sampling.

In accordance with a proposal made by two workers' delegates, Mr. Müller and Mr. Schürch, a resolution was placed before the Conference in 1931, demanding the addition of further occupational diseases to the list annexed to the Draft Convention of 1925 and, notably, the inclusion of silicosis.

Asbestosis. — The handling of asbestos exposes workers to the development of lesions similar to those caused by silica. Measures concerned with dust control in the weaving of asbestos have been adopted under British legislation, the workers in the industry having recently been brought within the legislation for the compensation of silicosis. It may be noted that in 1930 the medical factory inspectorate was notified of twenty fatal cases of asbestosis uncomplicated by tuberculosis.

Cancer. — Occupational cancer has recently been studied with special reference to the mining industry (Joachimsthal) and also

to workers engaged in roadmaking (roads and pavements). In the case of the latter, cancer has been attributed to the use of tar. The question, however, calls for further study, though nowadays the majority of experts consider this relation highly doubtful. On the other hand, British experts are said to have succeeded in isolating the carcinogenetic substance from mineral oils and certain tar derivatives. If this result is confirmed, the possibility of rendering healthy certain very dangerous processes is assured.

Special Pathology relative to Certain Industries

Mining. — The information received by the Office in 1931 relative to the hygiene and pathology of miners all refers to mines in distant countries. Improved conditions in the copper and vanadium mines of South-West Africa have been reported, the mortality rate among Native miners being the lowest recorded for five years. Enquiries conducted by medical experts have resulted in the introduction of improved methods of transport, the provision of drinking water, reduction of heavy work during the first fortnight of employment, improved food rations and housing, and better hygiene conditions in the mines, and especially care from the point of view of sanitation and health. In Bengal the employment of women underground in coal mines has been prohibited and the measure will come into complete operation in 1939. Similar regulations have been adopted for salt mines.

Steady progress is being made in the technical methods of hewing minerals. Similarly, doctors are improving health organisation in mines, a subject that was thoroughly discussed at the Congress for the study of traumatism in the mining industry on 20 October at Stalino (Ukraine).

Chemical industry. — Whilst, on the one hand, the fall in the number of occupational diseases may be explained by shorter working hours and reduced staff, on the other hand, the appearance of new products, especially in the organic chemical industry, is multiplying the causes of injury for those called upon to handle them.

Amongst the causes of occupational diseases, according to the German Chemical Industries Association, the first place in this industry is held by lead and its compounds, followed by sulphuretted hydrogen, arsenic, nitro and amido compounds, carbon monoxide, benzine and its homologues, and carbon disulphide. Cases of lead poisoning occur chiefly among workers in lead paint factories, solderers, and painters.

During 1931 scientific experts have devoted special study to the physio-pathological effects of the toxic gases designated as " war gases ", though a certain number of them are used in industry. Excessive pollution of the atmosphere by emanations and smoke in industrial regions is a cause of injury for the people who have to live there. In the neighbourhood of Lyons there have been a few cases, happily slight, of poisoning due to gases emanating from a silk factory (use of chlorine gas). These occurrences recall those

reported at Engis (Belgium), in the valley of the Meuse in December 1930. The report recently submitted to the Belgian Prime Minister by a special Committee states that the product chiefly responsible was sulphuric acid produced by the oxidation—by atmospheric oxygen coming into contact with particles of water in the fog and dust in suspension—of sulphur dioxide, disseminated in the atmosphere by all the industrial and domestic hearths in the valley. It is true that without exceptional atmospheric conditions (frost, slight wind, thick fog) the accident would not have occurred, and further that the victims were relatively old or suffered from respiratory complaints. However that may be, this accident has given rise to a new policy in regard to industrial health embodying the suggestions made by the Committee. It is also proposed that a Central Health Committee should be appointed to consider, among other things, all appeals against decisions concerning undertakings classified as dangerous or unhealthy. Further, a special section will be created in the Ministry of Health, to support the Central Committee and deal with questions of protection of the population against industries that pollute the atmosphere.

Pottery industry. — The International Federations of Pottery Workers (Limoges, September), Stone Workers, and Miners have jointly requested the Office to study the question of the inclusion of silicosis in the schedule of occupational diseases subject to workmen's compensation. At the Pottery Workers' Congress a report was presented on legal and collective regulations aiming at the protection against diseases arising from exposure to high temperatures and injuries due to the use of turpentine and mineral oils. Similarly, the Executive Committee of the Glassworkers' International Federation (Paris, September) adopted a resolution demanding the application of measures of hygiene and the collection by the International Labour Office of information relative to the dangers to which glassworkers are exposed.

Transport industry. — The International Conference of Tramwaymen (Berlin, February) has decided to undertake an enquiry into the occupational diseases to which tramwaymen are exposed. The International Conference of Motor Drivers (Section of the International Transport Workers Federation, Berlin, February) has demanded the medical examination of drivers, as well as legal protection.

The problem of psychotechnical examination has been the subject not only of a very extensive enquiry by the International Medical Association, but also of discussion by the section dealing with " Physiology of the Airman " at the First International Congress on Aerial Safety .

In Australia (Victoria) a Bill has been introduced requiring a medical certificate for persons in charge of steam road-rollers or motor-lorries travelling on the road, as well as a special examination as to physical fitness for those in charge of electric cranes or winches used on construction works.

In Poland the Minister of Transport has organised and maintains a psychotechnical laboratory for the examination of engine drivers.

In Germany there has been established at the Hamburg hospital an Institute for Aerial Medicine and for research into the influence of climate.

Public health officials. — The First International Conference of Public Health Officials (Berne, September) has instructed its Secretariat to make every effort to secure the protection of all such officials against occupational diseases and accidents. All diseases directly or indirectly contracted in the service should be regarded as accidents for purposes of compensation.

Radio-active substances. — Medical literature contains daily instances of injuries incurred as a result of the use of these substances, which, however useful they may be from a therapeutical point of view, represent a grave source of risk for those called upon to handle them. In Denmark the Regulations of 11 May 1931 deal with the construction and working of X-ray apparatus; in Czechoslovakia regulations have been drafted for the protection of the health of persons engaged in the extraction, working, or use of radium. [1]

Athletics. — In concluding this section, it is of interest to recall the importance now accorded to the pathology of athletes. In Italy, the first Congress of medical specialists (*medici sportivi*— medical specialists in athletics) will meet in 1932 to discuss the physical fitness of athletes.

Mention may be made of the theory advanced by certain experts that exaggerated indulgence in athletic exercise on Sunday is exercising an unfavourable effect on the worker on the days following the so-called rest period devoted to sport.

Medical Assistance

In connection with vocational guidance, in the United States the legislation of twenty-five States and the District of Columbia imposes a medical examination with a view to determining the physical aptitude of the young worker. In eight other States this examination *may* be required.

Medical treatment at the factory is making steady progress, to judge by the requests for information received by the Office, which intends to ask competent institutions or authorities in a number of countries for information as to the fundamental principles of the establishment and maintenance of centres of medical treatment in factories, as well as to the results obtained. It would seem advisable to classify the services of this kind into three main types,

[1] The Health Organisation of the League of Nations has published a pamphlet on measures of protection against dangers resulting from the use of radium, röntgen, and ultra-violet rays (1931).

according as they are intended for large, medium, or small factories. The Office would then be able to furnish employers on request with data which would enable them to decide which type of service was best adapted for their purpose. It is not advisable to create a standard type, because an organisation of this kind must be adaptable, each country or district usually having its own conditions.

In Belgium the Decree of 16 January 1932 requires the provision of medical facilities for first aid in industrial and commercial undertakings.

Praiseworthy efforts have been devoted in the United States to turning to account the work of the unfit and the infirm, and the results achieved prove that in this sphere the application of social medicine can render excellent service. In other countries, too, scientists are studying the problem of individuals incapable of performing remunerative work.

Industrial Hygiene

The movement in favour of industrial hygiene has made further progress. Not only are there improvements in the construction and layout of factories (Germany); not only do great associations such as the Taylor Society or meetings such as the Interstate Conference on Labour Legislation in the United States (Harrisburg, June) discuss legislation in the sphere of industrial hygiene; but almost all the congresses held by the employers' and workers' organisations above referred to have considered or adopted reports on this problem. The recommendations adopted deal for the most part with ventilation, temperature, humidity, cubic air space, and personal hygiene, but they make no suggestion (Harrisburg Conference) for the adoption of minima, since it is judged advisable to reserve this point for regulation by the administrative authorities in each country. In Sweden the Permanent Industrial Peace Committee constituted in 1928 at a conference held in Stockholm, has formulated proposals for an improved system of hygiene. The Congress of the Feminist Federation of Brazil (Rio de Janeiro, June) has voted a resolution concerning hygiene in industrial and commercial establishments and demanding the provision of seats for workers when a standing position is not absolutely essential for the work engaged in.

Lighting is one of the problems of hygiene in which, thanks to the work of the International Illumination Association, substantial progress is being made. At the Congress held in Buxton (Great Britain), national committees, and particularly that of Germany, submitted new standards for industrial lighting. In Belgium the Central Industrial Committee has published a study, in collaboration with the Belgian National Committee on Lighting, on the lighting of industrial undertakings, and has drawn attention to the social and economic advantages of rational lighting from the point of view both of efficiency and of accident prevention and the safeguarding of eyesight.

In France the Industrial Hygiene Association (French General Confederation of Production) has devoted its attention (January) to the problems of industrial fumes, pollution of water, and establishments engaged in unhealthy and offensive trades. The Committee on Hygiene, Welfare and Insurance has adopted a motion (December) in favour of the abatement of industrial fumes.

Attention has also been devoted to noise as a cause of individual and collective injury. Without recalling in detail the " anti-noise weeks " organised in various towns, mention should be made of the reports presented to certain congresses dealing with the best methods of attenuating or eliminating the noise of machinery.

Legislation [1]

(a) *General legislation.* — The initiative taken by the Office in preparing a Standard Code of Industrial Hygiene appears to be giving rise to similar action in several countries. In the United States, for instance, the Taylor Society and the Interstate Conference on Labour Legislation (Harrisburg) have planned or drafted a Labour Code.

In Australia (Victoria), a Factories and Shops Bill, which pays due attention to hygiene and medical inspection, has reached its second reading. In China, the application of the Factory Act has been considered at the Municipal Council of Shanghai, which holds that the first measures of regulation should be limited to certain matters, including health and safety. In Brazil, a Legislative Decree of 19 March on trade associations empowers these to define conditions of industrial hygiene. A Decree issued towards the end of 1930 in the State of Pernambuco provided for the creation of a department whose work would include the improvement of health conditions in industrial establishments. In Mexico, the Labour Code (August) contains very detailed regulations governing the conditions of health in industrial undertakings. In Poland, the Order of 24 December 1930 deals with hygiene and first aid in cases of accident. In March the Decree of 1928 on industrial hygiene was extended to Silesia. In Sweden a Bill to amend the Labour Protection Act of 1912 provides for the appointment (July) of workers' delegates to deal with questions of industrial hygiene. In Czechoslovakia a Decree of 26 March deals with the protection of the life and health of workers.

(b) *Special legislation.* — A whole series of special provisions govern conditions in particular industries.

New Mining Regulations, dated 5 August 1931, have been adopted in British Guiana. An Austrian Order of 21 March regulates the use of fire extinguishers containing carbon tetrachloride and other

[1] This section briefly summarises for the convenience of the reader all the legislative measures relating to industrial hygiene adopted since the previous number of the *Annual Review*; hence the inclusion of laws and regulations already mentioned in earlier sections.

products liberating toxic fumes in mine galleries. In Canada (Quebec), the Act of 4 April 1931 provides for the medical examination of miners. In Queensland, the Regulations of 8 October 1931 contain preventive measures against lead poisoning among miners.

In Belgium, measures have been taken to protect workers in quarries against the harmful action of porphyry dust. In Hungary, an Order (December 1930) deals with the hygiene and safety of workers in stone quarries, sand pits, etc.

In Poland, an Order of 9 March 1931 deals with safety and hygiene in agriculture and forestry. Work in forests, and especially first aid in the case of accident, is dealt with by Regulations of 5 May 1931 in Manitoba.

The work of sponge fishers (divers) has been made subject to regulation in Cyprus by the Order of 12 March 1931 and in Italy by the Decrees of 16 February and 25 June 1931; the latter Decree applies to divers in diving dress.

A Decree concerning the protection of the life and health of workers in the building industry was issued on 26 March 1931 in Czechoslovakia. Special measures for promoting safety and hygiene in building yards and public works have been adopted in Morocco, by the Decree of 2 September 1931.

Unhealthy industries are the subject of a long list of protective measures, including among others the German Order of 25 March 1931 and the Danish Order of 28 February 1931 concerning disinfection by means of toxic substances. In Estonia the Hours of Work Act (10 June 1931) makes provision for a shorter working day in dangerous trades.

Chemical and electro-chemical industry: A German Order of 30 January 1931 deals with the preparation, bagging and warehousing of slag phosphates, and a second Order, dated 30 September, with the installation and working of slag grinding mills. It should be observed that sacks for slag being made of paper, the weight has to be limited to 75 kilograms. In Great Britain Regulations of 1 June 1931 prescribe measures of hygiene for establishments engaged in electrolytic chromium plating.

Pottery: In Great Britain, Regulations of 28 April 1931 deal with conditions in the refractory materials industries.

Painting: In Poland the Order of 29 July 1931 extends to the Province of Silesia the operation of the Order of 30 June 1927 on the production, importation and use of white lead, sulphate of lead and other lead compounds.

Asbestos: In Great Britain draft Regulations were introduced in September with a view to protection of the workers engaged in certain operations involving exposure to asbestos dust.

Phosphorus: In Bavaria an Order of 31 August 1931 deals with the conservation of white phosphorus.

Transport: The transport of weights in ports has been prohibited in Finland (1 January 1931) for women dockers under twenty-one

years. A Royal Decree (1 May) regulates in Norway the fumigation of ships, etc., by means of hydrocyanic acid or other toxic gases. Another Regulation deals with ventilation, etc., in garages and motor car factories.

Postal, telegraph and telephone services: In France an Order (June) of the Minister of Postal, Telegraph and Telephone Services sets up a Social Department for the protection of morals of young women employees and officials, general health protection and the promotion of welfare schemes.

(c) *Compensation legislation: Occupational diseases.* — The Conference has adopted a Convention and a recommendation on compensation for occupational diseases, on the subject of which the following measures were taken in 1931 [1].

Convention concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases

Chile. — A report of the Factory Inspectorate, dated 28 August 1931, states that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 to come into force on 29 November 1931, contains the provisions necessary for giving effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Czechoslovakia. — The ratification of the Convention has been proposed to the Council of Ministers. The draft Bill on workmen's compensation for occupational diseases was submitted on 8 July 1931 to all the Ministries and various other central authorities.

France. — Ratification registered on 13 August 1931.

Italy. — The Government has stated that the regulations for the administration of the Occupational Diseases Act are under consideration and may be promulgated in the near future.

Poland. — The Government has stated that in connection with the preparation of a Social Insurance Bill it will again bring this Convention before Parliament.

Recommendation concerning workmen's compensation for occupational diseases (1925)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that in the laws of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, Saskatchewan and British Columbia, an industrial disease is defined as any disease mentioned in the schedule to the Act and any other disease which by regulation is declared to be an industrial disease.

In Australia, an Ordinance of 29 July 1931 in the Northern Territory, relating to workmen's compensation, adopts a definition by which it also covers occupational diseases. The Austrian Public Health Society has demanded the extension of the list of occupational diseases to include forms of pneumoconiosis, diseases due to radiant energy in certain industries, and certain forms of dermatitis. In Canada (Quebec) the Act of 4 April 1931 contains the list of diseases entitling the worker to compensation, namely: anthrax, lead, mercury, phosphorus and arsenic poisoning, ankylostomiasis,

[1] The information given refers only to 1931. See the tables appended to this volume for the general situation as regards the Convention.

miners' phthisis, benzol poisoning, stone workers' or grinders' phthisis, silicosis, pneumoconiosis, compressed air disease, and chromic poisoning. In Nova Scotia the Act of 15 April 1931 adds to the list of diseases injuries due to accidents to the spine. The Ontario Act of 2 April 1931 provides compensation in the case of accidents and occupational diseases affecting blind workers in industry. In China, the application of the Factory Act has been reported on by the Municipal Council of Shanghai, which considers that amongst the first measures to be taken are those concerned with compensation of occupational diseases and accidents. In France the Act of 1 January 1931, which came into force on 1 July, amends and completes that of 25 October 1919 extending the Workmen's Compensation Act of 9 April 1898 to occupational diseases. The diseases added to the list were enumerated in the *Annual Review* for 1930. The Order of 19 January 1931 reorganises the Industrial Hygiene Committee entrusted with the study of this question. In Great Britain the Trades Union Congress (Social Insurance Department) has published a very detailed statement regarding the need of extending the schedule at present in force. In Hungary the first list established by the Ministerial Order of 1928 is limited to the diseases enumerated in the 1925 Convention. Steps have been taken with a view to revising this list by the addition of other diseases considered as occupational. In the Dutch East Indies the problem of compensation for occupational diseases is said not to arise on account of their small number; but against this it should be remembered that the fundamental aim of compensation is prevention, and that even if the justice of the claim made here is admitted, any legislation passed would impose no great burden on industry. In Japan, an Act on insurance against accidents and occupational diseases was promulgated on 1 April 1931. In Latvia, the system of insurance against accidents and occupational diseases has been amended by the Act of 11 February 1931. In Mexico the Labour Code of 21 August 1931 provides for compensation for the following occupational diseases: anthrax, glanders, ankylostomiasis, actinomycosis, syphilis contracted by glass-blowers and hospital staffs, anthracosis, tetanus, silicosis, tuberculosis, siderosis, tobacco poisoning and other forms of pulmonary disease due to dust, dermatoses and various forms of dermatitis; diseases due to humidity, compressed or rarified air, ophthalmia and forms of sclerosis of the ears, hygroma, forms of cramp and occupational deformation; diseases due to ammonia, hydrofluoric acid, chlorine fumes, sulphur dioxide, carbon monoxide, carbonic acid, arsenic, lead (lead poisoning), mercury (mercury poisoning), sulphuretted hydrogen, nitrous fumes, carbon disulphide, hydrocyanic acid, colouring agents and hydrocarbons, carbides of hydrogen, alkaline chromates and bichromates; paraffin cancer, tar cancer and similar diseases. In New Zealand, a special commission of enquiry into the working of the Workmen's Compensation Acts has asked for a study of the systems in force in other British Dominions. In Sweden, a Royal Notification of

13 March 1931, amending that of 22 November 1929, extends compensation to diseases caused by stone dust. In Czechoslovakia, a draft Bill (8 July) on compensation for occupational diseases has been submitted to the Ministers and authorities concerned with a view to ratification of the 1925 Convention. A Bill to consolidate and amend the law relating to workmen's compensation, which follows very closely the compulsory system in force in Ontario, was introduced in March in the Union of South Africa.

The importance of the silicosis problem entitles it to particular mention in this analysis. Compensation for silicosis has been adopted: in Canada (Quebec) by the Act of 4 April; in Great Britain, where all regulations dealing with silicosis have been assembled in a series: No. 341, 20 April, Silicosis and Asbestosis (Medical Arrangements) Scheme; No. 342, 30 April, Various Industries (Silicosis) Scheme; No. 343, 30 April, Metal Grinding Industries (Silicosis) Scheme; No. 344, 30 April, Asbestos Industry (Asbestosis) Scheme; No. 345, 11 May, Refractory Industries (Silicosis) Scheme; No. 346, 20 May, Pottery Industry (Silicosis) Scheme; No. 412, 18 May, Silicosis and Asbestosis (Medical Fees) Scheme; Act of 1 August (Workmen's Compensation Silicosis and Asbestosis Act). In Chile, section 208 of the Legislative Decree of 15 May 1931 (Public Health Code) provides for the collaboration of the health authorities in the administration of measures for promoting hygiene and health in industry, and under section 209 these authorities receive notifications of certain occupational diseases to be designated in later regulations.

This brief survey of legislation would be incomplete without mention of the fact that in the United States, the Eastern Interstate Conference on Labour Legislation already referred to also discussed the question of introducing insurance against all occupational diseases by extending accident legislation. The proposed scheme would apply to all undertakings except agriculture and domestic service, and would provide full medical service. The Conference considered that all cases of occupational disease should be notified by the doctor making the diagnosis or attending the case and by employers acquainted with cases among their workers.

In spite of the progress made from year to year in the compensation of occupational diseases, it must be admitted that, as daily practice still shows, too many victims are excluded from the protection afforded by compensation legislation.

Industrial Medical Inspection

This question has been dealt with in a Recommendation on which the only information for 1931 is the following:

Recommendation concerning the establishment of Government health services (1919)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that the Dominion Department of Health Act, 1919, appears to be adequate to carry out this Recommendation.

In Germany, articles published in the medical press by experts have drawn attention to the fruitful results obtained by the medical inspectorate during its twenty-five years of activity. In Australia (Victoria), a Factories and Shops Bill empowers the medical inspector to examine any worker with the latter's consent. In Austria, the International Congress of Women Doctors passed a resolution demanding industrial medical inspection by men or women doctors. In Brazil, a Decree of 27 November 1930 deals with the improvement of health conditions in industrial establishments. The Ministry of Labour comprises a section for industrial hygiene, safety and inspection. In Egypt, a Bill (February) provides for the creation of a Labour Office to enforce the Act and Regulations of 1904 relating to unhealthy establishments. In Spain the duties of the workers' committees in industrial undertakings include participation in the drafting of hygiene regulations. In New Zealand, the commission of enquiry into the working of the Workmen's Compensation Acts has dealt with the organisation of an adequate medical service. In Poland, medical inspection is at present exercised by the Hygiene Section of the State School of Hygiene. In Sweden, the Riksdag, in adopting an amendment to the Labour Protection Act of 1912, invited the Government to effect an enquiry into the desirability of the compulsory medical examination of workers in undertakings where the work is particularly unhealthy. Provision is also made for consultation of workers' delegates on questions of industrial hygiene.

Factory doctors. — The relations between industry or labour in general and the medical profession are steadily becoming closer; it is now quite usual to find in the technical press studies that give an idea of the significance of industrial medicine and the rôle of the doctor in the factory. The International Hospitals Congress (Vienna, June) has also emphasised the importance of having a bureau for social work in hospitals. As regards direct systems of assistance for workers, it should be recalled that in many instances either private initiative or responsible authorities have aided the creation of hospitals and clinics for victims of occupational diseases and accidents, hospitals which in certain cases have at the same time become centres of instruction and vocational retraining.

Therapeutical treatment based on industrial work for the victims of accidents or occupational diseases is attracting more and more attention among doctors, sociologists and politicians.

Education and Publicity

Education and publicity in the field of industrial medicine have become much more intensive. It is interesting to note that sometimes more stress is laid on the lack or insufficiency of efforts in this direction than on the activities of existing institutions. Thus, it has been stated that in the United States and Canada only eight universities have courses of industrial hygiene, followed by less

than a hundred students of whom not even half are doctors; only a small number of these will be called on later to apply practically in industry the instruction received. Instances such as these are used to stimulate propaganda and demonstrate the need for qualified industrial doctors.

The International Congress of Women Doctors has demanded the institution of compulsory courses of industrial hygiene for medical students.

In Belgium, the new Association of Students of Psychotechnics aims at disseminating knowledge of scientific methods relating to the human factor in industry; the *Review of the Medicine and Surgery of Industrial Accidents and Occupational Diseases*, in response to the needs of the moment, has changed its title and become the *Review of Industrial Pathology and Physiology*. In Canada (British Columbia, Saskatchewan, and Alberta) the workmen's compensation boards are authorised by law to establish and maintain industrial hygiene museums and to organise illustrated lectures on the prevention of occupational diseases. In France, the Decree of 4 December 1930 set up an Institute of Industrial Medicine at the University of Lyons. In India, the Bombay Millowners' Association has organised a scheme of classes for training mill operatives in first aid. In Italy, a new treatise on occupational diseases has been published, and several faculties of medicine, in response to a circular issued by the Minister of National Education and the Minister of Corporations, have created chairs of industrial medicine. A prize competition has been organised by the Italian Association for the Prevention of Industrial Accidents, for the discovery of an apparatus to facilitate artificial respiration. In Japan, the Association of Industrial Hygiene (November) decided to discuss at its next sitting reports on high temperatures in workshops, industrial accidents, and occupational aptitudes. In the Netherlands a Society of Social Medicine has just been instituted to study and develop social hygiene and medicine and establish relations between doctors dealing with these problems in the various countries. In Poland, the Industrial Scientific Management Institute, founded at Warsaw in 1925 by the Labour League, is pursuing its research into psychological and physiological factors and has organised the first Congress on Industrial Hygiene. In Rumania, a review of social hygiene has been published since January last which studies problems of hygiene in their social aspect and their effect on the health of individuals. In the first number an article was devoted to industrial hygiene in Rumanian legislation. In Yugoslavia, the Regulations of 19 February 1931 deal with educational supplies and courses on social medicine.

The above information is selected from the considerable amount of material at the disposal of the Office. It is sufficient to give an idea of the steady progress of a movement inaugurated many years ago. During a period of depression such as the present—and, indeed, just because of the depression, which is undermining the foundations of the workers' physical health—it is a social duty to

prevent at all costs, the degeneration of those who form the backbone of society. The task is a heavy one, but it is absolutely essential to see that the workers of to-morrow shall not be physically inferior to those of to-day.

In this struggle, there is one man who must always be at his post: the doctor. " The doctor renders service, if not by completely restoring health, at least by preventing aggravation of the disease; and by removing the menace of death he succeeds in bringing comfort and succour to the patient who has lost all hope " (Morgagni).

Prevention of Industrial Accidents

The depression has had an adverse effect on the development of accident prevention in industrial undertakings. The employer is naturally more chary of incurring expense in this direction, even when the initial cost is his only outlay and is likely to prove a good investment. As a result, the factory inspectors have to confine their attention to maintaining existing regulations, and are hardly in a position to suggest fresh requirements. This in turn naturally affects national legislation, in which there is a remarkable scarcity of new features this year.

National Regulations [1]

General Regulations

In Mexico the Government promulgated a Federal Labour Code on 18 August 1931, which, in sections 111 (IV, V) and 113 (XII), establishes the respective obligations of employers and workers in connection with industrial safety. These provisions, which are somewhat general in character, are to be completed by public administrative regulations; they correspond, however, to the Recommendation of 1929 concerning the prevention of industrial accidents.

The Swedish Act of 12 June 1931 is more detailed and extends and completes the provisions of the Labour Protection Act of 29 June 1912. The new regulations apply to all industrial workers, including building operatives, the only exceptions being home workers and seamen employed on board ship. As regards agriculture, the Act is confined to accidents connected with the use of machinery, boilers, cauldrons and other high-pressure containers. Attention may be drawn in this connection to section 26, which requires the factory inspectors to advise employers applying to them on questions of safety and hygiene in connection with the construction or alteration of industrial premises or the introduction of new methods of work.

[1] For details see: " Acts and Regulations, Safety Codes ", in the *Industrial Safety Survey* (two-monthly publication of the International Labour Office).

Special Regulations [1]

Steam boilers. — The safety regulations concerning the operation of steam boilers have been completed in Denmark (13 November 1930, France (26 March 1931, by the extension of the existing provisions to Guadaloupe and the French Settlements in India), India (21 May 1931), Mexico (16 June 1931), the Netherlands (3 June 1931), Poland (8 November 1930), the U.S.S.R. (12 October 1930, for ships' boilers), and in Switzerland (6 January 1931).

Electricity. — Amendments to the regulations concerning high-tension installations have been issued in Belgium (29 September 1930), Canada (Saskatchewan, 11 March 1931), the French Settlements in India (13 February 1931), India (16 December 1930), and Sweden (29 May 1931).

Transmission machinery. — Special attention must be called to the very full safety regulations issued in the Union of South Africa on 31 July 1931, which apply generally to the transmission of electric power and to wood-working machinery, electrical plant, boilers, lifts and hoists. The regulations stipulate that in all undertakings in which power plant develops more than 250 h.p. or any single unit develops more than 75 h.p., an engineer must be directly responsible for the machinery and boilers. Special provisions deal with the training of these engineers, whose appointment must be approved in writing by the Factory Inspectorate. The latter may require the appointment of several engineers for specified operations in large-scale undertakings so that no two persons may be jointly responsible for the same machinery. The regulations describe in detail the rights and obligations of the worker to refuse to use machinery which is not provided with regulation safety devices. All disputes between factory inspectors and employers are settled in final instance by a special committee consisting of three Government representatives (including two qualified engineers) and two employers' representatives.

Lifts and hoists. — Apart from the provisions included in the South African regulations, the only new legislation relating to the operation of lifts and hoists is an Order issued in the *U.S.S.R.* on 27 March 1931. This Order deals also with the testing and the supervision of all such machinery.

Compressed and liquefied gases. — The Belgian Regulations of 30 April 1928 have been amended by the Order of 17 January 1931. The French Order of 11 August 1931 covers not only containers but also compressors used for the manufacture of compressed or liquefied gases and the apparatus using such gases. In Germany (Prussia) the trade in gaseous hydrochloric acid is regulated by a Decree issued on 25 September 1930.

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[1] The classification under which the various provisions are given is the same as that used in the *Grey Report on the Prevention of Industrial Accidents* (1928), and which has been adopted with some slight changes by numerous countries in their official publications relating to accident prevention.

Inflammable liquids. — The German (Prussian) provisions on this subject have been widely amended by the Decree of 26 November 1930. The new regulations vary with the degree of inflammability of the substance, and special detailed provisions are laid down for tank-lorries. Provisions on the same subject are to be found in the Belgian Decree of 8 October 1930, and in the Regulations issued for British Honduras on 29 October 1930, for Madagascar on 9 February 1931, for Northern Rhodesia on 5 December 1930 and for the U.S.S.R. on 12 October 1930.

Protection of machine-tools. — The Belgian Order of 28 September 1931 completes the Order of 20 November 1927 concerning wringing and drying machines, by detailed provisions concerning the registration of the results of supervisory visits. A French Order of 24 October 1930 formally prescribes the introduction of cylindrical cutterblocks on overhand planing machinery.

Autogenous welding and cutting. — Provisions for these operations are laid down in the Austrian Decree of 12 December 1930, while similar measures are embodied in the Decrees published in Colombia on 28 November 1930 and in the U.S.S.R. on 13 August 1930.

Regulation of Special Industries

Mines and quarries. — During the year a large number of countries have issued new general regulations for the prevention of accidents in mines and quarries and special regulations concerning the use of explosives and electricity in mines. In *Australia* (Queensland) two Orders were issued on 18 and 24 December 1930, the second of which covers the operation of electric extracting machines. In Austria there was an Order of 2 June 1931; in Belgium, the Order of 21 February 1931, relating to the use of explosives; in the Cameroons, the Decree of 9 August 1931, relating to quarries; in Cyprus, the Order of 17 August 1931 on the use of electricity; in France, two Decrees of 18 April 1931, amending the general regulations on mining work, and a Decree of 15 September 1930 on the use of explosives in quarries; and in Great Britain, the Order of 26 June 1931 on the use of explosives. Regulations were also issued in Kenya Colony and Protectorate (11 February 1931), Nigeria (9 February 1931), Northern Rhodesia (11 April 1931), the South African Union (2 June 1931) and the U.S.S.R. (Order of 15 December 1930 relating to the supervision of the installation of electric machinery in mines, Order of 3 January 1931 relating to the staff employed in blasting operations, and the General Safety Regulations for Mines of 24 March 1931).

Agriculture. — Regulations issued by Poland on 9 March 1931 embody provisions concerning accident prevention and hygiene in agriculture and forestry undertakings, including branches which have not a definite industrial or commercial character. An Order published in the U.S.S.R. on 30 September 1930 deals with similar matters, and is completed by special regulations

issued on 20 January 1931 in connection with the use of tractors and other agricultural machinery, and by an Order of 3 December 1930 relating to the organisation of timber-felling and transport.

Aerated water factories. — A Belgian Order of 13 April 1931 lays down special regulations for the prevention of accidents in such factories.

Celluloid goods and films. — The Austrian Decree of 12 December 1930 introduces regulations dealing with the handling of celluloid by home workers. On 9 July 1931, China issued an Order relating to the prevention of accidents in cinemas. Public regulations for the administration of the German Order of 20 October 1930, to which attention was drawn in the *Annual Review* for 1930, were issued on 21 July 1931. A detailed analysis of these regulations will be given in a study on celluloid which will appear shortly. Germany (Prussia) issued a special Order on 20 October 1931 to regulate the use and storage of radiographic films in hospitals and social welfare institutions. The prevention of accidents in cinemas was also dealt with in regulations issued in Northern Rhodesia on 2 November 1930.

Shipbuilding. — On 24 February 1931 the British Home Office issued special regulations for the prevention of accidents in the shipbuilding industry. These regulations deal with the approaches to ships on stocks, scaffolding of every description, measures to avoid accidents due to falls of objects, lighting, and first aid measures. A special section is devoted to the training of workers and the supervision of establishments. It is stipulated that an official must be purposely appointed to supervise the observance of the safety regulations in all undertakings usually employing at least 500 workmen. These officials, and their assistants, must devote their whole time to the prevention of accidents.

Building. — In Australia (Queensland) the Act of 25 September 1913 completes and strengthens the provisions relating to the inspection of scaffolding, in order to meet the ever-increasing mechanisation of scaffolding and hoisting apparatus. In Western Australia, the Act of 19 November 1930 deals with the same subject. The new Supplementary Regulations issued in Great Britain on 20 September 1931 concerning the prevention of accidents in the building industry show the necessity for a constant revision of safety regulations in the light of technical progress. As is well known, one of the greatest dangers connected with the use of hoisting apparatus (and this is true of other industries) arises from a want of knowledge of the loads lifted. A British invention enables this danger to be overcome by means of a regulation requiring all cranes of over 1500 kilograms lifting capacity to be fitted with an apparatus which shows at all times whether the maximum load has been exceeded or not. An Order issued in the U.S.S.R. on 7 February 1931 contains regulations for the safety of scaffolding and ladders, and instructions relating to the erection and taking down of scaffolding.

Transport. — By a Supplementary Order issued on 30 October 1930, Australia embodied in its shipping regulations the obligation to mark the weight on packages weighing over one ton. An Austrian Order of 8 September 1930 relating to aerial navigation includes provisions concerning the training of pilots and the technical measures to be taken to prevent accidents to aircraft. In the Free City of Danzig, the building regulations were completed on 7 October 1930 by provisions relating to the building and working of garages. The French Decree of 18 April 1931 sanctions the appointment of safety delegates for employees on the principal railway systems. These delegates are appointed by the existing staff committees, and are required to carry out first-hand enquiries and report on all accidents and their causes. In Germany (Prussia) the conveyance of petrol and the products of its distillation in tank vessels on the Rhine has again been the object of fresh regulations; tank vessels must be placed in the rear of trains at an interval of 50 metres. Provisions regarding the transport of dangerous objects by merchant ships have formed the subject of an agreement between the Maritime States of the Reich. A new Order has been introduced in the States (promulgated in Prussia on 18 September 1930). This Order lays down a series of general principles and transfers the purely technical provisions to two appendices. In keeping with the measures which have been adopted with success in various other branches of industry, a committee has been set up to make the necessary future amendments in the provisions of these appendices. Amendments adopted by the committee will come into operation automatically, after approval by the Governments concerned, on publication in the Federal and State Gazettes. In New Zealand the Tramway Act was strengthened on 25 October 1930 by new provisions which establish the methods to be followed for examination of unaccompanied drivers, while an Order issued on 14 April 1931 embodies detailed instructions concerning the grant of licences to professional drivers of motor vehicles. In Rumania the Act of 19 July 1931 regulates the organisation of work in ports.

The Progress of the Safety Movement and Institutions

The "Safety First" Movement

The "Safety First" movement continues to grow from year to year. The Office maintains more or less regular contact with numerous institutions in various countries; the number of such institutions known to the Office is now seventy-eight. An interesting attempt to promote safety by the constant and systematic training of youth in accident prevention has recently been made in Germany, where the Prussian Decree of 24 January 1931 provides for instruction in the dangers of accidents for pupils of vocational schools. The Decree is based on the belief that the instruction of the young is particularly necessary and fruitful. As, however,

the tutorial staff of the vocational schools generally has no actual experience of accidents, the Decree recommends that the factory inspectors should establish close relations with the teachers, discuss with them the details of accidents which happen, and address the pupils themselves on particularly important and striking cases. The teachers will also be regularly supplied with appropriate information based on the inspectors' annual reports.

Safety Museums

In May 1931 a second meeting of directors of safety museums was held in London at the invitation of the Home Office. Delegates from eight countries discussed topical subjects connected with the organisation and utilisation of the museums. The delegates paid a detailed visit to the new London Safety Museum.

International Action

Automatic Couplings

The Sub-Committee appointed by the Tripartite Committee for the prevention of accidents in the coupling of railway wagons is to hold its first meeting on 29 February 1932.

The Protection of Workers Engaged in Loading or Unloading Ships

Negotiations to promote the possibility of a simultaneous or quasi-simultaneous ratification of the Convention concerning the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships, entered into by the Governments of Germany and Great Britain, led these two countries to conclude that the rigidity of certain provisions of the Convention made it impossible for them to ratify it. An unofficial exchange of views arranged during the Fifteenth Session of the Conference with the object of arriving at an acceptable interpretation of the contested provisions of the Convention had no result, and the two Governments concerned finally submitted proposals for the revision of the points in question to the session of the Governing Body held in October 1931 [1].

The Correspondence Committee for Accident Prevention

Following the meeting of safety museum directors referred to above, this Committee held its fifth session in London on 8 and 9 May 1931. It then discussed a draft monograph on safety in the manufacture and use of celluloid submitted by Mr. Stiller, Ministerial Counsellor in Berlin, and approved it on all essential points. The monograph will appear during 1932 after the various

[1] It may be recalled that the Governing Body at its session in January 1932 decided to place the question of the revision of the Convention on the Agenda of the 1932 Session of the Conference.

additions suggested by members of the Committee have been made. The Committee also discussed the subjects which factory inspectors should be invited to deal with specially in their annual reports. This question will be treated more fully in the part of this volume dealing with factory inspection.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATIONS [1]

Recommendation concerning the prevention of industrial accidents (1929)

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

India. — The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted on 7 July and 10 March respectively the resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council to examine the possibility of giving effect to the Recommendation and to submit the results of this examination to the Legislature within a maximum period of eighteen months. All the major local governments and the Chief Commissioner of Delhi have expressed their opinion, in the light of which the Government of India has made a further examination of the Recommendation. While there is a general agreement with the principle underlying the Recommendation, there is considerable criticism of the details. The general view is that in some respects the Recommendation goes beyond what is possible or necessary in the existing stage of industrial development of the country. In particular it is considered that the application of this Recommendation in any form to agriculture would be inoperative in practice. The application of Parts I and II of the Recommendation presupposes an amount of co-ordination and co-operation between the three parties concerned —namely the Government, the employer and the employee—which cannot be expected in existing Indian conditions. Labour in India is still to a large extent migratory, illiterate and insufficiently organised to be able to undertake the various duties which are implicity required of it by the Recommendation. In addition there are certain proposals, particularly those relating to industrial accident insurance, psychological and physiological research, which postulate the existence of organisations and agencies which are either non-existent or still imperfectly developed.

Many of the items in the Recommendation are however already in operation in varying degrees and further progress is possible and desirable. Thus, although the terms of the Recommendation cannot be accepted as immediately practicable, they may be regarded generally as provisions which should be applied in the future. The Royal Commission on Labour have examined the working of the Factories Act and the Mines Act, which are the principal Acts concerned, and have made recommendations for their amendment and revision including proposals for industrial safety. The Recommendation will need to be re-examined in the light of the report of the Royal Commission on Labour. The Government of India propose to proceed with the consideration of the latter simultaneously with the former and to give effect to the Recommendation as far as may be practicable.

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Houses of Parliament on 12 and 19 February 1930 (16 January 1931).

Other Information

Australia. — The Government of the Commonwealth has drawn the attention of the Office to the provisions in force in this connection in New South Wales under the Workmen's Compensation Act, the Coal Mines Regulations Act,

[1] The information given here relates only to 1931. For the general situation in respect of the Convention on accident prevention see tables appended to this volume.

the Factories and Shops Act, the Scaffolding and Lifts Act, and, in Western Australia, under the Boat Licensing Act and the Navigation Act.

Canada.— The Recommendation and an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and the Provincial Legislatures respectively in relation to the subject matter of the Recommendation were submitted to the Parliament of Canada on 14 April 1931.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. The subject matter of the Recommendation is covered by the Factories Act, which is at present being examined by the Government.

Convention concerning the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels (1929)

Argentina. — A Bill completing the Industrial Accidents Responsibility Act and giving effect to the Convention is in preparation.

Australia. — Ratification registered on 9 March 1931.

Belgium. — A draft Royal Order containing provisions corresponding to those of the Convention has been submitted for observations to the Boards set up under the Act of 2 July 1899 concerning the safety and health of workers employed in industrial and commercial undertakings.

Chile. — The Convention is applied under section 246 of the Decree of 28 May 1931 for the consolidation of labour legislation, which came into operation on 29 November 1931. In virtue of this Decree the Minister of Shipping has been instructed to prepare the necessary administrative regulations. A report of the General Labour Inspectorate, dated 28 August 1931, urges that Congress should be petitioned to authorise ratification.

China. — Ratification registered on 24 June 1931.

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Department.

Estonia. — Act for the ratification of the Convention adopted by the Riigikogu on 17 December 1931. [1]

Greece. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention is in preparation.

Guatemala. — Submitted for examination to the National Labour Department.

Hungary. — Submitted for examination to the Ministry of Commerce.

India. — Ratification registered on 7 September 1931.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Japan. — Ratification registered on 16 March 1931.

Luxemburg. — Ratification registered on 1 April 1931.

Netherlands. — A Bill reserving to the Crown the right to ratify the Convention was adopted by the Second Chamber of the States General on 13 October 1931.

Two Bills dealing respectively with the marking of the weight on heavy packages transported by vessels in general and by vessels engaged in inland navigation have been submitted to the States General. The necessary provisions have also been included in a new Act relating to the handling of goods in maritime navigation and in the new Bill for the prevention of accidents in inland navigation. As the two latter laws will come into operation only at a later date, the Government has prepared two emergency Bills relating to the marking of the weight on heavy packages. When these have been adopted they will remain in force until the entry into operation of the two new laws mentioned above.

Poland. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention was adopted by the Council of Ministers and submitted on 25 August 1931 to the President of the Chamber.

[1] Ratification registered on 18 January 1932.

Portugal. — A Decree authorising the ratification of the Convention was issued on 11 December 1931. The Cabinet has decided to ratify the Convention.

Rumania. — The Legislative Council has adopted a Bill for the ratification of the Convention.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. The Minister of Foreign Affairs states that Siam has but a small shipping industry and that accidents to workers so employed are of rare occurrence. Moreover, there are no employers or workers organisations in Siam which can furnish the authorities concerned with any useful information in this regard. While the Government is in sympathy with the humanitarian object underlying this Convention, it does not in existing conditions consider that the time has yet arrived for it to take any action in this respect.

Spain. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Council.

Sweden. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention is in preparation.

Switzerland. — The Federal Council's report, submitted to the Federal Assembly on 8 December 1930, in which the Council states that it approves the Convention in principle and intends to submit to the Federal Assembly a draft Decree for the adherence of Switzerland to the Convention as soon as it has ascertained the attitude of the States mainly interested in the question, was approved by the Council of States on 10 June 1931 and by the National Council on 18 June 1931.

Yugoslavia. — The Minister of Social Policy and Public Health, after consultation with the competent authorities and organisations interested in the ratification of the Convention, proposed in a letter of 12 December 1931 that the Government should ratify the Convention.

Convention concerning the protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships (1929)

Australia. — The Government of the Commonwealth states that the subject matter of the Convention falls within the jurisdiction of the Commonwealth and the States. Shore activities are generally subject in Australia to the control of the State Governments or harbour authorities. Under this heading come approaches to docks, machines in use on shore, etc. Most of the remaining provisions are already covered by the regulations under the Commonwealth Navigation Act, although some of them are not yet provided for. Many of these, however, though not prescribed by regulations, are generally carried out by stevedores and others responsible for loading and unloading operations. As regards New South Wales, the existing regulations in force are considered sufficient for the purpose, particularly in view of the provisions of the Workers' Compensation Acts.

Colombia. — Submitted for examination to the Labour Department.

Estonia. — Submitted to the Riigikogu on 28 January 1931 without comment.

Hungary. — Submitted for examination to the Ministry of Commerce.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Japan. — The Privy Council decided on 18 February 1931 not to proceed with the immediate ratification of the Convention.

Luxemburg. — Ratification registered on 1 April 1931.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent Government Department on 2 June 1930.

Rumania. — The Legislative Council has adopted a Bill postponing the ratification of the Convention.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. The Minister of Foreign Affairs states that Siam has but a small shipping industry and that accidents to workers so employed are of rare occurrence. Moreover, there are no

employers' or workers' organisations in Siam which could furnish the authorities concerned with any useful information in this regard. While the Government is in sympathy with the humanitarian object underlying this Convention, it does not in existing conditions consider that the time has yet arrived for it to take any action in this respect.

Spain. — Submitted to the Labour Council.

Sweden. — On 4 April 1930 the Riksdag approved in principle the ratification of the Convention. The Minister of Social Affairs subsequently stated that the Government had not yet taken a decision with regard to ratification as the preparation of the necessary legislation had not been completed for a number of special reasons.

The question of the partial revision of the Convention has been placed on the Agenda of the Sixteenth Session of the Conference.

Recommendation concerning responsibility for the protection of power-driven machinery (1929)

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

India. — The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted on 10 March and 7 July 1930 respectively a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council to examine the possibility of giving effect to the Recommendation and to submit the result of this examination to the Legislature within a maximum period of eighteen months (5 December 1930).

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Houses of Parliament on 12 and 19 February 1930 (16 January 1931).

Other Information

Australia. — The Government of the Commonwealth has drawn the attention of the Office to the provisions in force in this connection in New South Wales (the Coal Mines Regulation Act, the Mines Inspection Act, the Scaffolding and Lifts Act, the Factories and Shops Act, and Regulations issued thereunder), in Tasmania (Local Factories Acts, Mines and Works Regulation Acts and Inspection of Machinery Acts), and in Western Australia (the Mines Regulation Act, the Inspection of Machinery Act, the Timber Industry Regulation Act, and the Inspection of Scaffolding Act.)

Canada. — The Recommendation and an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and the Provincial Legislatures respectively in relation to the subject matter of the Recommendation, were submitted to the Parliament of Canada on 14 April 1931.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. The Recommendation is covered by the Factories Act, which is at present being examined by the Government.

Recommendation concerning reciprocity as regards protection against accidents of workers employed in loading or unloading ships (1929)

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

India. — The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted on 14 and 15 July respectively a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council to examine the possibility of giving effect to the Recommendation and to submit the result of this examination to the Legislature within a maximum period of eighteen months (5 December 1930).

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Houses of Parliament on 12 and 19 February 1930 (16 January 1931).

Other Information

Canada. — The Recommendation and an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and the Provincial Legislatures respectively in relation to the subject-matter of the Recommendation were submitted to the Parliament of Canada on 14 April 1931.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. While the Government is in sympathy with the object underlying this Recommendation, it does not in existing conditions consider that the time has yet arrived for it to take any action in this respect.

Recommendation concerning the consultation of workers' and employers' organisations in the drawing up of regulations dealing with the safety of workers employed in loading or unloading ships (1929)

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

India. — The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted on 14 and 15 July 1930 respectively a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council to examine the possibility of giving effect to the resolution and to submit the result of this examination to the Legislature within a maximum period of eighteen months (5 December 1930).

Irish Free State. — Submitted to the Houses of Parliament on 12 and 19 February 1930 (16 January 1931).

Other Information

Australia. — The Government of the Commonwealth has drawn the attention of the Office to the provisions in force in this connection in New South Wales. The State Navigation Department is carrying out consultations with the organisations.

Canada. — The Recommendation and an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and the Provincial Legislatures respectively in relation to the subject matter of the Recommendation were submitted to the Parliament of Canada on 14 April 1931.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Siam. — Submitted to the competent authorities. While the Government is in sympathy with the object underlying the Recommendation, it does not in existing conditions consider that the time has yet arrived for it to take any action in this respect.

Women's Work

Employment of Women

Women workers, like men, are affected by the prevalence of unemployment, and it may be seen from those national unemployment or placing statistics which make a distinction between the two sexes in indicating the supply of and demand for labour that the unemployment curves for men and women workers, though not exactly parallel in every detail, move on similar lines.

In *France*, the figures for applications for work which the public employment exchanges could not satisfy permit a comparison to be made between the unemployment of the two sexes. Applications by both men and women workers show a steady increase, the

figures being: 1 August 1931, 37,002 men, 13,290 women; 31 October, 61,000 men, 18,688 women; 28 November, 97,291 men, 25,533 women; 26 December, 137,883 men, 36,595 women. Unemployment thus seems to have increased more rapidly among men than among women, for the number of unsatisfied applications by men almost quadrupled between 1 August and 26 December, while those by women only trebled; but these statistics do not include partial unemployment, which, to judge by the German statistics, is particularly prevalent among women.

In *Germany*, the number of applicants for work whom the public exchanges could not satisfy, which was 3,026,996 men and 736,412 women in November 1930, rose to 3,953,073 men and 1,003,391 women in January 1931, fell to 3,295,019 men and 780,604 women (the lowest points) in June and July 1931 respectively, and rose again to 4,158,835 men and 995,002 women in November 1931, and 4,633,328 men and 1,112,481 women on 31 December 1931. The percentages of unemployment among organised workers, however, show that in Germany men and women are somewhat differently affected, for total unemployment is commoner among the former and partial unemployment among the latter. In August 1931, for instance, total unemployment (i.e. unemployment due to depression, exclusive of seasonal occupations) amounted to 27.6 per cent. for men and 25.3 per cent. for women, while partial unemployment was only 23.6 per cent. for men and as high as 34.3 per cent. for women. In December the proportion of total unemployment was 33.7 per cent. for men and 31.1 per cent. for women, and of partial unemployment 25.5 per cent. for men and 32.2 per cent. for women.

In *Great Britain and Northern Ireland* there is little difference between the movements of the two curves, but, as in France, the percentages are notably lower for women than for men, even when partial unemployment is included. On 22 June 1931, 2,068,072 insured men workers (23.2 per cent.) and 638,723 insured women workers (18.4 per cent.) were unemployed; on 21 September the figures were 2,173,302 men (24.3 per cent.) and 707,244 women (20.4 per cent.), the highest for the half year; on 21 December, the figures had fallen to 2,132,343 men (23.2 per cent.) and 538,474 women (15 per cent). This falling off reflects a considerable recovery in the textile industries, where a majority of women workers are employed.

With regard to unemployment relief [1], mention should be made of certain legislative measures with particular application to women. The New Zealand Act of 22 July 1931 provides for special aid for unemployed women workers such as is not be found in the Act of 1930, which was analysed in the *Annual Review* for 1930. On the other hand, the depletion of unemployment insurance funds in several countries has given rise to a number of restrictive

[1] Cf. Chapter V, " Unemployment ".

measures which include in some cases special restriction of the rights of married women, either directly (Germany, Legislative Decrees of 5 June and 6 October 1931, Great Britain, Unemployment (Anomalies) Regulations of 1931) or indirectly by limiting the right to benefit of persons with other means of support than their own labour.

Place of Women's Work in the Economic System

The falling off in the demand for labour has again drawn attention to the employment of women. The *Annual Review* for 1930 referred to the campaign against " double earning " in the countries most severely affected by the depression; this has been continued in several quarters in the form of attacks on the employment of married women [1], especially in the civil service, where it is sought to restrict it either by apparently temporary administrative measures or, in Germany, by Bills to which the different political parties have reacted in the most varied way.

While the depression has led in some countries to such " hard times " legislation, received with frequent protest by the persons affected, in U.S.S.R. the employment of women workers has continued to increase, to keep pace with the need for labour for the execution of the economic plans. In 1931 a great effort was made to raise the quantity and efficiency of this form of labour, and it was estimated that the number of women employed in different occupations would increase by nearly one and a half millions during the year—200,000-250,000 in the construction and 500,000-600,000 in other industries, 100,000 in transport, 100,000-120,000 in commerce, and more than 400,000 in agriculture; and, according to information submitted to the plenary assembly of the Soviet Central Executive Committee, the proportion of women employed in industry in December 1931 was 32 per cent.

Before 1931 female labour had been used principally for unskilled work, but during the year the Soviet Government set itself to improve the vocational training of women and to extend their employment to an increasing number of skilled occupations. The vocational schools attached to industrial undertakings were instructed to reserve a proportion of their accommodation—up to 50 per cent. in the metal industries and up to 25 per cent. in the building and motor-car industries—for women, while in two Decrees of January and May 1931 the People's Commissariat of Labour issued a long list of industrial operations and commercial positions —some of them very highly skilled—in which women should be employed more frequently if not exclusively.

The increasing mechanisation of agriculture on the " kolkhoses " or collective farms has enabled more and more of the large scale tractor work to be done by women.

[1] Cf. Part I, Chapter III, " Women's Organisations ".

Hand in hand with the more intensive employment of women, the Soviet authorities have developed collective institutions to facilitate such employment—dining rooms, nurseries, etc.

General Protection of Women Workers

Employment in Dangerous or Arduous Work

Apart from the measures relating to the Convention of 1921 concerning the use of white lead in painting, which are referred to above [1], the following may be mentioned here.

National Regulations

Brazil. — The Government has introduced a Bill on women's and children's work, the provisions of which prohibit the employment of women in underground work, quarries and large scale building, and in dangerous or unhealthy operations, a list of which is appended, and regulate the handling of heavy loads by women.

Chile. — The new Labour Code promulgated on 13 May 1931 prohibits the employment of women in underground, arduous or unhealthy work.

Mexico. — The Federal Labour Code of 18 August 1931 prohibits the employment of women in underground, dangerous or unhealthy work.

Trinidad and Tobago. — An Ordinance of January 1931 on work in mines and quarries prohibits the employment of women wherever explosives are in use.

U.S.S.R. — It was mentioned above that increased employment of women on tractors, particularly in agriculture, has been recommended, but steps are also taken to ensure that this naturally arduous work shall not injure the health of the women drivers. The conditions under which women may be so employed are therefore regulated by a Decree of 9 May 1931.

International Regulation

In pursuance of two resolutions adopted by the International Labour Conference at its Fifteenth and Sixteenth Sessions, the International Labour Office submitted to the Governing Body, at its Fifty-fifth Session, a report on the law and practice with regard to the regulation of the employment of women and young persons in underground work. At its Fifty-sixth Session the Governing Body decided that the question should not be included

[1] Cf., *supra*, under " Industrial Hygiene ".

in the Agenda of the Conference of 1933; its examination is thus postponed to a subsequent session.

Night Work of Women

National Regulations

Brazil. — The Bill introduced by the Government prohibits the employment of women between 10 p.m. and 5 a.m.

Chile. — The new Labour Code prohibits the employment of women in industrial undertakings between 8 p.m. and 7 a.m. This regulation has made it possible for the Government to ratify the Convention.

Hungary. — The provisions of the Act of 1928 on the protection of young persons and women, which owe their origin to the Convention, came into force in virtue of the Decree of 30 December 1930. Night work in industrial undertakings in general was prohibited from 1 July 1931, and in textile industries from 1 January 1932.

India. — In the State of Hyderabad the night work of women has, according to the factory inspectors' reports, completely ceased since the beginning of the year. In view of the labour conditions in the factories of this State, such a reform marks a great advance.

Mexico. — Under the Labour Code of 14 August 1931, women and children between twelve and sixteen years of age may not be employed between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m.

Rumania. — The Act prohibiting women's work between 10 p.m. and 6 a.m. is not applied in printing works. The factory inspector at Cluj reported on the works not complying with the law, but on 12 October 1931 the employers' association obtained the permission of the Ministry of Labour to employ women until midnight on condition that their hours of work do not exceed eight per day.

Sweden. — A Bill to amend the Labour Protection Act of 1912 containing provisions to extend the prohibition of the night work of women and children has been introduced in the Riksdag, but on the advice of the competent parliamentary committee both Chambers rejected these provisions.

United States. — The movement in favour of the abolition of night work for women, which was mentioned in the *Annual Review* for 1930, continued during 1931. In the wool industry, the Wool Institute passed a resolution on the subject on 29 July 1931 and decided to send voting papers to all the manufacturing firms so that they might give their opinion freely for or against the prohibition of night work for women. A member of the Institute declared that the lack of homogeneous legislation on labour conditions in the different

States was one of the principal causes of the existing depression in the textile industry. The suppression of night work in most of the cotton mills has resulted in a considerable improvement in the economic situation of that industry; stocks are lower than in previous years and the number of orders is on the rise.

At the last meeting of the Cotton Textile Institute, held in New York in October 1931, it was said that more than 80 per cent. of the undertakings in the whole cotton industry, with about 79 per cent. of all spindles, had declared themselves in favour of the prohibition of night work for women. Mr. George A. Sloan, Chairman of the Executive Committee, showed that such prohibition would mean the abolition of night work for the whole staff, for several manufacturers who had tried to establish a night shift of men only had met with serious difficulties and had declared that the system would undoubtedly be abandoned completely when normal conditions returned. The Committee therefore expressed the opinion that if more undertakings conformed with the Institute's recommendation it would be easier to standardise employment by concentrating on day work.

In the State of *Rhode Island* a commission has been set up to enquire into the possibility of prohibiting night work for women as a remedy for unemployment. The commission is now conducting an enquiry and will report on the subject to the Legislature in the near future.

U.S.S.R. — Certain trade union leaders have proposed that complete equality between the sexes in respect of labour conditions should be introduced, but this principle has not been accepted. Although in practice the prohibition of the night work of women is apparently in abeyance, the Commissariat of Labour called attention at the beginning of 1931 to the regulations providing for rest at night for women during pregnancy or when nursing their children.

International Regulation [1]

Convention concerning employment of women during the night (1919)

Albania. — The Convention has been approved by Parliament.

Chile. — Ratification was registered on 8 October 1913.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Japan. — The Government states that provisions prohibiting the night work of women from 1 July 1929 and 1 September 1933 respectively were included in the Factory Act Amendment Act of 1923 and in the Regulations respecting the employment and payment of miners of 1928.

Lithuania. — Ratification was registered on 19 June 1931.

Portugal. — The Government has promulgated a Decree for the ratification of the Convention.

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[1] The information given here refers to 1931 only; see the tables appended for the general situation as regards this Convention.

Sweden. — Both Chambers of the Riksdag have adopted a Bill to amend certain parts of the Labour Protection Act of 29 June 1912. In the opinion of the Government, this new legislation will not make it possible to ratify the Convention.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except, however, those which concern the employment of women. It will therefore again be necessary to submit these Conventions to the Chamber.

Revision of the Convention. — As the *Annual Review* for 1930 mentioned, the Belgian, British and Swedish Governments had suggested the revision of the Convention on two specific points— exclusion from its application of women employed in a supervisory capacity, and latitude in fixing the beginning and end of the night period during which the employment of women is prohibited— and the Governing Body accordingly included this question in the Agenda of the Conference.

Women trade unionists declared themselves categorically opposed to all revision. Although the amendments contemplated were not important, they were nevertheless, in the view of the trade unions, a dangerous precedent in the direction of the revision of protective legislation for women. It was also urged that the health and hygiene reasons which had led to the prohibition of night work for women and to the adoption of the Convention had lost none of their force and still applied to all classes of women; and furthermore, that the chief result of the desired amendments would be to facilitate organisation of the work in two shifts, a system which had been condemned.

During the discussion, speakers in favour of revision argued that social conditions have changed since the adoption of the Convention in 1919 and that women are now taking up positions in which night work cannot be prohibited.

After the general discussion the Conference adopted the amendments proposed, but at the final vote the draft Convention, thus revised, failed to obtain the required two-thirds majority.

Employment of Women Before and After Childbirth

The present difficult conditions have not altogether arrested the progress of labour legislation in this important field, and useful measures were passed in several States in 1931. In some countries, however, the financial straits of the social insurance institutions have necessitated the restriction of maternity benefits. It is to be hoped that this retrogression is but momentary and will cease as soon as the budgets of the institutions and of the States recover their normal equilibrium.

National Regulations

Brazil. — The Bill above referred to provides for a month's—in exceptional cases six weeks'—leave both before and after confinement. During this period the mother retains her right to employment and is entitled to receive from an insurance institution or her employer an indemnity equal to half her ordinary remuneration. While nursing her child she must be allowed two special daily rest periods of half an hour each. In case of miscarriage women workers are entitled to a fortnight's leave on the same conditions as in case of childbirth.

Chile. — The Labour Code of 1931 consolidates and in some respects improves the legislation on the protection of women workers at the time of childbirth.

Costa Rica. — A Bill to accord special protection to mothers and children has been introduced in the National Congress and will probably be discussed during 1932.

Denmark. — The Act of 31 March 1931 entitles women public servants to maternity leave.

France. — On 30 March 1931 the Chamber of Deputies passed a Bill, amending section 54*a* of Book II of the Labour Code, to extend the period of compulsory rest following confinement from four to six weeks. This Bill is now before the Senate. Further, a draft resolution proposes in the grading of mothers working State undertakings so that they may take long leave to attend to their families and still retain their seniority rights when able to resume work.

Germany. — The Legislative Decree of 8 December 1931 has cut down all the benefits allowed by the sickness insurance funds, including maternity benefit, to those made compulsory by law. The statutory confinement allowances is given for periods corresponding with the rest periods defined in the Washington Convention, and the statutory nursing allowance for a period of twelve weeks. The Decree abolishes the right of the funds under the Social Insurance Code to allow supplementary allowances for confinement (up to thirteen weeks after the birth of the child) and for nursing (up to twenty-six weeks).

Hungary. — The provisions of the Act of 1928 on the protection of women and children, which regulate employment before and after childbirth in accordance with the Washington Convention, came into force for industry in general on 1 July 1931 and for textile industries on 1 January 1932. On the other hand, as an emergency measure, a special Order of 31 December 1931 authorises the reduction of the maternity benefits payable under the compulsory sickness insurance scheme. According to the 1927 Act,

these are to be equal to the daily or average daily wage of the insured women; now they may be reduced by 50 per cent.

India. — In the Central Provinces, the " Maternity Indemnity Act of 1930 " was published in April 1931. It grants women factory workers optional leave of four weeks before confinement and compulsory rest of four weeks afterwards. During such leave women may not be dismissed and are entitled to their normal daily wages.

Italy. — Amendment of the maternity protection legislation is under consideration.

Luxemburg. — The Government has introduced a draft Decree whose principal object is to bring Luxemburg legislation into conformity with the Washington Convention on childbirth.

Mexico. — The Federal Labour Code prohibits the employment of women workers for one week before and one month after confinement. This leave may be extended in case of incapacity. During the leave period, normal remuneration continues and dismissal is prohibited. While nursing her child, the mother is entitled to two daily rest periods of half an hour each.

Spain. — A Decree of 26 May 1931 brings into force a maternity insurance scheme for which provision was made several years ago and which was analysed in a previous *Report of the Director.* It came into force on 1 October 1931.

Sweden. — Two Orders of 26 June 1931 have greatly improved maternity protection, but have not brought Swedish legislation into complete conformity with the Convention.

One of these Orders, which amends existing legislation on officially recognised sickness insurance funds, obliges the latter to pay certain maternity benefits—a confinement benefit and an allowance equal to that paid in case of sickness but not less than 2 kronor daily—for a period which is specially extended in the case of women coming under the provisions of the Factory Act concerning leave before and after childbirth; the minimum period for such allowances is forty-two days, the maximum fifty-six days.

The other Order introduces a State-supported maternity assistance scheme, under which allowances of 1 krona daily will be paid through the officially recognised sickness funds, firstly to women not entitled to benefit from such a fund and secondly to insured women falling under the above-mentioned provisions of the Factory Act after expiry of the minimum period of benefit and up to a maximum of fifty-six days.

Yugoslavia. — The Act of 5 December 1931 amends the Social Insurance Act of 1922 with regard to maternity benefit, reducing the period of maternity allowances from four months in all to six weeks before and six weeks after childbirth, and that of nursing

allowances from twenty to twelve weeks. Further, contributions must have been paid for a longer period to qualify for the right to benefits.

International Regulation

Convention concerning the employment of women before and after childbirth (1919) [1]

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Estonia. — The Riigikogu took note of the Convention on 22 October 1931 and has also adopted a resolution requesting the Government to introduce a Bill to ratify the Convention or give effect to its provisions.

Poland. — The Convention was again submitted to the Sejm on 25 August 1931. In a note to the President of the Sejm the Government set forth the differences between existing legislation and the Convention.

Portugal. — Before ratifying the Government intends to settle various questions relating to social insurance.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, with the exception of those which concern the employment of women. It will therefore again be necessary to submit these Conventions to the Chamber.

Economic Protection of Women Workers

The economic depression is making it all the more urgent to counteract the insufficient remuneration of women, both in their own interests and in that of men, whose wage level may be unfavourably affected by the competition of low-paid women workers.

The women's organisations, as has been mentioned in Part I, Chapter III, have kept up an insistent demand for " equal pay for equal work " at their congresses during the year; and the efforts to improve the economic position of women workers by way of legislation—despite the difficulties entailed by such a method—seem also to have increased. The following legislative measures have been passed or discussed during 1931 with the object either of establishing minimum wages for women (measures dealing with the payment of all workers in accordance with the Convention of 1927 are referred to in the chapter on wages), or to prohibit the payment to women workers of lower wages than those received by men for similar work.

Brazil. — The first section of the Bill mentioned above establishes the principle of equal pay for equal work without distinction of sex.

Canada. — In Nova Scotia an Act passed in 1931 amended the legislation on minimum wage rates for women in several respects.

Chile. — The Labour Code already referred to establishes the principle of equal pay for equal work without distinction of sex.

[1] The information given here applies only to 1931. See the tables appended for the general situation as regards this Convention.

Mexico. — The Labour Code mentioned above not only establishes the principle of equal pay for equal work without distinction of sex, but introduces certain practical measures in support of the principle by making its application effective (contracts based on inequality of remuneration between the sexes are declared invalid, and penalties are provided for any violation of wage legislation).

United States. — A Bill to establish minimum wage rates for women workers has been introduced in Texas, a previous Texan Act on the subject having been repealed in 1921.

The Protection of Children and Young Persons

Owing in part to the inclusion in the Agenda of the last Conference of a question relating to the employment of children in non-industrial occupations, and in part to its bearing upon unemployment, the employment of children and young persons received more attention than usual during 1931 [1]. It is felt in many quarters that while the unemployment crisis lasts the work of children and juveniles should be restricted as far as possible, either by keeping them at school, or by using their services only for light work or work of an educative character. This feeling is reflected in the action or resolutions of workers' organisations, some of the more important of which are dealt with below under the heading of " Employment and Unemployment ".

As regards legislation, the desirability of regulating non-industrial as well as industrial work is now well recognised. It is to be hoped that one result of the forthcoming Conference will be the adoption of a minimum age standard for this work. For industrial work fourteen years remains the accepted standard, though in the United States a tendency may be seen to raise it to sixteen years, at any rate during school hours. For dangerous or unhealthy occupations, and particularly for underground work, a higher admission age than fourteen is often found in new laws or in amendments to old ones.

Legislation passed during 1931 deals principally with the age of admission to employment, hours, night work, and underground or dangerous work. Bills dealing with these and kindred matters are also being considered in a number of States.

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[1] It has therefore been thought best to group in this section all information on the work of children and young persons (including agricultural, maritime and native labour). Some of this information will thus be repeated in the chapter on " Special Categories of Workers ".

Age of Admission of Children to Industrial Employment

National Regulations

Australia. — In New South Wales a Government Bill proposes to raise the age for admission to employment in coal mines from fourteen to sixteen years.

Brazil. — A Government Bill to regulate the work of children and young persons would altogether forbid the employment of children under fourteen years old in industrial work, exceptions being allowed for family undertakings and approved technical schools. Young persons of from fourteen to eighteen years of age would be required, before entering employment, to produce proof of age, authorisation from a parent or guardian, certificate of fitness from an approved medical officer and (except in cases of extreme poverty) proof of educational fitness. No young person under sixteen years old might be employed underground, and the employment of young persons at such work would be subject to restrictions up to the age of twenty-one years. The Bill appears to conform to the Convention concerning the age of admission of children to industrial employment.

British Colonies and Protectorates. — In British Honduras a new Act of 20 November 1931 regulates the industrial employment of children under fourteen years of age. It prohibits the employment of children under twelve years of age and imposes restrictions upon their employment in dangerous or unhealthy occupations. The General Minerals Regulations of 31 December 1931 prohibit the employment of children of under fourteen years in underground workings.

In Fiji The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Ordinance, 1931, intended to carry out the provisions of the Convention concerning the age of admission to industrial employment, has received assent. Similar Ordinances have received assent in the Gilbert and Ellice Islands and in the Solomon Islands Protectorate. In British North Borneo a 1931 amendment of the Labour Ordinance, 1929, forbids the industrial employment of children under fourteen years of age.

In Mauritius the new Employment of Children Ordinance, 1931, provides that children under thirteen years of age may not be employed in factories. In Uganda the new Employment of Children Rules, 1931, prohibit the employment of children of from twelve to fourteen years of age in certain dangerous industrial occupations or processes.

Canada. — In Alberta the age of admission to underground work in coal mines was raised from sixteen to seventeen years by an Act of 28 March 1931.

Colombia. — An Act of 8 October raises from fourteen to eighteen years the minimum age for admission to dangerous and unhealthy employment.

India. — The Royal Commission appointed to enquire into labour conditions in India and to make recommendations has advocated raising the admission age for underground work from twelve to fourteen years.

Luxemburg. — A Bill has been drafted to bring the existing law into complete conformity with the Convention, which has been ratified by the Grand Duchy.

Mexico. — The new Labour Code imposes a general age limit of twelve years for all employment and of sixteen years for the dangerous or unhealthy occupations enumerated in a schedule.

Palestine. — The census of 1930 shows a marked rise in the age level of juvenile workers; this is attributed to the activities of the Juvenile Workers' Organisation and to the effects of protective legislation. It is proposed to increase the stringency of the existing legislation relating to industrial employment and, in particular, to increase the number of dangerous trades specifically prohibited for young persons and to require a medical examination of children prior to their admission to industrial employment.

Salvador. — The new Public Health Code forbids the employment of children under fourteen years old in factories.

South Africa. — An Act amending the Factories Act forbids the employment of children under fourteen years of age in factories and withdraws the facilities previously granted for exemption at twelve years.

Sweden. — By a Notification dated 23 October 1931 certain changes have been made in the age for admission to employment and in the provisions concerning the employment of young persons on certain kinds of work. For industrial work the previous minimum age was thirteen years for boys and fourteen years for girls, and it applied only to the larger undertakings. The age is now fourteen years for boys and girls alike, and applies to all industrial undertakings as well as to building and transport. Further, the Notification of 26 September 1930, which prohibited the employment of young persons in certain kinds of cleaning work in textile factories forming part of the actual process of production, has been amended, as an enquiry made by the Social Board showed that the operations in question were comparatively safe. The new Notification of 23 October 1931 provides that the prohibition shall not apply to such cleaning as forms part of the actual process of production in specified occupations in textile factories, or where safety measures have been taken, or where conditions of work are such as to require the young persons employed to have a permit from the factory inspector.

United States. — The White House Conference on Vocational Guidance and Child Labor which was held towards the end of 1930 passed an important series of resolutions recommending

general legislative standards for use in the United States. These included a minimum age of sixteen years for admission to employment, medical examination on such admission and periodically thereafter up to the age of eighteen years, and restrictions upon dangerous occupations. The prohibition of the employment of children in industrial home work was also recommended. Almost identical recommendations were published at the beginning of 1931 by the National Educational Association of the United States and the National Child Labor Committee. The Interstate Conference on Child Labor Legislation, attended by delegates from ten important industrial States, advocated a minimum age of sixteen years for the entry of school children into employment and fourteen years for work outside school hours. It was further recommended that all young workers under eighteen years of age should be required to have medical certificates of fitness.

In the individual States, the Colorado legislature has resolved to ratify the Child Labor Amendment to the United States Constitution, which would give the Congress power to regulate the labour of persons under eighteen years old. This is the sixth State to ratify. Ratification has been recommended by the Governors of New Mexico and Oregon.

In Illinois the Committee on Child Welfare Legislation advocates raising the minimum age for admission to employment to sixteen years with safeguards up to eighteen years. In Mississippi an Act has been passed prohibiting the employment of children under sixteen in any mill, cannery, workshop, factory or manufacturing establishment unless the child has completed its elementary school course or is still at school. In Missouri children may not be employed unless they have completed their school attendance. In New Jersey the standard which a child must reach before leaving school to enter employment has been raised from the sixth to the eighth grade, but a child of fifteen years of age who has completed the sixth grade may leave school for employment. In North Carolina completion of the sixth grade is recommended before children may be employed in industry.

International Regulations [1]

Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to industrial employment (1919)

Albania. — The Convention has been approved by Parliament.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Sweden. — In 1931 both Chambers of the Riksdag adopted a Bill to amend certain parts of the Labour Protection Act of 29 June 1912. In the opinion of the Government this new legislation will not make it possible to ratify the Convention.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have

[1] The information given here applies only to 1931. See the tables appended for the general situation as regards the Convention.

also been approved by the Senate, except, however, those which concern the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Age of Admission to Employment in Agriculture

United States. — The White House Conference on Vocational Guidance and Child Labor paid particular attention to agriculture, which employs in the United States more children than any other occupation and is one of the least well regulated. The Conference recommended that the employment of children in agriculture should be forbidden during school hours and that no child under fourteen years should be employed in agriculture for wages, while the work of such children should be confined to light tasks. The object of these recommendations was to give children employed in agriculture equal opportunities with town children. In Massachusetts a commission appointed to examine the employment of children in industrialised agriculture has recommended that such work be prohibited for children under fourteen years.

Hours of Work

British Colonies and Protectorates. — In British Guiana the new Mining Regulations, 1931, reduce the period during which boys under sixteen years may be employed below ground from forty-eight to forty hours weekly. The daily hours for surface work remain at eight. In British Honduras the new Act previously mentioned limits the hours of work of children under fourteen years of age employed in industry to four, and those of young persons under sixteen years to six in the day. In Uganda the Employment of Children Rules, 1931, prescribe daily breaks for children of from twelve to fourteen years of age employed in factories.

India. — In India the Royal Commission to enquire into labour conditions has recommended that further limitations be imposed upon the employment of children in factories.

Japan. — Certain provisions of the Factories Act have come into force which will limit the hours of young persons under sixteen years employed in spinning mills to eleven daily, including one hour's rest.

Spain. — The new Hours Decree of 1 July 1931 prohibits overtime for young persons under sixteen years employed in industry.

United States. — The White House Conference on Vocational Guidance and Child Labor, the National Educational Association of the United States, the National Child Labor Committee and the Interstate Conference on Labor Legislation have all advocated the limitation of the hours of young persons under eighteen years of age employed in industry.

Night Work of Young Persons

National Regulations

Brazil. — A Government Bill based on the Convention prohibits night work for young persons under eighteen years of age.

British Colonies. — In Fiji the Ordinance mentioned above has the effect of applying the Convention, though one alteration is made to adapt it to local conditions, seventeen years being fixed instead of eighteen as the minimum age at which young male workers may be employed at night. In the Gilbert and Ellice Islands and the Solomon Islands, too, Ordinances apply the Convention. In British Honduras the new Act of 20 November 1931 on the employment of children and young persons in industrial undertakings prohibits night work for young persons under sixteen years of age. The term " night " has the same meaning as in the Convention, which is also followed with regard to the exceptions provided.

Czechoslovakia. — The draft Bill on the forty-hour week, which is analysed above in the section on hours of work, would amend the legislation on night work for young persons and raise the minimum age of admission of young male workers to employment at night from sixteen to eighteen years. If the Bill becomes law, it will bring Czechoslovak legislation into conformity with the Convention.

Hungary. — On 1 July 1931 the Government issued a Decree to give effect, in cotton-spinning and weaving undertakings, to the provisions prohibiting night work for young persons in the Act of 1928 on the protection of women and children, which is based on the text of the Convention and was promulgated to permit of ratification.

Mexico. — As stated above, under the heading of the night work of women, the Labour Code prohibits night work between 8 p.m. and 6 a.m. for children of under sixteen years.

Palestine. — The General Federation of Jewish Labour has held two enquiries into the employment of Jewish children in the towns and bigger colonies, one before and one after the promulgation of the Ordinance of 1927 regulating the industrial employment of women and children. Though it was found that the Ordinance had very considerably improved the conditions of child labour, the Federation proposed that a special Ordinance on this subject be issued embodying the present regulations and certain amendments and additions. Night work should, in the opinion of the Federation, be prohibited for young persons under eighteen years of age instead of as at present sixteen, while the rest period should extend from 6 p.m. (instead of 7 p.m.) to a 6 a.m. in order that children may be able to benefit by the evening classes organised by the Federation.

United States. — The provisions tending to prohibit night work for children in the textile industry were considered above in the section on night work for women[1]. In two States the message of the Governor at the opening of the legislative session in January 1931 recommended the prohibition of night work for children: in North Carolina, for girls under eighteen years of age employed in industry; and in South Carolina, for all young persons under eighteen years, excepting those employed in textile plants or cotton mills, where the minimum age should be sixteen years. Furthermore, besides the recommendation to prohibit night work for children which was adopted by the White House Conference at the end of 1930, two important organisations, the National Child Labor Committee and the Southern Council of Women and Children in Industry, have included the abolition of night work in industry for young persons under eighteen years of age in their programmes of social reform.

International Regulations[2]

Convention concerning the night work of young persons employed in industry (1919)

Albania. — The Convention has been approved by Parliament.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Japan. — The Government states that provisions prohibiting the night work of young persons, from 1 July 1929 and 1 September 1933 respectively, have been included in the Factory Act Amendment Act of 1923 and in the Regulations regulating the employment and payment of miners of 1928.

Lithuania. — Ratification was registered on 19 June 1931.

Portugal. — The Government has promulgated a Decree for the ratification of the Convention.

Sweden. — In 1931 both Chambers of the Riksdag adopted a Bill to amend certain parts of the Labour Protection Act of 29 June 1912. In the opinion of the Government, this new legislation will not make it possible to ratify the Convention.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except, however, those which concern the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Employment at Sea

British Colonies and Protectorates. — In Fiji, the Gilbert and Ellice Islands, and the Solomon Islands Protectorate, the new Ordinances referred to under the heading of age of admission to industrial employment give effect to the Convention concerning the age of admission of children to employment at sea. In British North Borneo, an official Notification gives effect to the Convention.

[1] Cf. *supra*, " Hours of Work ".

[2] The information given here applies only to 1931. See the tables appended for the general situation as regards this Convention.

Bulgaria. — The Shipping Act of 10 February 1931 fixes fourteen years as the minimum age of admission to maritime employment.

India. — A Notification of 5 December 1931, applicable to young persons engaged as trimmers and stokers, limits hours of work to six in twenty-four while at sea and to seven while in port; and in addition places restrictions upon the nature of the work which may be done by the young persons concerned.

Non-Industrial Employment

Brazil. — The new Government Bill (referred to under the heading of Age of Admission to Industrial Employment) applies equally to non-industrial employment.

Great Britain. — The National Association of Head Teachers has asked for the stricter regulation of the employment of children in street trading, adding that it considers this employment to be one which demoralises children for life.

Japan. — The Japanese Bureau of Social Affairs has drafted a Bill which will deal with the employment of children under fourteen years in circuses, acrobatic or dangerous performances, exhibition for gain and begging under the pretence of singing or performing. Over 6,000 boys and girls are said to have been so employed in 1930.

United States. — The White House Conference on Vocational Guidance and Child Labor advocated 16 years as the minimum age for street work. The National Educational Association of the United States and the National Child Labor Committee have made similar recommendations. In the State of Illinois the Committee of Child Welfare Legislation desires to see street trading regulated and a regular supervisor of child labour appointed.

Unemployment and Placing

Austria. — A vigorous campaign for the relief of the young unemployed, under the device of "Youth in Misery", has been carried on since the beginning of 1931. A Committee formed to carry on the work has recommended the development of technical education, the finding of work for unemployed young persons, and their engagement in works of public utility.

Belgium. — The Belgian Trade Union Commission, discussing the problem of unemployment, has advocated raising the school age to sixteen years. In its opinion this would contribute towards relieving the existing unemployment situation.

Germany. — The 1930 reports of the labour inspectors refer to a falling off in labour. The chief occupations in which children are

still employed to any extent are the sale of newspapers, etc., errand work, and employment in small family undertakings. The desirability of a law in favour of paid holidays for children longer than those given to adult workers was referred to in a resolution of the Central Committee of the Unions of German Youth *(Reichsausschuss der Deutschen Jugendverbände)* at a Congress held at Frankfurt in August and September. The same Committee has submitted to the German Government a proposal for legislation which advocates, in particular, strict restriction of the hours of juvenile workers to not more than forty-eight in the week, absolute prohibition of Sunday and night work with liberty to cease work on Saturdays at 2 p.m., and annual paid holidays of not less than fourteen days. With a view to easing the position of young workers out of employment, the Federal Employment Exchange and Unemployment Insurance Institute *(Reichsanstalt für Arbeitsvermittlung und Arbeitslosenversicherung)* continues to pay the cost of their vocational training. Resolutions of the General Federation of German Trade Unions and of the Free Union of Youth Bureaux in Large Towns *(Freie Vereinigung Grossstädtischer Jugendämter)* urge the need for developing this work, the last-named also advocating voluntary labour service. Finally, in order to provide work for unemployed young persons, the Central Committee of the Unions of German Youth, referred to above, has asked that weekly hours be reduced and that employers be required to keep apprentices for at least six months. The Federal Government has been asked for financial assistance, and it is suggested that appeals for help should also be made to the States and local authorities.

Great Britain. — The latest report of the Minister of Labour, dealing with the work of local committees for juvenile unemployment during the year 1930, states that the number on the registers at the end of the year showed an increase from 75,900 in 1929 to 124,320 in 1930. The average monthly rate of unemployment among insured boys and girls stood at 5.7 per cent. (16.8 per cent. for adults).

In agriculture, a report of the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries for the two years ending 30 September 1930 notes a persistent reduction in the number of young workers under twenty-one years of age employed on the land. This is ascribed to the unwillingness of boys to enter such employment, not to reluctance of farmers to engage them.

India. — A decline has been noted in the number of industrially employed children in the Provinces of Bengal, Bombay, and Bihar and Orissa; this is ascribed to the strict enforcement of the Indian Factories Act and a resulting tendency of managers to avoid employing children whose labour is subject to restrictions. In Madras and the United Provinces a slight increase has been noted.

Norway. — The Norwegian Confederation of Trade Unions has advocated the raising of the school age as a measure which would tend to reduce the present widespread unemployment.

Palestine. — The 1930 census shows that there has been a considerable increase in the number of young workers since the last census was taken in 1928.

Poland. — Legislation has been passed to limit the number of young persons who may be employed in an industrial undertaking and to prohibit the employment of young workers without pay. The aim of this legislation is to increase employment opportunities for adult workers who may have families to support.

South Africa. — As a means of relieving the unemployment situation, the South African Trade and Labour Council has suggested to the Prime Minister that the admission of children under 16 years of age into industry be prohibited.

United States. — The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor states that the number of children under 16 years employed in the United States, though less than in 1930, is still substantial. A determined effort is being made to keep these children at school with a view to reducing unemployment among adult workers.

Factory Inspection

The present position of industry in most countries is such that no important event in the field of factory inspection came to the notice of the International Labour Office during 1931; the heading " National Regulations " therefore disappears for this year.

International Activities

The International Labour Office continued its efforts in favour of international use of the annual reports of factory inspectors. As was indicated in the *Annual Review* for 1930, the Committee on Accident Prevention has considered the choice of a question that the Office could recommend to States Members for simultaneous study by all factory inspectors. It eventually decided to propose that, in the course of their ordinary duties during 1931, factory inspectors should give special attention to the methods used by the individual undertakings in organising their own accident prevention services and should include a detailed account of their observations in their annual reports. A large number of Governments accepted this proposal and declared that they had already given corresponding instructions to their inspectors.

During 1931 the International Labour Office has been acting in close co-operation with the Chinese Government in the attempt to organise a factory inspection service in conformity with the Factory Act of 30 December 1929, which came into force on 1 August 1931. The Chinese Government requested the Office to assist it in this task by sending out a mission, and this request was

approved by the Governing Body. An official of the Office, Mr. Pône, and a former chief woman factory inspector of Great Britain, Dame Adelaide Anderson, therefore spent several weeks in China in the autumn of 1931.

The Act of 31 January 1931, which came into force on 1 October of the same year, lays down the general principles for the organisation and working of the factory inspection service, and in particular defines the qualifications required of inspectors and the general rules they are to follow in the execution of their duties. It provides further that the central administrative labour authority is to appoint the inspectors and to be responsible for their training. The Chinese Government considered that in the present circumstances it was not practicable to establish at a stroke a complete inspection service for the whole country, and preferred to instruct the authorities in the provinces and independent municipalities to set up local inspection services at their own expense. Appointments, however, remain in the hands of the central labour administrative authority, that is to say, the Ministry of Industries, and the future inspectors are therefore required to attend courses organised by it. Two such courses were held before the end of 1931 under the direction of Dr. K. Fu, an official at the Ministry of Industries, each of which lasted for three months and was attended by some thirty candidates from different industrial areas. A considerable proportion were sent by the Chinese municipality of Shanghai, and at the end of the first training course (beginning of September 1931) a factory inspection service composed of some ten inspectors was established in that city under the direction of the Social Affairs Office of the Chinese municipality. Further, an arrangement has been made in principle to promote inspection in the other parts of the Shanghai urban area, including the International Settlement and the French Concession.

It was announced in the *Annual Review 1930* that the Office contemplated making an enquiry into the size of factory inspection services and the extent of their activities in the different countries. But owing to the depression it was decided to postpone this enquiry, for various indications went to show that nearly everywhere there is stagnation in this field and that the present would be an ill-chosen moment for such an enquiry.

International Regulations [1]

Recommendation concerning the general principles for the organisation of systems of inspection to secure the enforcement of the laws and regulations for the protection of the workers (1923)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has informed the Office that in New South Wales the scope of factory legislation has been further extended by Act No. 12 of 1927 amending the Factories and Shops Act 1921.

[1] The information given here refers to 1931 only.

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that an examination of the Provincial Factory Acts shows that many of the points dealt with in this Recommendation are not covered by statutory provisions. All the laws, however, authorise the Lieut.-Governor-in-Council to make regulations for carrying out the provisions of the Acts and the inspectors are given authority to exercise such power as may be necessary for carrying the Acts into effect. The Workmen's Compensation Boards of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta, Quebec, Saskatchewan, and British Columbia have the right to inspect premises. The Dominion Government stated to what extent provincial legislation applies the Recommendation.

CHAPTER III

SOCIAL INSURANCE

To remedy the insecure condition of the worker has been the purpose of the development of social insurance by almost every industrial country. Even in times of economic prosperity, many social needs were inadequately met, and the years of crisis have created new ones, rendered the old ones more acute, and multiplied the occasions of physical and moral emergency.

Just at this time of the gravest preoccupation, the general crisis has arrested the development of social insurance. Forming, as it does, an integral part of the economic and social organisation which it is its mission to render more just and more humane, social insurance is of necessity severely reacted upon by economic depression. Every decrease in the product of labour reduces the income of insurance institutions. Unemployment decimates the ranks of the active members of the funds, and the reduction of wages lowers the capacity of their contributors to pay. The difficulties are redoubled if, moreover, the public authorities delay the payment of their subsidies, or even reduce them.

The year 1931 has been an extremely difficult one for social insurance. In the countries which are sorely tried by the crisis, insurance schemes have had to struggle in order to keep their place and maintain their equilibrium. They have come out of the trial weakened perhaps, but they have kept all their essential functions. Many proofs of this will be found in the following chronicle. But although it has been possible to hold the old positions and avoid irreparable retreat, new measures in this field have become rare under the pressure of circumstances. At some points there will be occasion, indeed, to observe that a movement has been checked or that reforms which seemed to be timely have been adjourned.

National Schemes

Argentina. — The financial situation of the National Pensions Fund for Railwaymen calls for reform. The measures under consideration would involve the lengthening of the qualifying period for a pension, the reduction of certain benefits, and alterations in the administration which would reduce the expenses of management.

Australia. — Among the numerous measures taken to reduce public expenditure in face of the grave financial emergency which arose in Australia in 1931 was the reduction of non-contributory pensions and maternity allowances. Thus, the rate of invalid and old-age pensions has been reduced from 20s. to 17s. 6d. a week, and the maternity allowance—hitherto a sum of £5 granted to every woman on the birth of her child—is now a sum of £4 granted to families whose income does not exceed £260 a year.

Austria. — As in all the countries which have suffered from the crisis, unemployment insurance has in Austria overshadowed the other branches of insurance.

Workers in industry and commerce are organised in a few strong sickness funds which have been able to remain solvent and meet their liabilities. The funds are pursuing on their own initiative, for reasons of economy, their policy of concentrating their organisation; thus, in consequence of recent amalgamations, a single workers' fund will operate in 1932 in Upper Austria in the place of some 200 funds which were operating there at the end of the war.

In a declaration before the National Council in November last, the Minister of Social Administration estimated that the total contributions payable by insured persons and employers, including unemployment insurance contributions, had increased by 5 per cent. as compared with 1930. The joint contribution amounts on the average to 14 per cent. of wages in industry and commerce and to 9 per cent. in agriculture.

In December 1931 the Government introduced a Bill for the purpose of adjourning the election of the representatives of insured persons and employers to the governing bodies of insurance institutions. The Government desires that the elections of the representatives of insured persons to seats in all insurance institutions, and in the chambers of workers and salaried employees, should take place at the same time. This principle has met with legislative approval in the Act of 18 December 1931.

Belgium. — The regulations for putting into force the schemes of insurance against old age and death were, as regards all essential matters, published in 1931. The scheme of insurance against old age and death for seamen had been modified in order to prepare the way for the reorganisation of the different schemes of insurance which cover persons employed on board ship. The work of putting old-age insurance into operation is going forward smoothly, and, while the progress registered during the year is represented only by administrative measures, the latter are by no means negligible.

The report of the Committee appointed to enquire into the increase of pension charges not having been published, any conclusion as to further action which may be taken would be premature. It should be noted, however, that a Bill introduced in the Chamber of Representatives on 24 December 1931 makes important alterations in the conditions for the award of additional pensions to insured persons who, by reason of their age, cannot acquire a

title to the ordinary pension. The suggestions which had been made for a reduction in the rate of old-age pensions to correspond with the fall in prices do not—for the present, at least—seem likely to be taken up: the rate of the pensions which the law guarantees is a very moderate one, and the pensioners must as far as possible be given the benefit of any increase in the purchasing power of money.

The projected legislation concerning sickness and invalidity insurance, the general structure of which was outlined in the Report of the Director to the Fourteenth Session of the Conference, is still before Parliament, but little progress has been made during the year in the examination of it by the competent Committees of the Senate and the Chamber.

Brazil. — The year has been marked by a strong effort on the part of the Government to extend and improve the scheme of insurance against invalidity, old age and death, which was established on behalf of railwaymen in 1923, and was applied in 1926 to the staff of the public services of ports. By a Decreee Law of 1 October 1931, insurance has been made compulsory for the staffs of all undertakings providing services of public utility: land transport, lighting, power supply, telegraph and telephone services, port services, water supply, street cleaning, and all other services which may be assimilated to these.

Immediately after the promulgation of this Decree Law, the Government appointed a Committee to draw up a Bill to establish a general scheme of social insurance for wage earners employed in private undertakings. This Committee, consisting of representatives of Government Departments and of the principal economic and social organisations, has already begun its work. At the opening meeting, the Minister of Labour stated that the Government, in accordance with the promises made in its election programme, had the firm intention of extending to all wage earners the benefits of social insurance institutions.

Bulgaria. — Since April 1931 the newly created Department of Labour and Social Insurance has been responsible for administering the branches of insurance concerned with sickness, maternity, accidents, invalidity and old age. The receipts of the Central Social Insurance Fund showed for all these risks an appreciable reduction as compared with the previous year. The claim, already very large, which the Fund possessed on the Treasury in respect of the subsidies for which the State is responsible under the Social Insurance Act of 1924, has been increased by the amount of another year's subsidy.

The sickness insurance branch is now endeavouring to reduce its heavy expenditure for doctors' fees and prescriptions by a stricter and more systematic organisation of its medical service and by the creation of dispensaries; an Order issued in October 1931 applies restrictions of the same tendency to dental benefit. As regards accident insurance, an amendment to the Act of 1924

fixes a maximum limit for the rate of pensions to injured workmen. The reserves of the Social Insurance Fund, which represent the acquired rights to invalidity and old-age pensions, are invested in public utility undertakings and, in part, in enterprises which are more directly engaged in improving the living conditions and the health of insured persons and their families.

Canada. — Two significant events mark the course of the social insurance movement in 1931: the change of Dominion policy in relation to old-age pensions and the reform of the Quebec workmen's compensation legislation.

Under the Dominion Old-Age Pensions Act, 1927, the Dominion Government offered to pay half the cost of non-contributory pensions granted by the provinces to their aged inhabitants, if the respective Provincial Governments would pay the other half. By the end of 1931 seven of the Provinces had accepted this offer. The proportion of aged inhabitants to the population is, however, much higher in the Eastern than in the other Provinces, and the relative cost therefore greater. To compensate in part this unequal charge, the Dominion Government decided in 1931 to raise its share of the cost of pensions to 75 per cent. This measure will remain in force only until a national contributory pension scheme, the actuarial computations for which will be derived from the 1931 census, can be framed. The Dominion Government appears also to be giving favourable consideration to the principle of sickness and invalidity insurance, but no definite proposal has yet been formulated.

In Quebec workmen's compensation legislation has arrived at the third stage of its evolution with the coming into force in 1931 of an entirely new Act. The first Act of 1909 was an employers' liability measure, characterised by optional insurance with private companies, lump-sum compensation in case of death, absence of medical aid, and settlement of claims by the law courts. The second Act of 1927 introduced compulsory insurance (but without establishing a State fund), pensions for dependants, and medical aid. The present Act brings the Quebec system into line with that of the other Provinces by adopting the principles of the Ontario legislation: compulsory insurance with a State fund, and administration of the fund and settlement of claims by a special Commission.

Chile. — The latest official report on the working of compulsory insurance against sickness, invalidity and old age shows that fresh progress has been made in the work of enrolling insured persons, whose number had reached 1,240,000 by the end of 1930. This report brings out that the average value of benefits has increased appreciably, as has also the reserve fund, which has reached the sum of 213,000,000 pesos. On the other hand, the general economic depression has resulted in a slight fall in income, especially that part of it which is derived from the joint contributions of workers and employers.

Colombia. — Two Bills have been introduced, of which one would broaden the scope of the workmen's compensation legislation and the other would establish a scheme of old-age and survivors' insurance for railwaymen.

Costa Rica. — An Act which came into force on 3 February 1931 has considerably extended the scope of the workmen's compensation system. Henceforward compensation may be claimed by all wage earners employed in factories, transport undertakings, generating stations, mines, and public services (including hospitals and other curative establishments), together with those employed in shops, hotels, restaurants, etc. The same Act grants considerably wider powers to the National Insurance Bank.

Czechoslovakia. — The Central Institute for Social Insurance, which is responsible for the insurance of two and a half million persons, has just completed the first five years of its existence. The enrolment of the insured population has been terminated with complete success. By its investment policy the Institute has rapidly become an important factor in the economy of the country; its funds are used for the building of workers' dwellings, for agricultural improvement, for road building, and other work of public utility. Curative and preventive activity, especially the campaign against tuberculosis, will be resumed on the new lines laid down by the Institute. Increased rates of contributions and easier conditions of award are under consideration.

The sickness funds are having difficulty in balancing their budgets. Many of them have for several years already experienced a deficit, which has been aggravated recently by the crisis. Rates of contributions in excess of the normal, which numerous funds have asked for and obtained, have not been found to be an adequate remedy. The Central Institute is considering the grant of loans without interest to the funds. Those concerned agree in recognising that the income available to the funds is not adequate, in view of the benefits for which they are liable, and that some adjustment must be made, without, however, requiring any sacrifice on the part of the beneficiaries. The re-election of the representatives of insured persons and employers to the organs of management of the funds is in preparation; the elections, however, will not take place until times improve, so that the electorate may not be deprived of those hundreds of thousands of unemployed who, not being insured contributors, are not qualified.

In the pension scheme for salaried employees, a reform which mainly affects the older insured persons has been introduced by the Act of 14 July 1931: the pensions now being paid and those to be granted subsequently will be increased to take account of periods of employment during which the pensioner was not insured by reason of the fact that compulsory insurance was not then in force. These periods will count as half-periods of compulsory insurance—in other words, half of the number of years during which the individual was working before compulsory insurance

was introduced will be reckoned as if contributions had actually been paid. These increased benefits will be paid for by an additional contribution levied on insured persons and employers. Thus the present generation is called upon to remedy the inadequacy of the provident effort of the past.

It is a sign of the times that the Act providing for the compulsory insurance of persons working on their own account, which was passed in 1925 but the enforcement of which was adjourned *sine die*, has come to the front again.

Denmark. — The very important Bill referred to in the *Annual Review* for 1930, which would have codified all the insurance and assistance legislation in force and have improved the system of benefits, had been dropped, but was introduced afresh in Parliament at the beginning of the 1931-1932 Session.

Estonia. — The Ministry of Education and Social Affairs has drawn up a plan for the reform of the sickness insurance scheme, which will still, in its main features, be in harmony with the Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants. By reason of the economic depression, the Government has, however, decided not to submit the Bill to Parliament.

France. — The work of putting the general scheme of social insurance into operation has continued during 1931, and efforts have been made not only to secure compliance with the law but also to improve its structure. Among the most important measures taken, mention must be made in the first place of the Decrees issued with a view to co-ordinating the general scheme of social insurance with the special schemes for railwaymen, seamen, miners, employees of public authorities, etc., which together comprise more than a million workers. The common principles on which these Decrees are based provide that, where a person passes from a special to the general scheme and *vice versa*, continuity of cover shall be maintained, contribution periods under both schemes shall count in the calculation of the qualifying period, and reserves corresponding to rights in course of acquisition should be transferred.

These Decrees go on to specify that the special schemes shall, wherever necessary, be amended in such a way as to guarantee to workers who remain insured under them advantages at least equivalent to those conferred under the general scheme. The condition of equivalence should be satisfied in respect of each risk, and account must not be taken of greater advantages conferred, for example, in the shape of pensions in order to compensate for smaller benefits in case of sickness. French legislation is thus moving towards the unification of the minimum of protection guaranteed to workers by the different schemes of social insurance. Nevertheless, this principle of equivalence in respect of each risk is not applied quite rigidly: thus, the family allowances paid by the

railways are held to compensate, at least in part, for the lower scale of benefit of the sickness insurance scheme to which railwaymen remain subject.

Various amendments have, moreover, been effected in the legislation with a view to simplifying the collection of contributions and increasing the proportion of revenue to be devoted to expenses of administration. Moreover, the right of unemployed insured persons to claim certain insurance benefits has been extended as far as the law in force will allow.

Among the measures at present receiving consideration for rendering the application of the general scheme more effective, the most prominent appears to be the Bill introduced by the Government at the end of 1931 for the purpose of bringing within the scope of the scheme all workers whose relation to those who employ them is in fact one of subordination or economic dependency: it is not the legal relationship of the worker but his economic condition, his real situation, his position of dependency on his employer, which decide whether or not he is a wage earner within the meaning of the Social Insurance Act.

The difficulties inherent in putting into force an extremely complicated system do not seem to have been so extensive as even the strongest supporters of the new measure apprehended. No doubt the difference which exists between the fees demanded by doctors and the scales of repayment fixed by the insurance funds—a defect referred to in the *Annual Review* for 1930—is causing some disappointment in certain cases, without, however, giving rise to such discontent as might endanger the future of social insurance. An insured person who pays contributions which are rather high, especially for a period of economic depression, cannot easily understand that an important part of the costly risk of sickness is not covered by insurance and remains to be borne by himself. It is to be hoped, however, that the multiplication of agreements between associations of doctors or chemists and the sickness funds, the development of collaboration between practitioners and insurance institutions and, in fine, experience of the working of sickness insurance will enable this defect to be removed quite soon and the part of the risk which has to be borne by the insured person to be reduced to a minimum.

The slowness with which the idea of social insurance is penetrating agriculture, while not at all surprising, proves nevertheless that an obstinate indifference, if not a genuine resistance, has still to be overcome. The number of insured persons in agriculture has risen from about 400,000 in November 1930 to 680,000 on 31 March of the following year: the progress is thus real, but rather small when it is remembered that a census in 1924 revealed that there were 2,800,000 wage earners in agriculture.

Moreover, even in commerce and industry a quite appreciable discrepancy exists between the total number of wage earners notified as insured and the number of those in respect of whom contributions are regularly paid: thus, whereas during the

first ten months' operation of the Act the number of insured persons in commerce and industry reached at the outset the expected figure, the monthly average of contributions for the same period is found to be 30 per cent. less than the expected amount. This discrepancy, which is partly due to the wave of unemployment which is passing over the country, seems nevertheless to have diminished, due regard being had to the aggravation of the crisis, during recent months. The average monthly receipts have risen from 270 million francs for the period 1 July 1930–30 April 1931 to 300 million francs for the period 30 April 1931–31 October 1931. The total contributions paid by employers and workers up to 31 October 1931, that is to say, over a period of sixteen months, amount to about 4,500 million francs.

On the whole, the experience of the first months of enforcement is reassuring. It is, of course, still too short to enable a definitive judgment on such a vast scheme to be formed, but it is certain that the process of setting this complicated machinery in motion has been much easier than could have been foreseen.

Germany. — The German funds have had to meet great difficulties. The crisis has greatly reduced the number of contributors ; millions of unemployed are no longer contributing to the income of insurance institutions, and those who are partly unemployed are contributing only in proportion to their diminished earnings. Apart from these losses, the general reduction in the level of wages upon which contributions are levied is a menace to the financial stability of social insurance. In order to remedy this situation, the Decree Law of 8 December 1931—the fourth issued by the President of the Reich with a view to restoring order in the national finances and easing the burden on production—requires heavy sacrifices of the insured population. The desire which the Decree shows to economise in every field of public and private activity has expressed itself in social insurance by a reduction of the benefits guaranteed to insured persons and pensioners under social insurance schemes. The restrictions provided for by the Decree Law of 8 December 1931 affect all branches of social insurance.

As regards sickness insurance, the liabilities of the funds have been considerably lightened by the abolition of additional benefits: the Decree forbids the funds to provide more than the minimum benefit. They must give up all those curative and preventive benefits which they had introduced in order to supplement the benefits which they were obliged by law to furnish. All this additional assistance, so important from the standpoint of social hygiene, has thus been abolished. It is true that the additional benefits can be re-introduced when the rate of the contributions is not raised beyond 5 per cent. of the basic wage; but the funds which in the near future will be able to make use of this faculty will be very few in number.

The reform of the medical service of sickness insurance likewise reduces the burden on the funds. The Decree lays down the

principle of a capitation fee as the basis for the remuneration of insurance doctors. The funds will discharge their liability to the doctors by paying to the local association of insurance practitioners a fixed sum in respect of each insured person. This fee has been calculated on the basis of the average expenditure of the fund for the remuneration of doctors in 1930. This average, however, will be reduced by not less than 6 per cent. and not more than 20 per cent., the reduction being greater in proportion as the average expenditure was higher. Henceforward the rate of the capitation fee will vary with the movement of the wages of insured persons in such a way that the remuneration of doctors will represent a constant proportion of the expenditure of the funds. The liabilities of the funds in respect of doctors' remuneration being thus fixed, the admission of new doctors to insurance practice is rendered easier; it will now be possible to admit one doctor for every 600 insured persons, whereas formerly the proportion was one for every thousand. In framing this reform, the Decree has followed the terms of voluntary agreement drawn up between the medical profession and the two most important national federations of sickness funds.

The accident insurance system was in 1931 responsible for paying nearly a million pensions. The employers' mutual associations, which administer this branch of insurance, are organised on a trade basis, each class of industry having to bear its particular risk of accident. As the financial system of this scheme is that of assessment to meet the annual amount of pension payments, every reduction in the total value of the pay-roll increases correspondingly the burden on those undertakings which are working. In some branches of industry—for example, mining and building—the insurance premiums have become very heavy. Those mutual associations which have suffered least from the crisis are being made to assist the others. For this purpose, up to one-half of the sums necessary to meet the pension expenditure for the years 1931 and 1932 may be obtained by a call upon the resources of the mutual associations as a whole. It will be decided later by the Reich Minister of Labour whether this inter-trade equalisation will be effected on the condition that those associations which benefit will be required to repay. Accident victims make a heavy sacrifice: for the Decree Law abolishes several hundred thousand pensions in the case of those suffering from partial disablement. The pensions of those whose disablement is between 10 and 15 per cent. are abolished without compensation; in future no pensions will be granted in such cases. The pensions of those whose disablement amounts to 20 per cent. are and will be withdrawn as from two years from the date when they were awarded.

The scheme of insurance against invalidity, old age and death has experienced for the year 1931 a deficiency of income to the amount of 220,000,000 RM., which will have to be made good out of the reserves of the insurance institutions. In order to reduce the deficiency for 1932, the Decree Law abolishes certain kinds of

pensions and introduces a number of other restrictions, without, however, altering the rules for computing pensions. The widows of insured persons who died or became invalids before 1912 lose all rights; the persons affected had only become entitled to pensions during the last few years. Orphan's pensions and children's allowances will no longer be granted in respect of children who have reached the age of fifteen. A new limit, much lower than the old one, has been fixed for the total of the survivors' pensions payable in respect of a deceased insured person: the survivors will not be able to receive together more than the amount of the pension to which the deceased was or would have been entitled at the time of his death. In order to slow down the growth in the number of pensions, the Decree Law lengthens the qualifying period, which had hitherto been fixed uniformly at 200 contribution weeks, to 250 weeks for the purpose of invalidity and survivors' pensions, and to 750 weeks for old-age pensions.

The two great insurance schemes which rest on an occupational basis—namely, salaried employees' insurance and miners' insurance —have been subjected to the same restrictions as the general scheme: abolition of additional benefits in the miners' sickness insurance; abolition of orphans' pensions and children's allowances from the age of fifteen; limitation of the total of the pensions of the survivors of an insured person to the amount of the pension to which the deceased was or would have been entitled; extension to 180 months of the qualifying period which entitles to old-age pensions under the salaried employees' scheme, though the qualifying period for invalidity and survivors' pensions remains fixed at 60 months.

All these restrictions no doubt hinder the activity of social insurance, but they do not tamper with the essential mechanism of the system. The sickness insurance scheme has been brought back to its pre-war position, save in respect of family benefits and maternity benefits; its budget, which already in 1930 was reduced by 10 per cent. as compared with the previous year, will undergo a fresh and important reduction. Economies secured in the accident insurance scheme will amount to approximately 50,000,000 RM. a year. The financial stability of the scheme of insurance against invalidity, old age and death, does not yet appear to be secured, in spite of restrictions introduced by the Decree Law, which effected a saving of under 100,000,000 RM. for 1932. The amendment of legislation is still proceeding. A Bill for reforming the administrative organisation of insurance schemes is in preparation.

Great Britain. — Early in 1931 Great Britain ratified the two Conventions, and accepted the Recommendation, on sickness insurance, the impediments to ratification having already been removed by a slight adjustment of the law in Great Britain in 1928 and by the introduction of medical benefit in Northern Ireland in 1930.

While the benefits and contributions under the National Health Insurance Scheme have continued unaltered, the effects of several

years of severe economic depression and its accompaniment of unemployment are inevitably making themselves felt in various ways.

In the first place, in order to compensate for the fall in revenue from taxation and to provide the enormous subsidies required for unemployment insurance, the State has had to make corresponding economies. The cost of the central administration of health insurance, which has hitherto been borne by the State, has now been charged to the benefit funds of the approved societies, and the State grant to the Central Fund (from which societies falling into deficiency may be assisted) has been discontinued. The heavier liability thus imposed upon the benefit funds, however, has in turn been largely counterbalanced, since the doctors and pharmacists, like the army and navy, the police and the teachers, have accepted a reduction of 10 per cent. in their remuneration, while the situation of the Central Fund has been rendered secure by diverting to it, from the funds of the contributory pension scheme, the contributions of persons who continue in employment after reaching the pensionable age.

In the second place, unemployment has entailed a serious diminution in the contribution income of approved societies. In virtue of an Act of 1928, an unemployed person remains entitled to the full benefits of health insurance for the first eighteen to twenty-four months and can claim benefits at a reduced rate for a further twelve months. On the expiry of his rights under these provisions, the State undertakes to pay sufficient contributions to maintain his right to reduced benefits for yet a further year. The approved society, however, must bear the loss of his contributions for the first thirty to thirty-six months of unemployment, and consequently at the present time less than 90 per cent. of the contributions necessary to finance the full benefits of health insurance are being collected.

The third actuarial valuation of the assets and liabilities of approved societies, which is made at intervals of five years, has just been completed. As might be expected, the total surplus funds of the societies available for the provision of benefits additional to those prescribed by law have somewhat diminished—to be precise, they are 78 per cent. of those disclosed at the second valuation. They will nevertheless suffice to provide $2\frac{1}{2}$ million persons with higher additional benefits than before, and $2^3/_4$ millions with the same benefits; but $6^1/_4$ millions will have their additional benefits reduced, and $4^1/_4$ millions will cease to receive those which they previously enjoyed. These results, like those of the previous valuation, reveal a growing inequality between the wealthy and the poorer societies. This is to a slight extent due to differences in administrative efficiency, but mainly to the unequal incidence of unemployment and to the heavier sickness experience of societies having a membership largely drawn from unhealthy trades, e.g. mining, or having a high proportion of women members. The increase in the claims of women to sickness

and disablement benefits has indeed been alarming, and in consequence many societies have formed separate benefit funds for women, a measure which the actuarial report recommends should be adopted generally. This report further proposes that either women's benefits should be reduced or their contributions increased.

On the whole, however, the results of the valuation cannot be considered unsatisfactory in view of the difficulties of the period to which they refer, for the scheme is still able to provide considerably greater benefits than were expected when it was established in 1911.

A small amendment of the Workmen's Compensation Act was effected in 1931. It provides that partial incapacity shall be treated as total incapacity in cases where a workman has endeavoured to obtain employment but has failed to obtain it, wholly or mainly because of his injury. Thus the mere fact that the workman is able to do light work will not absolve the employer from paying him full compensation if there is no such work available, though full compensation will not be payable if the workman receives benefit under unemployment insurance.

Greece. — Progress has been made in 1931 with the preparation of a Bill for the establishment on behalf of wage earners in industry and commerce of a scheme of compulsory insurance to cover occupational accidents and diseases, sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age and death. The investigation made to determine the number of wage earners, their distribution by age and sex, their dependants and their rates of wages, which was effected at the beginning of September 1930, has yielded results which have been utilised for establishing the technical and financial bases of the Bill. This important work, which has been carried out by Professor Schönbaum, of Prague, is now completed and has enabled the final text of the Bill to be drafted.

In a statement made recently to a delegation of the General Confederation of Labour, the President of the Council of Ministers affirmed his intention of laying before Parliament a Bill which, after careful preparation, gives every promise of providing a stable system of social insurance institutions.

Hungary. — The National Institute for Social Insurance, which has been administered since 1930 with the active participation of representatives of insured persons and employers, has been endeavouring to reduce the expenditure of the sickness insurance scheme. A number of economies have been effected during the year by administrative measures. A Decree dated 31 December 1931 authorises the autonomous institutions to reduce certain benefits under the sickness insurance scheme. Where solvency cannot be obtained by other savings, the autonomous institutions may provide that sickness benefit shall not exceed half wages and that it will not be paid for more than twenty-six consecutive weeks. The daily benefit during confinement may in like circumstances be reduced to half wages.

Under the scheme of insurance against invalidity, old age and death, the first awards of pensions were made in November 1931 to persons who had completed the qualifying period. In order to reduce the cost of administration, the National Institute will early in 1932 undertake a reorganisation of its administrative services.

India. — The report of the Royal Commission on Labour in India, published in 1931, makes important recommendations concerning workmen's compensation, sickness insurance and provision for old age.

Workmen's compensation legislation, devised to meet Indian conditions, was introduced in 1924, and has proved very smooth in its operation, in spite of the novelty of the measure, the migratory character of Indian industrial labour, and the paucity of medical and insurance facilities.

The Royal Commission, however, suggested a certain number of amendments, urging in particular that the scope of the Act should be extended (at present it is limited to hazardous occupations in undertakings of a certain size) so as to cover 6,000,000 workmen (at present 4,000,000 are covered), and that the rate of compensation should be considerably increased. The present system of lump-sum payments in case of permanent incapacity and death should continue. The present method of administration by specialist officers is highly commended. It is clear, however, that many workmen fail to claim compensation owing to ignorance of the Act, and measures are urged to diffuse information concerning it. Compulsory insurance is not regarded as reasonably practicable in the present circumstances.

The report lays special stress on the anomalous position of Indian seamen as regards compensation for accidents. The great majority are employed on British ships registered in Great Britain, and are legally entitled to compensation under the British but not under the Indian Act; in reality they, and especially their dependants, cannot enforce claims in Great Britain. Most shipowners, however, voluntarily agree at the time of signing articles to pay compensation to Indians under the Indian Act, and this is a fairly satisfactory solution. The Commission consider that this practice should be regularised and made compulsory, in virtue of reciprocal arrangements with the British Government.

The Government of India, when considering the Sickness Insurance Conventions of 1927, admitted the need for sickness insurance, but they stated that the introduction of a comprehensive scheme on the lines of the Conventions was not yet practicable. The Commission regard the need for sickness insurance as urgent, and do not admit that the peculiar difficulties of applying it in India should excuse the authorities from addressing themselves to the task of making the necessary preliminary investigations and framing suitable schemes. The main difficulties arise from the migratory character of Indian factory labour, the absence

of medical facilities and the lack of faith in modern medical methods. The Commission recommend first of all the collection of sickness statistics, and then the creation of works sickness funds, financed by a joint contribution of employer and worker, and providing cash benefit only, and the establishment of a medical service by the State, or, alternatively, State assistance of medical services established by employers.

Finally, provision for old age is necessary for industrial workers especially, since industrial life tends to break down the joint family system under which the aged were hitherto cared for. The Commission recommend that, pending the introduction of a general scheme of old-age pensions, the Government should, wherever possible, encourage employers, by the grant of subsidies, to establish pension schemes for their workers.

Italy. — The reform of accident insurance is the subject of a Bill which has been drafted by the Ministry of Corporations. The Bill provides for a considerable widening of the scope of insurance, which would comprise all undertakings the staff of which are actually exposed to the risk of occupational accident. The lump sums payable in case of accident causing death or permanent incapacity would be replaced by pensions, and victims of accidents would be entitled to medical aid and the supply of artificial limbs and surgical appliances. As regards administrative organisation, the Bill favours entrusting the management of insurance to a single central institution. These proposals are in harmony both with the provisions of the Italian Labour Charter and with those of the Convention and Recommendations concerning workmen's compensation of 1925.

Progress is being made with the organisation of sickness insurance. The regional funds for the staff of transport undertakings have been working since 1 September 1931. In virtue of the collective agreements, insurance is compulsory for the entire staff of land transport undertakings. After a qualifying period of twelve months, insured persons who become incapable of work are entitled for not more than ninety days to a daily allowance equal to 60 per cent. of their wages.

The National Social Insurance Fund, which is responsible for insurance against maternity, invalidity, old age and unemployment, is using its reserves for financing public works undertaken with a view to reducing unemployment. Compulsory insurance against tuberculosis, which is likewise administered by the National Fund, is rapidly developing its medical services and is increasing year by year, according to a definite programme, the number of beds available for the treatment of tuberculous patients.

Seamen registered with the Invalid Merchant Seamen's Fund have had their pensions considerably increased. Seamen who have served for twenty years will have a pension equal to two-thirds of their average wages, while for those who have served for thirty years the pensions will be equal to their average wage.. Survivors' pensions have also been increased.

Japan. — The two Bills introduced in 1928 to amend the workmen's compensation legislation became law in 1931. The first Act extends the scope of the existing legislation (which covered only factories and mines) to cover workers in quarries, civil engineering, local railways, docks and warehouses. The second Act sets up a State fund, insurance with which is compulsory for employers in the more dangerous of the new occupations included and is voluntary for the others. The insurance, however, only covers the heavier liabilities, namely those arising in respect of death and permanent incapacity, the individual employer being left to support the cost of minor injuries directly.

Latvia. — The enforcement of the new Sickness Insurance Act, which gives employers the right to be represented on the governing bodies of the funds, and requires insured persons to share in the cost of medical benefit, has practically terminated the struggle which for the last two years has been waged round the reform of this branch of insurance.

The economic depression has resulted in a considerable decrease in the number of insured persons and in a reduction of the income of the funds. In order to guarantee their solvency, numerous institutions have been obliged since the beginning of the year to reduce the scale of the benefits granted to insured persons and their dependants. The State subsidies are being continued for the time being. Their withdrawal would, in the view of the managers of the funds, have dangerous consequences for the stability of the insurance scheme.

The amendments of the compulsory accident insurance legislation concern mainly agricultural workers. The insurance of wage earners in agriculture, which hitherto has been managed by an employers' mutual association, has in virtue of the new Act been entrusted to the Ministry of Social Welfare. The expenses of the scheme will be borne entirely by the national treasury.

Lithuania. — The scheme of compulsory sickness insurance has been amended in certain particulars in order to bring it into conformity with the Convention concerning insurance for workers in industry and commerce and domestic servants and to reduce the expenses of the funds, the financial situation of which remains difficult.

The Act of 1925 provided for the exemption from liability to insurance of workers who before the scheme came into force were entitled to free medical aid. In accord with the Convention of 1927 the amendments promulgated last year provide that such exemption can only be granted to wage earners who are entitled in virtue of laws or special schemes to benefits at least equivalent to those provided by the general scheme. Moreover, they require the dependants of insured persons to pay 1 litas for every prescription for drugs or curative appliances.

As thus amended, the Lithuanian Act was towards the end of the year extended to those parts of the country where hitherto

sickness insurance had not been applied. The number of territorial funds has been increased from seven to ten and a new insurance institution has been created for transport workers. The possibility of a federation of funds is receiving serious consideration among those concerned.

Luxemburg. — The Act of 29 January 1931 has established a special scheme of compulsory insurance against invalidity, old age and death for all salaried employees, irrespective of the rate of their renumeration. In return for a joint contribution of 10 per cent. of salaries, which is borne equally by the employee and his employer, the insured person is entitled to a pension which falls due either at the age of sixty-five or regardless of age in case of occupational incapacity. The widow and the orphans under the age of eighteen are entitled to a pension without enquiry into their means.

The provisions which regulate the transfer of insured persons from the general scheme established by the Social Insurance Code to the special scheme for salaried employees, and *vice versa*, guarantee continuity of cover, the inclusion of contribution periods under either scheme for the purpose of reckoning title to pension, and the distribution of liability among the insurance funds in proportion to the amount of the contributions which they have collected. The pension fund for salaried employees is administered by a committee of management consisting of a chairman appointed by the Government and of equal numbers of elected delegates of employers and insured persons.

Mexico. — The Labour Code which was promulgated on 18 August 1931 has extended and unified the legislation concerning workmen's compensation. The new law, which provides compensation in case of certain occupational diseases, applies to all workers in industry and commerce and establishes a special scheme for wage-earners in agriculture.

The cash benefits are paid in the form, not of pensions, but of lump sums. The compensation to which the dependants of a deceased workman are entitled is equal to the amount of two years' wages. In case of permanent total incapacity compensation amounts to three years' wages. If the disablement is only partial, the amount of the compensation is determined by a schedule and is proportional to the amount which would have been payable if the disablement had been total. If the incapacity caused by the accident is only temporary, an allowance equal to 75 per cent. of wages is payable from the day of the accident; the allowance is equal to 50 per cent. of wages in the case of wage earners in agriculture. The employer is liable for the cost of medical treatment, drugs and appliances necessitated by the condition of the injured person. Foreign wage earners are treated on a footing of equality with nationals.

Norway. — Sickness insurance and accident insurance have undergone some modification.

The object of the amendments in the sickness insurance scheme is to reduce the expenditure of the State and the communes, which pay a certain proportion of the contributions. They restrict the scope of the insurance by lowering from 5,400 kr. a year to 4,500 kr. the limit of wages above which insurance ceases to be compulsory.

The changes introduced in the accident insurance scheme have effected improvements at several points, for example, by raising the limit of the basic wage taken into consideration in the calculation of the premiums to be paid by employers.

Netherlands. — The work of putting into force the Compulsory Sickness Insurance Act of 1929 has gone forward smoothly. Regulations issued at the beginning of the year have widened the scope of the scheme by bringing in several new classes, such as wage earners employed by associations or trade unions, and persons engaged in liberal professions such as barristers, solicitors and doctors.

The Commission appointed in 1930 in connection with the Ministry of Labour, Commerce and Industry, with a view to amending the law in those directions which experience had shown to be necessary, has terminated its task. The amending Bill, based on the recommendations of the Commission, will shortly be presented to the States-General.

Poland. — The reorganisation of the machinery of the social insurance institutions and their federations has been proceeded with in accord with the Decree of the President of the Republic dated 30 November 1930.

By an instruction of the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare dated 28 September 1931, the number of sickness funds has been reduced by two-thirds; when the redundant funds have been liquidated, there will only remain in the whole country outside Upper Silesia sixty-one funds, each of which will have a membership of at least 10,000.

An instruction of 9 October 1931 set up a Social Insurance Council consisting of forty members, of whom twelve are representatives of the workers and salaried employees, chosen from lists of candidates drawn up by the national organisations, twelve are representatives of the employers, chosen from lists submitted by the Chambers of Industry and Commerce, the Chamber of Agriculture and the employers' organisations, and sixteen are chosen freely from among persons distinguished for theoretical or practical work in the field of social insurance. The Council will give its opinion on all Bills and draft Orders or Decrees, and on any other question in regard to which the Minister of Labour and Social Welfare may decide to consult it.

Portugal. — The legislation of 1919 concerning compulsory insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age and death still awaits enforcement; meanwhile measures are being taken to encou-

rage the development of mutual benefit societies. A Decree Law of 29 January 1931 has settled the principles on which the voluntary mutual-aid movement is to be reorganised. Mutual benefit societies recognised by the State obtain various privileges, such as exemption from taxation and from court fees in legal procedure. In order to receive recognition, however, the societies must satisfy somewhat extensive conditions as to contributions, benefits, and the working of their organs of management. Any forecasting as to the effect of this reform in encouraging the mutual-aid movement would be premature, since the State has not yet undertaken to grant any regular subsidies to the recognised societies.

Rumania. — An account was given in the *Annual Review* for 1930 of the problems with which the legislature is confronted. The insurance schemes vary from one region to another both in their constitution and in the nature of the protection which they provide for insured persons. The unification of these local schemes would put an end to the anomalies which result from a multiplicity of systems and institutions. Preparations for the administrative unification of the funds have been pursued in 1931, but they have not yet resulted in a definitive plan. Apart from the administrative reforms which are necessary, the increase of benefits and the adjustment of the insurance revenue to the great needs of the insured population must continue to preoccupy all concerned.

The King's message read by the President of the Council at the opening of the session of the Chamber on 15 November 1931 announces that " during this parliamentary session a Bill will be submitted to you for the purpose of amending the existing health legislation and another Bill which would bring about for the first time the unification of our legislation on social insurance "

South Africa. — An important Government Bill has been introduced to amend the law relating to workmen's compensation; it has passed its second reading and may become law in 1932. This measure proposes the abandonment of the present employers' liability system and the establishment of a State insurance fund with which all employers would be required to insure. As at present, practically all employed persons except those in agriculture would be covered. The rates of compensation for temporary incapacity would be raised from 50 to 60 per cent. and free medical aid would be provided; in case of death the widow's compensation would be, as now, a lump sum, but the children would receive temporary pensions. Lower scales of compensation would be prescribed for Asiatics and Natives than for white workmen.

Spain. — The Republican Government has put into force the Act of 1929 concerning compulsory maternity insurance, and, by a Decree dated 12 June 1931, has brought all agricultural workers within the scope of workmen's compensation. The victims of agricultural accidents are entitled to the same benefits as the victims

of industrial accidents: compensation in cash and the provision of medical treatment and drugs. This new regulation will enable Spain to apply the Convention of 1921 concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture.

Sweden. — Genuine progress has been made in the reorganisation of the subsidised voluntary sickness insurance system, which had been strongly criticised on the ground of its multiplicity of institutions, their relatively small number of members, and the insufficiency of the benefits.

The new law, while maintaining the principle of voluntary insurance, has considerably improved the present system. The machinery of administration has been reorganised by creating local sickness insurance funds having the exclusive right to undertake insurance in their areas and regional institutions each of which comprises two local funds. Moreover, the State subsidies have been largely increased, and the funds are required to grant benefits in case of sickness, both in cash and in kind, as well as maternity benefits. From various standpoints this law is regarded as an important step towards the introduction of compulsory sickness insurance.

This reform of sickness insurance will enable the funds to take up other social activities. A move has already been made in this direction: an Order reorganising maternity assistance requires the funds to administer the sums granted by the State to provide assistance for women who are not insured.

Switzerland. — The Federal Act establishing a general scheme of compulsory insurance against old age and death was submitted to a referendum, which took place on 5 and 6 December 1931, and was rejected by 513,284 votes to 338,802.

This Act had been passed by the Federal Parliament in June 1931 by very large majorities, and its approval had been recommended to the Swiss people not only by the workers' organisations and the majority of political parties but also by the employers' organisations and the Peasants' Union: the rejection, which was very decided, therefore caused a good deal of surprise.

The explanations advanced for the rejection are various and sometimes contradictory: opposition to higher social charges during a period of economic crisis; inadequacy of the benefits, especially during the first fifteen years, which caused the abstention or even opposition of important sections of wage earners and persons of small means working on their own account; opposition to the immobilisation of large quantities of capital, which were calculated to total 1,500,000,000 francs in fifteen years; excessively wide scope, which would include the entire population between the ages of sixteen and sixty-five years regardless of their economic situation; opposition to any increase in the powers of the Federal Government; lastly, in certain small circles, opposition to the principle of compulsory insurance.

Although the Act has failed to gain acceptance, Article 34 *quater*

of the Federal Constitution, according to which the Federal Government is bound to take legislative measures to establish old-age insurance and survivors' insurance, is still binding, and it is probable that the reform will be taken up again later.

United States. — The total number of States where non-contributory old-age pension laws have been adopted is now seventeen, of which five were added in 1931. These latest laws, as well as the amendments carried through in several States, exhibit a tendency to render the provision of old-age pensions by the counties (subdivisions of the States) compulsory: it has indeed been found that where, as generally hitherto, the application of the laws has been optional for the counties, the latter have taken little advantage of their powers. Another tendency which is observable is to lower the pensionable age from seventy to sixty-five years.

Uruguay. — The discussions in Parliament on the Bill for the establishment of a National Pension Fund, which was introduced at the end of 1930, are still going on. The National Pension Fund would be the sole institution for administering a scheme of compulsory insurance of wage earners against invalidity, old age and death. Moreover, it would be responsible for organising unemployment insurance. In order to meet its liabilities, the National Fund would be financed by the contributions of wage earners and employers and by various taxes, in particular a tax on luxury articles. From the present state of the discussion it may be hoped that a decision will be arrived at very shortly.

U.S.S.R. — The scheme of social insurance against all social risks continues to develop rapidly. Mr. Molotov, President of the Council of the Commissaries of the People, in his report submitted in December 1931 to the second session of the Central Executive Council of the U.S.S.R., estimates the expenditure of the insurance scheme in 1931—the third year of the application of the Five-Year Plan—at 2,500 million roubles, which thus exceeds the figures of 1,950 million roubles which it was computed would be reached during 1933.

With a view to employing the increasing income of social insurance mainly for the benefit of those groups of wage earners whose work is considered especially important for the success of the Plan, the Soviet legislation has been considerably modified. The amendments introduced affect the scale of benefits in case of temporary incapacity, the structure of the organs of management and the payment of allowances and pensions.

The new Decree makes the rate of the daily benefit depend upon the affiliation of the insured person to a trade union, on the length of his qualifying period of employment, and on the branch of industry in which he is engaged. Whereas under the Labour Code of 1922 all insured persons were entitled to full wages throughout the duration of their incapacity, the new regulations provide that benefit on this scale shall only be granted from the first day of sickness to trade unionists who are employed in the " Socialised

Sector" in industry, transport or the Soviet farms, and provided that they have worked in the same undertaking uninterruptedly for two years and have completed a qualifying period of employment of at least three years. For other classes of wage earners the rate of benefit is reduced either during the first few days of sickness or even throughout the period of incapacity to three-quarters or two-thirds of their wages.

The Decree has made considerable alterations in the management of the insurance scheme, which hitherto was entrusted to territorial funds and, in the case of transport workers, to occupational funds. The Decree sets up central occupational funds for the following branches: metal industry, construction of machines, coal mining, metal mining, basic chemical industry, railways and water transport. Each of these funds will be managed by a committee appointed by the Trades Union Congress and placed under the immediate supervision of the Central Directorate of Social Insurance. The other wage earners will continue to be insured with inter-occupational territorial funds managed by committees elected by the trade union organisations.

Lastly, the Decree requires public undertakings and co-operative societies to pay benefits directly to the insured persons. Payment will be effected by special payment centres established in connection with industrial and transport undertakings as well as the great building undertakings and the Soviet farms. The undertakings will deduct the contributions for which they are responsible from the benefits granted by the payment centres.

Yugoslavia. — The Central Social Insurance Office is endeavouring to maintain the financial stability of the sickness and maternity and the accident insurance branches which it administers. The financial situation, which is very difficult, has forced the Central Office to cease providing additional benefits, and sickness benefit is no longer paid after twenty-six weeks of incapacity. The Act of 5 December 1931 has made the conditions of award more strict in the case of maternity benefits. The right to allowances during the six weeks before, and the six weeks after, confinement, as well as other benefits in cash, is conditional upon a qualifying period of ten months immediately preceding the confinement or of eighteen months in the course of the last two years.

Preparations for the recasting of the principal Social Insurance Act of 1922 are being proceeded with. [1]

Bilateral Treaties

The system of bilateral treaties concerning social insurance is becoming more complete. The treaty concluded by Germany and Austria on 5 February 1930 has been in force since April 1931.

[1] The *Annual Review* for 1930 outlined the Government Bill for bringing into force insurance against invalidity, old age and death, which has been the subject of discussion in all the interested quarters.

Among the treaties which have been signed but have not yet been brought into operation may be mentioned those which concern all the risks except unemployment: treaties between Germany and Czechoslovakia (21 March 1931), Germany and Poland (11 June 1931), Austria and Yugoslavia (21 July 1931), Austria and Czechoslovakia (5 September 1931), and the treaties concerning insurance against invalidity, old age and death which are being negotiated between Belgium and the Netherlands and between Belgium and Poland.

The *Austro-German* Treaty, which replaces that of 1926, is ntended to avoid double insurance, to confirm equality of treatment for the nationals of the contracting parties, to guarantee the maintenance of rights in course of acquisition in the case of insured persons who pass from one of the countries to the other, and to organise mutual assistance in judicial and administrative procedure. The Treaty confirms the principle of territoriality, that is to say, insurance is regulated by the law of the place of employment; nevertheless, the law of the place in which the undertaking is established applies to wage earners temporarily employed for periods not exceeding one year in the territory of the other contracting party. Thus workers who are detached for employment abroad remain under the law of the country in which the undertaking is established. As regards insurance benefits, complete equality with nationals is guaranteed to citizens of the other country. According to the municipal law of the contracting parties, residence abroad may involve the commutation of the pension for a lump sum; but according to the Treaty, residence in the country of the other contracting party no longer involves for citizens of the contracting parties the commutation of the pension. An important privilege is conferred on insured persons who pass from one country to another in that periods of insurance successively completed in the two countries are added together for the purpose of reckoning the qualifying period and of maintaining pension rights. When a claim emerges, the insurance institutions of the two countries each grant a pension which corresponds to the contributions which they have collected in respect of the insured person; nevertheless those factors of the pension which are invariable in amount and independent of the number of contributions paid, as, for example, the basic pension and the children's bonuses, undergo a reduction which is proportional to the duration of insurance in each of the countries. These rules now apply in the case of insured persons who pass from salaried employees' insurance or miners' insurance in one country to the corresponding scheme in the other; they will also apply in the case of the general scheme of insurance against invalidity, old age and death as soon as such a scheme has been put into force in Austria.

The *Germano-Polish*, *Germano-Czechoslovak*, *Austro-Yugoslav* and *Austro-Czechoslovak* Treaties (the last two not yet officially published) seem to be based on common principles, which they apply

with such variations as are called for by the municipal law of the several contracting parties. In order to avoid gaps and overlapping, these Treaties confirm the principle of territoriality, which is to the effect that insurance should be regulated by the law of the place of occupation; exceptions are provided for, in particular in the case of the staff of public transport undertakings and, in general, insured persons temporarily employed in the other country, for whom insurance is regulated by the law of the country in which the undertaking is established. Equality of treatment in the matter of benefits, which the contracting parties guarantee to one another's nationals, applies not only to insured persons, but also to their dependants. Maintenance of pension rights in course of acquisition in the case of insured persons who pass from one country to another is arranged for in the same way as in the Austro-German Treaty: for the purpose of reckoning the qualifying period and the maintenance of rights, periods of insurance completed in the two countries are added together and the institutions of each country grant benefits based on the contributions paid to each institution in respect of the insured, the invariable factors of the benefits being reduced in each country in proportion to the period of insurance completed in that country. According to the Germano-Polish and Germano-Czechoslovak Treaties, the arrangements for the maintenance of rights in course of acquisition operate equally for the general schemes of insurance against invalidity, old age and death, the salaried employees' schemes, and the miners' schemes of the contracting parties; the Austro-Yugoslav and Austro-Czechoslovak Treaties concern only salaried employees' insurance and miners' insurance, since the general scheme of insurance against invalidity, old age and death is in operation neither in Austria nor in Yugoslavia. The provisions for mutual assistance in administrative and judicial procedure, for the protection of the interests of citizens of the other contracting party, and for the assistance to be given in case of need by the institutions of the country in which the insured person resides, will in any case facilitate the application of social insurance[1].

The Treaty between *Belgium* and the *Netherlands* concerning insurance against invalidity, old age and death lays down which legislation is to apply in cases where double assurance might occur, and provides, on behalf of workers insured successively in the two countries, that account will be taken by each country of the periods of insurance completed in the other.

The Treaty between *Belgium* and *Poland* concerning miners' insurance establishes equality of treatment for the citizens of the two countries in the matter of insurance against invalidity, old age and death, and arranges for the maintenance by the institutions of both countries of the pension rights of miners who have or will have worked successively in the two countries.

[1] The Polish Parliament in January 1932 passed an Act authorising ratification of the Treaty signed with Germany on 11 June 1931.

International Collaboration

Committee of Experts on Social Insurance

The Governing Body has placed on the Agenda of the Sixteenth Session of the Conference (1932) the question of invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance, including that of the maintenance of pension rights of migrant workers. The Office, instructed to prepare a Grey Report and several technical reports on these questions, desired to avail itself of the advice of experts on several of the problems which it encountered, and in 1931 arranged for two consultations with members of its Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance, one consultation being concerned with the general problems of invalidity, old-age and widows' and orphans' insurance and the other with the maintenance of pension rights of migrant workers.

(*a*) Before drafting the final text of the conclusions of the Grey Report, the Office called a meeting at Geneva on 22, 23 and 24 June 1931 of fifteen experts, selected as far as possible from among the directors of Government Departments of Social Insurance, and invited them to give their opinions on those aspects which might be made the subject of international regulations.

The experts had received a questionnaire drafted by the Office and comprising, on each of the essential problems, on the one hand, a summary statement of the present state of national legislation and, on the other, the relevant questions and proposals. In the course of six sittings the experts succeeded in disposing of all the questions and proposals put forward by the Office, although they were very numerous—about thirty, in fact. The opinions of the experts, which in most cases were unanimous, have been largely taken into account in the preparation of the Grey Report, which was transmitted to the Governments in November 1931.

(*b*) The experts who took part in the second consultation were the actuaries belonging to the Correspondence Committee on Social Insurance; they met at Geneva on 14, 15 and 16 December to study the technical bases of the various methods of maintaining the pension rights of migrant workers.

In August the Office had effected a consultation by correspondence: the actuaries, in reply to a questionnaire, had been invited to submit reports. The Office received from the majority of the experts excellent reports, comprising valuable suggestions of both a critical and constructive nature, and, with the help of these reports, it was possible to draw up a plan of discussion which served as the basis for the proceedings of the actuaries at their meeting.

The Office's plan of discussion suggested that the actuaries undertake the examination of the technical bases of the three principal methods of maintaining pension rights: periodical transfer

of contributions to a single insurance institution—transfer of capital representing acquired rights—maintenance of rights in each country and sharing of liability among the insurance institutions of the countries concerned.

It is scarcely possible to reproduce, or even to summarise, the conclusions of the actuaries. It must suffice to state that the actuaries were unanimous in expressing their preference for the third method, which, in their opinion, is that which lends itself best to treatment in international regulations because it is compatible with every type of legislation, in spite of differences in their financial bases and in their schemes of contributions and benefits. The experts made a thorough examination of the technical details of this method, and supplied the Office with information and constructive suggestions which will be of the greatest use in the preparation of the technical report on the maintenance of pension rights which the Office will publish later.

This meeting of specialists, which was carefully prepared for by a plan of discussion, was an undoubted success, and served to bring out the features of a possible international agreement in a matter of great complexity, where technical problems are aggravated by social or political obstacles.

Committee on Social Charges

Year-book of Social Services. — At its session in April 1931 the Governing Body approved a proposal of the Committee on Social Charges relating to the publication of a *Year-book of Social Services*. By " social services " are to be understood those which satisfy both the following conditions: (*a*) That their object is to cover one of the following risks: industrial accidents, occupational diseases, sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, death, involuntary unemployment, and family charges; (*b*) that they are established on behalf of classes of the population consisting mainly of wage earners or persons of small means working on their own account.

The Committee on Social Charges, while accepting this definition of " social services ", which had been proposed by the Office, considered that it would be desirable to give it a rather wide interpretation, and decided itself to draw up a list of the social services which should be treated in the *Year-book*.

This list, which has received the approval of the Governing Body, includes, besides social insurance services, social assistance services, family allowances and holidays paid for by the employer.

The first issue of the *Year-book* will be edited during 1932 and published at the beginning of 1933. As the national reports on the working of social services are published at least six months, and frequently twelve months, or even eighteen months or two years after the end of the financial year to which they relate, the Office will, as regards most countries, only have at its disposal in 1932 data relating to 1930. The first issue of the *Year-book* will therefore concern the working of social services in 1930.

European Conference on Rural Hygiene

The European Conference on Rural Hygiene, which was convened by the Council of the League of Nations, was held in Geneva from 29 June to 7 July 1931. There appeared on the agenda two questions which directly concerned sickness insurance institutions: guiding principles and suitable methods of ensuring effective medical assistance in rural districts; and improvement of rural districts—most effective and cheapest methods. The Office was called upon to take part in the work of a preparatory committee and of two committees of experts, which were entrusted with the organisation of the Conference, and also to participate in the Conference itself.

The Conference, which was attended by 100 delegates, technical advisers and observers, consisted of public health experts, sanitary engineers, practising doctors, public assistance officials, and some representatives of agricultural sickness insurance funds and of agricultural employers' and workers' organisations. In spite of their small number, the representatives of sickness insurance funds and of agricultural employers and workers took a very active part in the discussion of the resolutions on the organisation of medical aid and of health services, and insisted upon the supreme importance of sickness insurance as a means of providing adequate medical aid in the countryside, and on the necessity for safeguarding the autonomy of sickness insurance funds.

The resolution adopted by the Conference on the organisation of medical assistance in rural districts, after enumerating the essential elements of such assistance, specified that " when health insurance applies to the entire body of agricultural labourers, it permits the realisation of effective medical assistance under the best conditions ".

Again, the resolution relating to the methods of organisation of health services provides that, in order to avoid deficiencies and prevent duplications in the promotion of the health of the rural population, " it is desirable that collaboration should be established between the public health services and social insurance institutions".

The representatives of the sickness insurance funds, while affirming their desire to collaborate in the work of organising medical treatment and health services in rural districts on a systematic basis, several times insisted that it was a question not of subordination, but of collaboration, and that sickness insurance institutions were determined to retain the autonomy which they now possess, and which they need in order to carry out all those duties for which they are responsible in connection with the protection of the health and livelihood of their insured members.

International Conference of Sickness Insurance Funds

The International Conference of Sickness Insurance Funds and Mutual Benefit Societies held its Fifth Annual Congress at Prague from 3 to 6 September 1931, when about 200 delegates attended.

Three new national organisations of sickness insurance funds were admitted to membership of the Conference: the National Union of Occupational and Inter-occupational Mutual Benefit Societies (France), the National Union of Agricultural Mutual Benefit Societies (France) and the Central Miners' Sickness Insurance Fund (Czechoslovakia). Thus, the International Conference, which comprises thirty-six national federations with a membership of more than 30 million insured persons, continues to grow rapidly and seems likely to embrace all federations which are organised on the principle of self-government and are willing to co-operate internationally, irrespective of the branches of economic or occupational activity to which their members belong.

The three following questions appeared on the agenda: sickness insurance and the economic crisis; thermal treatment under sickness insurance; sickness insurance of civil servants and employees of public authorities. After discussing the relevant reports in committees and in plenary session the Conference adopted a resolution on each question.

The resolution on the second question lays down the conditions for a sound organisation of thermal treatment and will afford a useful guide to the national unions.

The resolution on the third question insists on the necessity of compulsory sickness insurance for civil servants and employees of public authorities.

The first question—the most important with which the Conference was concerned—gave rise to a keen and lengthy debate which led to the adoption of a comprehensive resolution dealing with the situation of sickness insurance institutions in the economic crisis and explaining their attitude. The principal points are summarised below.

The Conference found that the economic crisis is reducing the income of insurance institutions in consequence of unemployment and reduction of wages, and is increasing their expenditure by reason of the fall in the standard of living of the unemployed and the employed and by reason of the resulting damage to their health.

It also found that, in order to restore or secure the financial stability of the funds, the reduction of rates of contributions and scales of benefits has in many countries been effected or is under consideration.

The Conference insisted that the best among the existing schemes of sickness insurance did no more than guarantee a minimum of subsistence by their cash benefits and a minimum of health protection by their preventive and curative benefits, and that any restriction of these benefits is likely to injure the efficiency of insurance. It proceeded to warn Governments and Parliaments against the grave dangers likely to result from any lessening of the protection afforded by insurance to workers and against arbitrary restrictions which would inevitably result in a lowering of the economic position, health and consuming power of insured

persons and their families, and would thus render the social effects of the depression still more serious and menacing.

In affronting the crisis, insurance should be inspired by the idea of rational economy, should improve its organisation and should, in particular, improve its medical and hospital services.

The Conference considered that compulsory insurance should be maintained in spite of difficulties and that in all countries the national economy could and must place at the disposal of the insurance system the resources which were indispensable to it; the lack of social insurance legislation deprived the workers of protection to which they were entitled, and the result was an inequality of social charges which was dangerous to good relations between States.

The Conference therefore earnestly called for action by the International Labour Organisation with a view to obtaining the adoption by all countries of sickness insurance legislation in conformity with the Conventions and Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1927.

International Medical Association

The General Council of the International Medical Association devoted the greater part of its Sixth Session, held at Budapest in September 1931, to the study of the situation of the medical profession in connection with sickness insurance. It examined afresh the propositions which it had laid down in 1928 concerning sickness insurance and the organisation of the insurance medical service.

The new charter reasserts the majority of the conclusions reached in 1928: sickness insurance represents an important factor in social progress and in the prosperity and wellbeing of nations; its scope should be limited to persons whose means are insufficient to enable them to obtain the necessary treatment in case of sickness; medical benefit should include treatment by specialists and hospital treatment where necessary; medical benefit should be granted to the wife and young children of the insured person; the insured person should pay a proportion, to be fixed by law, of the cost of medical treatment and drugs.

These propositions are confirmed and are completed by the following additions: insured persons should continue to be entitled to medical treatment even when they pass beyond the age limit, and benefits should last for the whole duration of the illness until cure or death or until the time when the insured person passes under the care of another social institution; sick persons should be able to claim, not only the supply of drugs, but also the application of all other curative means. These additions are of a substantial nature and bear witness to a thorough understanding of the needs of insured persons.

The medical service of sickness insurance should, according to the International Medical Association, be organised in conformity with the following principles: free choice of doctor by the patient;

settlement of the terms of service by collective agreement between sickness funds and medical associations without the participation of third parties; admittance to the insurance medical service of every doctor qualified to practise and accepting the terms of the collective agreements; absolute respect of medical secrecy; freedom for the doctor to prescribe any drug which is useful and for which there is no substitute; exclusion of the capitation fee as a method of remuneration; restriction of the rôle of sickness funds to that of mere intermediary between the patient and the doctor, and prohibition of the funds from carrying on drug factories, hospitals, chemists' shops, sanatoria and preventoria; the right for doctors, like insured persons and employers, to be represented in the sickness funds, whenever questions of a medical nature are being dealt with.

In laying down these principles the International Medical Association declares itself to be guided, not only by the interests of the medical profession, but also by its duty towards the sick and by the exigencies of the sound management of the sickness funds. It must be admitted that its charter does not lose sight of the interests of the patient nor even of those of sickness funds. It represents an effort to adapt the traditions of independence so dear to the medical profession to the requirements of social service.

It may be questioned, however, whether this effort will be found adequate to provide sickness insurance with a medical service capable of undertaking both curative and preventive work, for it is with the object of working in both these directions and of filling a gap in their social organisation that States have decided to establish sickness insurance for their workers. This institution, which the International Medical Association regards as an important factor in social progress, would lose its value if no change was made in the methods of medical practice as carried on before social insurance was established. The principles and methods of the medical treatment of the individual are subject to the universal law of evolution. A system of collective and social medicine which is in constant progress is developing side by side with individual practice and in collaboration with it. The two methods come into contact in the insurance medical service. Their co-ordination in the same service gives rise to new problems on the satisfactory solution of which depends the efficiency of sickness insurance.

INTERNATIONAL REGULATIONS[1]

Convention concerning workmen's compensation for accidents (1925)

Chile. — Ratification registered on 8 October 1931.

Colombia. — The National Congress has approved the Convertion.

[1] The information given here relates only to 1931. See the tables appended to this volume for the general situation in respect of the Conventions concerning social insurance.

France. — The Chamber of Deputies adopted a Bill for the ratification of the Convention on 19 June 1931.

Irish Free State. — The Government states that ratification of the Convention would involve extensive changes in the legislation in force, and that it does not propose to take any steps in this direction at present.

Italy. — The Minister of Corporations has drafted a scheme for the reform of the sickness insurance system, based on the Italian Labour Charter and the principles embodied in the Convention.

Poland. — The Government proposes to submit the Convention to Parliament again in connection with the drafting of a new Bill concerning social insurance.

Recommendation concerning the minimum scale of workmen's compensation for accidents (1925)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office of the measures adopted in this respect in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, Alberta, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, British Columbia, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

Recommendation concerning jurisdiction in disputes on workmen's compensation (1925)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that the Alberta law of 1908 provides for settlement by arbitration in case of disagreement. No similar provisions exist in the legislation of other provinces.

Convention concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (1925)

Chile. — Ratification registered on 8 October 1931.

Colombia. — The National Council has approved the Convention.

Greece. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention is in preparation.

Recommendation concerning equality of treatment for national and foreign workers as regards workmen's compensation for accidents (1925)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that no legislation appears to have been enacted on this subject.

Convention concerning sickness insurance for workers in industry and commerce, and domestic servants (1927)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government states that there is no compulsory sickness insurance in Australia under either Commonwealth or State Governments, but that voluntary insurance through Friendly Societies has been in operation in all the States for many years. These societies are controlled by State legislation. A Bill was introduced in the House of Representatives on 14 September 1928 to provide on a national basis for compulsory sickness and other insurance. This Bill, however, did not proceed beyond the second-reading stage and lapsed with the dissolution of Parliament.

Chile. — Ratification registered on 8 October 1931.

Colombia. — The National Congress has approved the Convention.

Estonia. — The Bill for reorganisation of sickness insurance having been withdrawn from the Riigikogu, a new Bill was drafted by the Minister of Education and Social Affairs, but the Government has not considered it opportune to introduce this Bill during the present period of depression.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 20 February 1931.

Italy. — The Convention was submitted to the Chambers of Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Lithuania. — Ratification registered on 19 June 1931.

Poland. — The Convention was submitted to the Diet on 25 August 1931. The Government drew the attention of the President of the Diet to the differences between the legislation in force and the provisions of the Convention.

Sweden. — The Riksdag adopted in May 1931 an Act for the reorganisation of sickness insurance which maintains the principle of voluntary insurance.

Convention concerning sickness insurance for agricultural workers (1927)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government states that there is no compulsory sickness insurance in Australia under either Commonwealth or State Governments, but that voluntary insurance through Friendly Societies has been in operation in all the States for many years. These societies are controlled by State legislation. A Bill was introduced in the House of Representatives on 14 September 1928 to provide on a national basis for compulsory sickness and other insurance. This Bill, however, did not proceed beyond the second-reading stage and lapsed with the dissolution of Parliament.

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Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 20 February 1931.

Italy. — The Convention was submitted to the Chambers of Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Lithuania. — The national sickness insurance legislation was revised in 1931 (*Official Journal* No. 353), but does not cover agricultural workers.

Poland. — The Convention was submitted to the Diet on 25 August 1931. The Government drew the attention of the President of the Diet to the difference between the legislation in force and the provisions of the Convention.

Sweden. — The Riksdag adopted in May 1931 an Act for the reorganisation of sickness insurance which maintains the principle of voluntary insurance.

Recommendation concerning the general principles of sickness insurance (1927)

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations.

Great Britain. — His Majesty's Government accepted this recommendation on 18 February 1931.

Other information

Canada. — The Dominion Government states that no legislation exists on the subject of this Recommendation.

Conclusions

Social insurance is becoming an essential feature of the social policy of almost all the States Members. Its universality is the proof of its necessity. The idea of insurance for the purpose of affording security to the workers has been found fruitful and effective.

The events of the year 1931 have strengthened the duty and the will of industrial States, both new and old, to secure the livelihood, that is to say, the right to life, of workers whose sole resource is their small and uncertain wages. The crisis has demonstrated

all too clearly the insecurity of the wage earner's condition. It has led to a better understanding of the virtue of the principles of thrift and solidarity on which insurance is founded.

Although it has received universal recognition, social insurance is far from having completed its conquest. It has had to struggle to obtain its place in the economic and social organisation and to retain it. Although its principles are not questioned, its form and its limits are still the object of dispute.

The grave disturbance in the world's economic order has slowed down the progress of insurance even in those countries which have been found less vulnerable. Fresh advances have become more rare, and reforms and improvements which seemed to have been decided upon have been adjourned. It cannot be said, however, that there has been stagnation. On some definite points and in certain branches it has been possible to register progress over and above that which results from the natural development of existing institutions, and if there have been adjournments the definitive abandonment of schemes has been exceptional.

In countries where the crisis has exerted its full effect the whole weight has been felt by insurance. It has been affected in its income and its expenditure and in its arrangements to meet its liabilities.

Revenue is falling, apart from reductions intentionally brought about: reduction of the contribution income resulting from the facts that the unemployed do not contribute and that any payments which may be made on their account are on a reduced scale, and from the fact that, where contributions are proportional to wages, a loss is incurred through the reduction of the total amount of wages insured, by reason of part-time employment on the one hand and the lowering of the rate of wages on the other; reduction of those public subsidies which are proportional to contributions paid, or which are financed out of taxes which are themselves less productive; reduction of the levies which it may be possible to make on the contingency reserves which have been weakened or even exhausted by the long duration of the crisis; and, in a few countries, the fall in the yield of the long-term investments in the case of accumulative funds.

At the same time the expenditure of the institutions is tending to increase. Where unemployment insurance does not exist, sickness insurance has to meet the claims of the unemployed whose health is affected by their privations. Elderly workers who have lost their employment and have no likelihood of finding another are led to claim invalidity pensions; left without any other resource, the aged, the widows and orphans all seek the aid of insurance.

The balance, which is becoming alarming, between the income and expenditure of insurance institutions, cannot be redressed by subsidies from a public revenue which is fully taken up with providing for the maintenance of the unemployed masses. In order to maintain their solvency and meet their immediate liabilities, insurance institutions are imposing and having imposed on them a policy of strict economy. Additional benefits are reduced, or

granted under more stringent conditions, or even abolished. In some countries it is only with difficulty that the absolutely indispensable benefits are being continued. Insured persons and pensioners find their benefits reduced just at the time of greatest hardship. The sacrifice which is demanded of them can only be justified by the necessity of preserving intact the very foundations of insurance.

On the whole, insurance institutions in all the countries which suffer from the crisis are exhibiting a remarkable combination of steadfastness and elasticity. They are resisting as best they can the pressure of circumstances in order to fulfil the mission of social protection which has been entrusted to them. A vain attempt is made to render social insurance responsible for social charges so-called. It has, however, nothing to do with their origin. For what are social charges but the illnesses and infirmities which result from the frailty of the human body and of human contrivances ? Insurance is only a means, the best that has yet been found, of meeting these charges.

CHAPTER IV

WAGES

Statistical Study of Wages

General Studies

The wages question has been one of the most important problems in all countries during the critical year 1931, and in all discussions of the means of relieving the world economic depression the question of wages has been continually in the background. The level of wages affects not only the standard of living of the worker, but also the costs of production of the employer. The Office has continued to devote special attention to this problem and has published regularly in the *International Labour Review* statistics showing the movements in the level of wages in a large number of countries; and in view of the importance of obtaining accurate and comparable information on this subject a Conference of Labour Statisticians was called during the year to discuss the best methods of compiling and comparing statistics of wages in different countries. A summary of the tables published in the *International Labour Review* is given below. They show the changes in money wages in all the chief countries from 1925 to 1931, expressed in the form of index numbers. Statistics showing changes in the costs of living of the same period are also given, for the purposes of comparison. It should be remembered that many of the figures given in this table relate to rates of wages, and therefore do not take account of the effects of unemployment and short time on the worker's income.

The chief contribution to the subject of comparative wage levels in different countries has been the holding of the Conference of Labour Statisticians in May 1931. It was pointed out in the *Annual Review*, 1930, that a Committee of the Governing Body had made certain suggestions regarding the extension and improvement of the wage statistics of the Office and had recommended that a Conference of Government experts be called to consider further these suggestions. The Conference was attended by representatives of twenty-three States Members, together with a representative from the United States of America. It adopted a valuable series of resolutions, recommending more particularly that the Office should continue to collect and publish particulars of wages in a representative selection of towns, industries and occupations in

TABLE I. — INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES

Date	Africa	America													
	Union of South Africa	Canada					United States								
	Mines, industry, public services, commerce	Agriculture		Mines, certain industries, public services	Other industries	Industries	Agriculture	Industries (National Industrial Conference Board series)							
	Men (skilled and unskilled)	Men	Women	Chiefly skilled men	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (unskilled)	Men	Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average	
	Weekly rates	Annual earnings		Hourly rates			Daily rates	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings	Hourly earnings	Weekly earnings
Pre-war. . . .	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1925	132	198	244	180	196	186	171	229	217	231	218	257	219	229	214
1926	133	190	241	181	197	187	172	232	220	233	223	256	216	230	216
1927	133	195	247	184	199	188	171	233	222	240	229	258	220	232	219
1928	133	196	252	188	201	187	169	235	223	242	232	257	213	233	218
1929	134	194	246	193	202	188	168	238	231	247	239	260	226	237	227
1930	—	173	216	194	202	183	150	239	213	244	220	258	206	239	211
1931	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	227	180	225	181	238	191	227	181
1st quarter 1930	*	*	*	*	*	*	158	238	216	242	225	259	214	238	217
2nd „ „	*	*	*	*	*	*	158	239	213	244	220	258	206	239	211
3rd „ „	*	*	*	*	*	*	155	237	197	240	204	256	197	238	198
4th „ „	*	*	*	*	*	*	147	234	185	237	200	249	195	234	190
1st quarter 1931	*	*	*	*	*	*	130	229	186	231	192	245	197	230	187
2nd „ „	*	*	*	*	*	*	125	227	180	225	181	238	191	227	181
3rd „ „	*	*	*	*	*	*	120	222	168	222	168	237	184	225	170
4th „ „	*	*	*	*	*	*	110	215	258	211	157	226	172	215	162

South Africa: Index numbers at 30 September of each year; base: 1914.
Canada: Agriculture: Average annual index numbers; base: 1914. Other series: average annual index numbers; base: 1913.
United States: Agriculture: annual index numbers: averages; quarterly index numbers: 1 January, 1 April, 1 July and 1 October; base: 1914. Industries (National Industrial Conference Board series): annual figures: second quarter of each year; quarterly figures: for 1930, averages; for 1931, March, June, September and December respectively; base: July 1914.
The sign * signifies: " no figures exist ". The sign — signifies: " figures not yet received ".

TABLE I. — INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES *(continued)*

Date	America (concluded)		Asia						Europe					
	United States (concluded)		Japan						Germany					
	Certain industries, public services, various (union rates)		Industries						Mines, industries, public services					
	Chiefly skilled men		Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average		Men (skilled)	Men (semi-skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled and semi-skilled)	Women (unskilled)	General average
	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Daily rates	Daily earnings	Daily rates	Daily earnings	Daily rates	Daily earnings	Hourly rates					
Pre-war	100	100	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1925	238	222	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	81
1926	250	233	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	*	*	*	*	86
1927	260	241	100	101	99	99	100	102	*	*	*	*	*	94
1928	261	241	99	103	98	100	99	105	101	100	101	101	100	101
1929	262	241	99	103	97	96	99	104	106	106	106	106	106	106
1930	272	244	96	97	94	87	96	99	107	108	107	107	108	107
1931	273	243	—	—	—	—	—	—	101	102	101	101	102	101
1st quarter 1930	*	*	98	101	96	93	98	103	107	107	107	107	107	107
2nd ,, ,,	*	*	97	98	94	89	97	99	107	108	107	107	108	107
3rd ,, ,,	*	*	95	95	92	84	95	97	107	108	107	107	108	107
4th ,, ,,	*	*	94	95	91	82	94	96	107	107	107	107	107	107
1st quarter 1931	*	*	93	94	89	80	92	94	105	104	105	102	104	104
2nd ,, ,,	*	*	92	92	88	78	91	91	101	102	101	101	102	101
3rd ,, ,,	*	*	91	91	87	76	91	89	101	102	101	101	102	101
4th ,, ,,	*	*	90	93	86	74	90	89	99	100	98	100	100	99

United States: Certain industries, etc. (union rates): index numbers at 15 May of each year; base: 1913. (These figures relate to a much smaller number of industries than do those of the National Industrial Conference Board, and include women in one or two occupations.)

Japan: Annual index numbers: averages; quarterly index numbers; March, June, September and December respectively; base: 1926.

Germany: Annual index numbers: 1 June of each year; quarterly index numbers: 1 March, 1 June, 1 September and 1 December respectively; base: 1928.

TABLE I. — INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES *(continued)*

Date	Europe (*continued*)														
	Denmark				Estonia	Finland	France							Great Britain and Northern Ireland	Irish Free State
	Industries, public services, various				Mines, industries, public services, various	Mines, industries, public services, various	Mines	Industries, various (Paris)		Industries, various (towns other than Paris)				Agric., mines, industr., public services	Agriculture
	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)	General average	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Chiefly skilled and unskilled men	Men (chiefly skilled)		Men (chiefly skilled)		Women (chiefly skilled)		Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men
	Hourly earnings				Hourly earnings	Annual earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Hourly rates	Daily rates	Weekly rates	Weekly earnings
Pre-war. . .	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	100
1925	300	327	331	303	99	1,254	439	474	411	607	504	657	534	102 ½	209
1926	268	290	294	273	98	1,318	526	583	510	700	584	809	668	101 ½	203
1927	254	277	284	261	102	1,369	581	585	514	720	593	787	648	101	203
1928	250	273	280	255	109	1,416	574	600	526	750	617	856	701	100	197
1929	250	275	280	257	112	1,422	635	697	610	831	680	982	800	100	199
1930	256	279	284	261	114	1,379	685	759	665	887	730	1,052	866	99	195
1931	255	281	284	261	112	—	—	756	663	887	729	1,052	862	98	193
1st quart. 1930	251	273	280	257	*	*	683	*	*	*	*	*	*	99	*
2nd ,, ,,	256	279	284	261	*	*	694	*	*	*	*	*	*	99	*
3rd ,, ,,	258	281	284	263	*	*	686	*	*	*	*	*	*	99	*
4th ,, ,,	263	286	287	269	*	*	688	*	*	*	*	*	*	99	*
1st quart. 1931	255	279	287	261	*	*	683	*	*	*	*	*	*	98 ½	*
2nd ,, ,,	255	281	284	261	*	*	656	*	*	*	*	*	*	98	*
3rd ,, ,,	253	291	287	261	*	*	651	*	*	*	*	*	*	97	*
4th ,, ,,	—	—	—	—	*	*	652	*	*	*	*	*	*	97	*

Denmark: Annual index numbers: 2nd quarter of each year, except for 1925 (3rd quarter); quarterly index numbers: averages; base: 1914.
Estonia: Average annual index numbers; base: 2nd half-year of 1923.
Finland: Average annual index numbers; base: 1914.
France: Mines: average annual and quarterly index numbers; base: 1913. Industries and various: index numbers for October of each year; base: 1911.
Great Britain: Annual index numbers: 2nd quarter of each year; quarterly index numbers: averages; base: 1924.
Irish Free State: Index numbers for one week in July of each year; base: 1914.

TABLE I. — INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES *(continued)*

Date	Europe (*continued*)															
	Italy	Latvia (Riga)				Poland	Rumania	Sweden							
	Agriculture, mines, industries, public services,	Industries				Mines, industries	Agric., mines, ind., public serv., comm., various	Agriculture		Mines, industries, public services, commerce, various					
	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men (skilled)	Men (unskilled)	Women (skilled)	Women (unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men and women (skilled and unskilled)	Men	Women	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		General average (including young persons)	
	Hourly earnings	Daily rates				Daily rates	Monthly earnings	Annual earnings		Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings
Pre-war . .	*	100	100	100	100	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1925	*	90	103	94	91	119	2,316	169	187	262	217	296	243	265	218
1926	*	102	108	103	99	86	2,490	168	186	264	222	300	240	268	225
1927	*	107	113	100	99	100	2,714	168	186	267	222	300	241	270	224
1928	102	107	109	115	105	110	2,748	168	186	271	224	304	244	273	226
1929	103	108	114	112	106	119	2,764	168	187	278	231	308	248	280	233
1930	103	109	116	108	109	121	2,657	165	185	284	239	313	253	288	240
1931	93	—	—	—	—	—	2,356	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1st quart. 1930	101	108	114	106	109	121	2,691	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
2nd ,, ,,	103	109	116	108	109	121	2,676	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
3rd ,, ,,	100	110	117	108	107	121	2,646	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
4th ,, ,,	96	110	117	111	109	121	2,611	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
1st quart. 1931	91	—	—	—	—	119	2,472	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
2nd ,, ,,	93	—	—	—	—	119	2,399	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
3rd ,, ,,	90	—	—	—	—	118	2,323	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
4th ,, ,,	89	—	—	—	—	117	2,237	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

Italy: Annual index numbers: June of each year; quarterly index numbers: March, June, September and December respectively; base: July 1928 to June 1929.
Latvia (Riga): Average annual and quarterly index numbers; base: July 1914.
Poland: Annual index numbers: averages; quarterly index numbers: March, June, September, and December respectively; base: 1927.
Rumania: Annual index numbers: averages; quarterly index numbers: January, April, July, and October respectively; base: 1914.
Sweden: Average annual index numbers; base: 1913.

TABLE I. — INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY WAGES *(concluded)*

Date	Europe (concluded)								Oceania						
	Switzerland						Czecho-slovakia (Prague)		Australia					New Zealand	
	Mines, industries, public services, commerce						Industries		Agri-culture	Mines, industries, public services, commerce, various				Agriculture, mines, industries, public services, commerce, various	
	Men (skilled and semi-skilled)		Men (unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		Men and women (chiefly skilled)		Men	Men (skilled and unskilled)		Women (skilled and unskilled)		Men (skilled and unskilled)	Women (skilled and unskilled)
	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Hourly earnings	Daily earnings	Minimum hourly rates	Minimum weekly rates	Weekly rates	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Hourly rates	Weekly rates	Minimum weekly rates	
Pre-war	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1925	*	199	*	202	*	198	907	806	174	177	172	193	183	156	153
1926	*	201	*	202	*	199	918	818	180	189	177	204	189	158	157
1927	*	201	*	202	*	197	923	821	191	190	181	207	192	160	158
1928	*	201	*	202	*	197	968	861	194	193	183	213	198	166	159
1929	228	205	238	206	257	200	993	885	194	194	184	214	198	166	159
1930	229	207	242	207	253	198	1,016	905	192	191	182	215	199	167	159
1931	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,020	909	169	173	168	194	183	154	—
1st quarter 1930	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,005	895	*	194	184	215	199	166	*
2nd ,, ,,	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	192	191	182	215	199	166	*
3rd ,, ,,	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	192	188	180	211	198	166	*
4th ,, ,,	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	177	185	175	209	197	166	*
1st quarter 1931	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	169	178	174	197	185	165	*
2nd ,, ,,	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	169	173	168	194	183	147	143
3rd ,, ,,	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	168	170	165	189	177	147	*
4th ,, ,,	*	*	*	*	*	*	1,020	909	—	—	—	—	—	147	*

Switzerland: Average annual index numbers; base: 1913.
Czechoslovakia: Annual index numbers: averages; quarterly index numbers: March, June, September and December respectively; base: 1914.
Australia: Annual index numbers: 30 June of each year; quarterly index numbers: 31 March, 30 June, 30 September and 31 December respectively; base: April 1914.
New Zealand: Average annual and quarterly index-numbers; base: 1914.

TABLE II. — INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING

Continent		Africa		America				Asia				Europe			
Country		Union of South Africa	Egypt	Canada	United States	Chile	Peru	China		British India	Japan	Germany	Austria	Belgium	Bulgaria
Towns		9	Cairo	60	32	Santiago	Lima	Pekin	Shanghai	Bombay	Tokyo	72	Vienna	59	12
		(a)		(a) [1]	(b)	[2]	(a)	[1]	[1]	[3](d)				[9]	[4](a)
1914	VII	100	100	66	(c) 100	*	100	—	—	100	100	100	100	*	100
1925	VII	133	163	99	174	*	192	—	—	157	218	134	97	133	3,014
1926	VII	131	159	100	175	*	193	—	101	157	199	142	103	174	2,886
1927	VII	131	151	99	173	*	187	100	107	156	189	150	106	204	2,788
1928	VII	131	151	99	170	107	174	106	102	147	184	153	108	205	2,911
1929	VII	131	150	100	70	111	170	104	106	148	181	154	112	216	2,994
1930	VII	128	148	99	167	112	163	114	130	140	155	149	112	227	2,708
1931	VII	123	134	90	*	105	154	94	119	108	134	137	107	203	1,991
”	III	124	142	92	*	103	153	99	132	111	139	138	105	209	2,012
”	VI	123	135	89	150	107	154	96	121	109	134	138	106	205	1,983
”	IX	122	136	88	*	103	149	97	135	108	134	134	107	201	1,887
”	XII	121	136	86	146	100	147	91	121	109	135	130	108	193	1,960

(See notes p. 302).

TABLE II. — INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING *(continued)*

Continent		EUROPE *(continued)*										
Country		Denmark	Danzig	Estonia	Finland	France	Greece	Hungary	Ireland	Italy	Latvia	Lithuania
Towns		100	Danzig	Tallinn	21	Paris	44	Budapest	105	50	Riga	84
		(e)				(f)	[5] (a)		(h)	[10](g)		
1914	VII	100	100	(c) 100	100	100	100	(c) 100	100	*	100	(c) 100
1925	VII	219	147	110	1,218	390	1,414	112	188	*	114	158
1926	VII	184	137	107	1,183	485	1,633	103	182	*	110	140
1927	VII	176	146	110	1,283	525	1,790	110	171	100	112	143
1928	VII	176	141	116	1,236	519	1,868	118	173	92	113	139
1929	VII	173	141	121	1,223	556	1,923	119	174	94	127	136
1930	VII	165	137	104	1,128	572	1,682	106	168	91	100	113
1931	VII	154	126	105	1,021	565	1,671	102	157	82	105	108
”	III	157	124	98	1,057	590	1,692	100	164	84	101	105
”	VI	154	126	104	1,020	589	1,668	100	156	82	100	105
”	IX	154	123	100	1,013	565	1,663	103	157	80	97	108
”	XII	154	120	95	1.048	531	1,646	100	165	79	93	99

(See notes page 302.)

TABLE II. — INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING *(concluded)*

Continent		EUROPE *(concluded)*											OCEANIA	
Country		Luxemburg	Norway	Netherlands	Poland	Roumania	United Kingdom	Saar Territory	Sweden	Switzerland	Czechoslovakia	Turkey	Australia	New Zealand
Towns		Luxemburg	31	Amsterdam	Warsaw	20	630		49	34	Prague	Istanbul	30	25
		(g)		[7]	[10]		*(g)*			*(a)*	*(a)* *(i)*		*(h)* [8]	*(h)*
1914	VII	100	100	*	*	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	*	100
1925	VII	519	259	179	*	3,180	173	*	176	168	744	1,289	99	163
1926	VII	686	220	[6] 171	*	3,390	170	615	172	162	724	1,307	101	163
1927	VII	784	203	167	101	3,900	164	592	169	160	755	1,374	100	161
1928	VII	813	193	170	104	4,086	165	601	173	161	758	—	100	161
1929	VII	873	180	169	102	4,240	163	621	169	161	761	1,345	103	161
1930	VII	878	175	162	98	4,217	157	614	164	159	748	1,254	99	157
1931	VII	796	152	*b*) 154	86	2,972	145	589	*b*) 158	150	725	1,187	80	142
"	III	798	155	154	88	3,184	147	595	160	153	711	1,223	90	148
"	VI	794	151	154	88	3,033	147	598	158	150	730	1,209	88	145
"	IX	782	150	151	84	2,884	145	563	158	149	715	1,176	86	142
"	XII	726	150	145	83	2,776	147	557	157	145	695	1.198	—	142

(*a*) Yearly averages; (*b*) VI; (*c*) 1913; (*d*) 15th of preceding month to 15th of current month; (*e*) 1931: IV, VII, X, I; (*f*) Quarterly averages; (*g*) First of the following month: Great Britain, Italy, Luxemburg; (*h*) Years: VIII; quarters: II, V, VIII, XI; (*i*) since 1930 new series.
[1] Canada, China (Pekin, Shanghai): 1926 = 100. [2] Chile: base, March 1928=100. [3] India: since 1927 basic prices expressed in terms of the rupee of 1913 (gold index). [4] Bulgaria, years: 65 towns, excluding rent; months: 12 towns, excluding rent and clothing. [5] Greece: since 1931, new series [6] Netherlands: change in method of calculation. [7] Netherlands: base 1911-1913 = 100. [8] Australia: base 1923-1927 = 100. [9] Belgium: 1921 = 100. [10] Italy, Poland: base 1927 = 100.

those countries for which information is available. It was emphasised that earnings per unit of time are preferable for the purpose of international comparison, but that rates of wages are also of value and should be collected and published; and that in any case rates in one country should not be compared with earnings in another. Moreover, information should be given as to all other allowances made to the workers, such as family allowances, paid holidays, social insurance schemes, etc. Once information of this kind is satisfactorily collected, it should be published in the form of an annual volume and would become in due course an authoritative source book of comparable international information on wages. Following upon this publication, the Office could then discuss and analyse the data in the *International Labour Review* from the standpoint of determining the relative level of the purchasing power of wages in the different countries, using for this purpose the information available in the various national family budget enquiries.

The Governing Body has now approved these resolutions and the Office is engaged in calling the attention of the Governments to them; and it is hoped that by this means a fruitful field of collaboration already started will be developed and improved.

Special Studies

Enquiry into international living costs. — The enquiry described in the *Annual Review*, 1930, which originated from a request from the Ford Motor Company, has now been completed and the results were published in English during the course of the year 1931. Although not strictly an enquiry into wages, the results of the enquiry are so pertinent to the wages problem that it might usefully be mentioned in this place. It will be remembered that for the purpose of fixing wages in the different cities in which it had factories, the Ford Motor Company wished to consider the possibility of taking into account, among other factors, that of costs of living in these cities in relation to the city of Detroit. The Office in collaboration with the competent statistical authorities of each city made detailed investigations into the relative cost of the chief necessaries of life in each of these cities. It is believed that this enquiry is the first of its kind to be undertaken on such a scale.

Textile enquiry. — Some further progress has been made during the year on the subject of the special enquiry into conditions of work in the textile industry. The detailed questionnaire mentioned in the *Annual Review*, 1930, was found to be somewhat too complicated for the majority of countries and at a meeting of the Textile Committee called to consider the observations of the Governments on this questionnaire, it was decided the time was not appropriate to conduct a detailed enquiry of this nature, and a simplified form of questionnaire was drafted. This questionnaire has now been approved by the Governing Body and is

being circulated to all the Governments participating in this enquiry for their observations. It is hoped that this simplified questionnaire will meet with a ready response and that it will now be possible to fix the date of the enquiry.

Wages Policy

The outstanding features of 1931, so far as wage questions are concerned, are, first of all, the drastic reductions in money wages in a large number of countries; an extension of the family allowance system; greater insistence in the demands for the fixing of a minimum wage; a particularly significant change in the system of wage payment in Russia; and development of the " high wages " controversy.

Wage Reductions

Space does not permit of a detailed examination of the reductions in money wages in all of the various countries and industries in which such reductions have taken place; but some account may usefully be given of the course of events in three countries—Germany, Australia and the United States of America—where the methods adopted have been especially interesting.

The German wage reductions have been noteworthy on two accounts: that to a very large extent they have been brought about by Governmental action, and that a determined effort has been made to secure that prices and other costs shall be reduced at the same time.

The first pronounced movement along these lines took place in the spring of 1930, when an award granting a wage reduction of 7½ per cent. for iron and steel workers was made binding by the Minister of Labour, but with the contingent provision that iron and steel prices must be reduced to a corresponding extent. Following on this came a number of awards and other official measures forcing wage reductions upon various groups of workers, notably the metal and engineering industry (6-8 per cent.), the civil and military officials (6 per cent.) and the Ruhr coal miners (7 per cent.); the main argument used in most cases being that this did not represent any decrease in real wages, the cost of living having fallen to approximately the same extent.

Under the increasing stress of world depression further adjustments have been made; and the Economic Advisory Council set up for that purpose reported towards the end of 1931 in favour of wage reductions, but on condition that prices were reduced to a corresponding degree. Following on this the German Government issued an Emergency Decree on 8 December 1931 enforcing wage reductions and putting compulsory powers in the hands of

the administrative officials to secure that prices, rents and interest were likewise reduced.[1]

By this Decree wages and salaries are to be brought down to the level of 10 January 1927—representing a cut of 10 per cent., or of 15 per cent. when no reduction had taken place since 1 July 1931. Prices fixed by cartel conventions, as also freights, charges for water, gas and electricity and certain other prices are to be reduced by 10 per cent. as compared with their level on 1 July 1931. Rents are to be reduced by 10 per cent. of the pre-war rent (about 7 per cent. of present rents). Rates of interest of 8-12 per cent. are subject to a reduction amounting to 25 per cent., and those over 12 per cent. to a reduction amounting to as much as 50 per cent.

In Australia the process of wage reduction began in February 1931 with a 10 per cent. reduction in real wages by the Commonwealth Arbitration Court. In addition to this decline in real wages, there was a reduction in the basic wage in accordance with the fall in the cost of living. Towards the end of 1931 the total reduction in money wages amounted to 23 per cent. and applied to the whole of the workers under Commonwealth awards (about 20 per cent. of the total wage earners of the country) and to workers in Victoria and Tasmania. In all States, with one exception, there have been substantial wage reductions—in South Australia amounting to as much as 25 per cent. In New South Wales, on the other hand, the rates in force are those fixed at the end of 1929, which gives rise to considerable disparity between this State and the rest of the Commonwealth.

These wage reductions have been accompanied by reductions in the payments to rentiers. It was considered by the Committee engaged in the task of financial rehabilitation that " the sacrifices asked from wages, salaries and pensions are so great that they would not be accepted if any other income element escaped ". Accordingly steps were taken to reduce the interest on the internal debt by 22½ per cent.; and 97 per cent. of the total holdings were voluntarily converted on this basis. In addition, six States agreed to adopt legislation providing for a reduction of 22½ per cent. on private interest. Similarly, the banks reduced their deposit rates and advances rates by 1 per cent.

In the United States of America the policy of maintaining existing rates of wages was given Governmental support at the time of the break in trade in the autumn of 1929. At a meeting of the leaders of the major industrial groups of the country, convoked by the President of the United States, it was informally agreed to sustain wage rates. In one notable instance wage rates were advanced.

Until the middle of 1931, although large reductions in actual earnings were recorded, the rates of wages themselves remained

[1] See Chapter VIII: " Collective Agreements ", for a separate analysis of this Legislative Decree.

fairly intact. During the preceding 12 months the statements received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics showed that, of the 12,000 companies reporting, less than 20 per cent. had made wage reductions and those principally small companies employing from 25 to 150 men. Since then large-scale reductions in wage rates have occurred. At the end of July the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, together with a number of other large coal mining concerns, made a reduction of 20 per cent. In the second half of September 1931 reductions of 10 per cent. in wage rates were announced by the chief iron and steel producers and related industries (affecting over a million workers in all) and by producers of rubber, aluminium, copper and electrical supplies. In the textile trades wage cuts (in addition to large reductions in earnings due to short time) have become increasingly common; a large part of the automobile trade has reduced wages or salaries or both; and wage reductions on the railways are likewise taking place.

The American Federation of Labor has condemned this falling away from the undertaking given to the President in 1929, and the Federal Administration itself has reiterated that it still stands by the high wage policy; but apart from some local strikes in the textile industry practically no action has been taken to oppose the movement.

Family Allowances

The outstanding event in 1931 is the adoption by the French Senate, on 21 January 1932, of the Bill dealing with this question passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 30 March 1931. The new Act, which forms Chapter V of the Labour Code, obliges every employer in industry, commerce, agriculture and the liberal professions to belong to a compensation fund or similar body recognised by the Minister of Labour. As an exceptional case an employer who has set up a separate family allowance system, recognized by the Minister of Labour, may be exempted from this provision. The application of the Act to agriculture will be provided for by arrangement between the Minister of Labour and the Minister of Agriculture.

The Act makes provisions for grants on account of every child of school age (or up to sixteen years of age where studies are being continued or an apprenticeship entered into) for whom the worker or employee is responsible, these grants being continued in the event of temporary or permanent incapacity or death as the result of an industrial accident. The minimum amount of such a grant is to be laid down by the Minister of Labour in each Department, either for all types of employment together or for each different type. Such amount shall not be less than that paid at present by the compensation funds, but may be modified subsequently. The Act also sets up a Superior Commission on Family Allowances in the Ministry of Labour.

According to the figures made public at the Eleventh French Congress on Family Allowances, held in May 1931, the number of workers employed by the undertakings affiliated to the various family allowance funds had increased from 1,820,000 at the end of 1929 to 1,880,000 at the end of 1930 and had since fallen to 1,850,000. The total amount of allowances paid in 1930 was about 1,700 million francs.

In other countries no particularly noteworthy events in this field are to be recorded. The Belgian Act of 4 August 1930 has been slightly modified in certain of its details, but without affecting the general principles on which it is based. In Great Britain the award of the independent chairman of the South Wales Coal Wages Board issued in March 1931 allowed a subsistence wage of 7*s.* per day where there were no family responsibilities, of 7*s.* 3*d.* where there were family responsibilities but no children, and of 7*s.* 6*d.* where there were dependent children: but this measure of differentiation between workers with and without family charges is more properly regarded as a means of enabling an admittedly insufficient wage-scale to be applied with less hardship, rather than a first step towards a definite family allowance system.

The Minimum Wage

As might be expected in a period of declining wage rates, the need for a minimum wage has been widely felt. The demand for such minimum scales of remuneration has been particularly marked among civil servants, bank clerks, commercial workers and salaried employees generally in a large number of countries, including Belgium, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, India, Poland, Rumania and Switzerland.

International Regulation [1]

Convention concerning the creation of minimum wage fixing machinery (1928)

Australia. — Ratification registered on 9 March 1931.

Belgium. — In July 1931 the Senate approved a Bill for the regulation of home work from the point of view of wages and hygiene. This Bill was afterwards transmitted to the House of Representatives.

Brazil. — A Commission set up by the Ministry of Labour to study the Conventions has expressed itself in favour of ratifying the present one.

Chile. — A report from the Labour Inspectorate dated 28 August 1931 indicates that a Decree promulgated on 28 May 1931 for codification of the labour laws contains the provisions needed to render effective those Conventions which have not yet been ratified. This Decree came into force on 29 November 1931.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Czechoslovakia. — Procedure for ratification was begun in 1929. In 1931 the Minister for Social Welfare approached the competent authorities and

[1] The information given here relates only to 1931. See the large tables appended to this volume for the general situation in respect of this Convention.

took steps with a view to getting the Convention ratified, but met with various difficulties of an economic nature.

Greece. — A Bill for ratification of this Convention is in preparation.

Netherlands. — The Superior Council of Labour approved a draft Bill for legal regulation of minimum wages for home work.

Poland. — This Convention was submitted to the Diet on 25 August 1931. The Government explained to the Diet the differences existing between the legislation in force and the provisions of the Convention.

Recommendation concerning the application of minimum wage fixing machinery (1928)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office concerning the legislative measures that have been taken in this respect in Nova Scotia, and in the provinces of Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta, British Columbia and New Brunswick. These laws ensure a minimum wage for women workers; but the New Brunswick law is not yet in force. All these laws, including the British Columbia law on workers' minimum wages, provide for previous enquiries to be undertaken by Wages Councils.

Systems of Wage Payment

By far the most interesting change in the system of wage payment made during the year is that applied in Soviet Russia.

In the U.S.S.R. the wages policy comes within the scope of the general political economy of the Soviet Government. This policy, which is at present directed to speeding up the industrialisation of the country, is based on the principles of economic planning. Side by side with general economic plans, such as the Five-Year Plan, separate plans are laid down each year for the various branches of National Economy, and, within each branch, for each of the economic units. These plans lay down, inter alia, the amount of the wages fund in each case. Wage rates are fixed within the limits of these funds by collective agreement. (In State undertakings salaries are fixed by the Staff Regulations.) The collective agreements may be said not so much to fix the amount of wages as to distribute them within the limits laid down by the Plans.

During the early years following the revolution, the Soviet policy was directed towards the greatest possible equalisation of wages—it narrowed the gap which existed between the wages of skilled and unskilled workers, between workers' wages and the salaries of technical staff. To-day its object is no longer the same. As the Secretary-General of the Communist Party expressed it, at the present time the rapid development of production and transport is indispensable, and efforts must therefore be directed to intensifying individual production as far as possible. With this object in view the activity of the wage earners must be stimulated by an appropriate wages policy. In future this policy will be based upon the principle that the highest wage is to be paid to the best worker, and that wages in heavy industry and transport shall be higher than those in light industries. "We can no longer

tolerate", said Mr. Stalin, "that in the metal industry, for example, a roller shall be paid the same wage as an ordinary sweeper. It is equally inadmissible that a railway engine driver should receive no more than a copying clerk. . . The wage must be calculated, not according to the needs of the worker, but according to the work done." [1]

The new wage regulations in the coal-mining and iron and steel industries illustrate the application of this principle. Orders issued in September 1931 provide for a widening of the gap between the lowest and highest paid workers and the institution of piece rates which increase progressively as higher output is obtained.

In the coal-mining industry the lowest daily rate (provided the whole of the prescribed task is accomplished) is 1.60 roubles, the highest being .7 roubles. In the metal industry the lowest daily wage is 1.70-3.50 roubles and the highest 13. The corresponding rates in this industry prior to the change were 1.30-2.80 roubles and 7.25 roubles respectively.

The progressively increasing piece rate system in the coal mines applies to 90 per cent. of the underground workers and 53 per cent. of the surface workers—approximately 80 per cent. of the coal mining workers as a whole. Under this system a certain standard of production is laid down which is paid for at the regular piece rate; where a worker performs 1-10 per cent. more than the task prescribed, the excess is paid for at 25 per cent. above the normal rate; where the additional production is 11-20 per cent. over the standard, the piece rate is 40 per cent. above the normal; any further excess is paid at 80 per cent. above the regular rate. The salaried staff are granted bonuses of 50 per cent. if the prescribed task is completed, 100 per cent. if surpassed.

In the metal industry there is a graduated scale on somewhat similar lines. If the first third of the prescribed task is paid at a rate which is represented by 100, the second third is paid at a rate represented by 120, the final third at 150, while production in excess of the prescribed task is paid at 200. Here also heads of workshops, engineers and other salaried workers are entitled to bonuses for the satisfactory performance of the task and for any savings effected. Auxiliary workers not actually engaged in production are likewise eligible for bonuses for good work.

It is intended to extend the principle behind these changes to the whole of Soviet industry, making allowance for the differences between easy and arduous work and between skilled and unskilled labour, and extending piece work until the proportion of workers so paid (at present 64 per cent.) is increased to 80 per cent. The system of a graduated scale of piece rates (as exemplified above) has already been applied to 25 per cent. of the total number of workers.

A system of deductions is also being introduced. In the event of work being interrupted or goods spoilt through the worker's

[1] Cf. *Pravda*, 5 July 1931.

own fault, no wage will be paid. Where the fault is not his, 50 per cent. of the normal wage is allowed. It is reported that these changes in the methods of wage payment have already had an appreciable effect upon output.

Another form of wage payment found in Soviet Russia may also be mentioned. It consists in giving a particular task to a gang of workers who undertake to carry it out on a pre-arranged budget. If the gang succeeds in making any savings, it benefits accordingly. If on the other hand it exceeds its allowance, the gang stands the loss. This system is becoming increasingly prevalent, particularly in large-scale industry and on the railways.

High Wages and the "Technique of Balance"

With the deepening of industrial depression and the reduction of money wages in many countries the question of the relation between wages and the "technique of balance", as it is sometimes termed, has been widely discussed. It is not possible here to enter deeply into the matter, but certain outstanding points that have attracted attention may usefully be noted.

1. As regards the relation between wage movements and the setting in of the present depression, mention should be made of the opinion sometimes put forward, especially in the United States [1] that the depression is largely due to the fact that, during the preceding period of prosperity, real wages did not rise as fast as productivity and profits, which is said to have led to inadequate purchasing power of the masses combined with over-capitalisation and excessive increase in equipment.

2. Once the depression set in, two standpoints have been adopted. According to some economists, the falling off in buying which is the characteristic feature of periods of depression, is eventually met by a general reduction of prices, wages and other costs, enabling industry to recover at the lower price and cost level so attained. Others maintain that, since the essential feature is that the volume of purchasing power being used to buy goods is inadequate, what should be done is to take all possible measures to maintain purchasing power; to reduce wages in face of industrial depression is fundamentally inept, since it is likely to lead to purchasing power being reduced still further. The trade unions hold strongly to this doctrine.

The International Association for Social Progress, at its General Meeting of October 1931, expressed the opinion that "in times of economic depression the reduction of real wages is not the right

[1] Cf. *Bulletin of the Taylor Society*, December 1930, Leonard Souvin. — June 1931, Robert G. McFall; and *International Labour Office: The Social Aspects of Rationalisation*, pp. 217-223.

way of reducing difficulties, but hampers rather than facilitates economic recovery."

Reference should finally be made to the new lines on which the wage problem was presented by the Macmillan Committee in Great Britain, which considered that the solution must depend on a monetary policy that would ensure turning all the forces of production to the widest possible account.[1]

[1] For an analysis of this report, see *International Labour Review*, October and December 1931.

CHAPTER V

UNEMPLOYMENT, PLACING, MIGRATION

Unemployment

The statistics of unemployment for 1931 present an almost unrelieved picture of gloom. In all countries, with one exception, the number of unemployed at the end of 1931 was greater than at the end of 1930. That exception is the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Although no statistics of unemployment have been published since July 1930, all the information available indicates that the problem in that country is not one of finding employment for idle workers, but of finding workers for vacant posts. In a certain number of other countries the increase in the number of unemployed is relatively small. This is the case, for instance, in Great Britain and Northern Ireland, where the number of temporarily stopped actually fell from 646,205 to 408,117, while the number of wholly unemployed increased from 1,853,575 to 2,262,700. In Austria, Denmark, the Irish Free State and Poland the increased unemployment was also relatively small.

In most countries, however, the increase was large, and in some cases very large. As far as the published figures are concerned, the most striking case is that of France, where the number of registered applicants for work increased from 22,879 to 177,294; the real number is of course much higher than that, as is shown by the fact that the index of employment in December 1931 was 76.6 as compared with 100 in December 1930. As the latest figure of the number of employed was 2,459,371, this represents an increased unemployment of about 600,000 since December 1930.

In Germany the number of unemployed reached the record figure of 5,668,187 in December 1931, an increase of 1,300,000 over the corresponding figure for December 1930; in Italy the number of totally and partially unemployed exceeded one million (an increase of 350,000). Outside Europe, the same tendency is visible; in Canada, the United States, Australia, and New Zealand the number of unemployed registered by the trade unions or by the employment exchanges has increased considerably in every case.

The figures published in the following tables must not of course be taken as representing accurately the total number of unemployed in each country. While the statistics of certain countries, especially those which have fairly complete unemployment insurance schemes,

give a fairly exact picture of the situation, statistics in other countries based on voluntary insurance, trade union membership, registration at employment exchanges, etc., however accurately they may be compiled, only cover a section of the working population. Reference has already been made to this in connection with France; the same applies among other countries to Yugoslavia, where the number of unemployed is estimated at about 200,000. Estimates have also been made of the number of unemployed in certain countries for which no regular statistics are compiled, such as Bulgaria (70,000), Greece (between 100,000 and 200,000), and Chile (125,000).

It is unfortunately impossible to make an international comparison of unemployment in different countries because the industrial classification varies from country to country. All that can be done is to indicate those industries in which unemployment is greater than the average, or in the case of those countries which publish only employment figures, the countries in which employment has declined more than the average. The industries in question are presented in tabular form below.

Germany (September 1931)

Percentage of wholly unemployed greater than the average in the following industries: building, stone and earth, wood and leather.

Percentage of partially unemployed greater than the average in: textiles, chemicals, paper, food, drink and tobacco, mining, clothing, engineering and metal work, and leather.

Australia (Third Quarter 1931)

Percentage of unemployment greater than the average in: wood, furniture, etc., mining, quarrying, etc., building, engineering, metal work, etc.

Belgium (September 1931)

Percentage of wholly unemployed greater than the average in: wood, including furniture, building, pottery, metals, and transport.

Percentage of intermittently unemployed greater than the average in: transport, leather, skins, glass, paper, textiles, chemicals, and metals.

Great Britain and Northern Ireland (December 1931)

Percentage of unemployed greater than the average in: shipbuilding and repairing, steel melting and iron puddling, iron and steel rolling and forging, shipping service, building, cotton trade, general engineering, engineers' iron and steel founding, coal mining, entertainments, sports, and motor vehicles, cycles and aircraft.

Netherlands (September 1931)

Percentage of unemployed greater than the average in: diamond working, metal industry and ship building, textiles and wood working, etc.

Sweden (September 1931)

Percentage of unemployed greater than the average among: stone industry workers, forestry, floating, saw mill and wood yard workers, foundry workers, mining workers, iron workers, construction workers, mechanical engineering workers, bricklayers and carpenters.

Switzerland (September 1931)

Percentage of wholly unemployed greater than the average in: watch making and textiles.

Percentage of partially unemployed greater than the average in: watch making, metals and textiles.

TABLE I. — STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

End of month		America			Asia	Europe								
		Canada		United States	Palestine	Germany				Austria	Belgium			
		Trade union returns			Official estimates	Trade union returns [1]		Unemployment insurance statistics	Employment exchange statistics [2]	Unemployment insurance statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics			
		Unemployed				Percentage unemployed					Unemployed			
											Wholly		Intermittently	
		Number	Per cent.	Per cent.	Number unemployed	Wholly	Partially	Unemployed in receipt of ordinary and extended benefit	Unemployed registered	Unemployed in receipt of benefit	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1925	VI	9,578	6.1	*	—	3.5	5.2	195,099	—	118,366	6,483	1.1	29,108	4.8
	XII	11,716	7.9	*	—	19.4	19.8	1,498,681	—	207,834	16,897	2.8	27,494	4.6
1926	VI	5,965	4.1	*	—	18.1	17.2	1,740,754	—	150,981	5,200	0.9	13,148	2.2
	XII	9,349	5.9	*	—	16.7	7.3	1,748,597	—	205,350	15,804	2.6	17,889	3.0
1927	VI	5,410	3.2	*	—	6.3	2.7	749,129	—	145,136	8,323	1.4	20,098	3.3
	XII	11,893	6.6	*	—	12.9	3.1	1,399,746	—	207,100	22,526	3.6	35,006	5.6
1928	VI	5,800	3.2	8.1	4,000	6.2	5.9	724,282	—	118,737	3,709	0.6	19,115	3.0
	XII	12,553	6.6	10.0	4,400	16.7	7.5	1,829,716	—	202,659	11,988	1.9	28,218	4.5
1929	VI	5,723	2.9	6.6	3,450	8.5	6.7	929,579	1,260,044	110,266	2,559	0.4	11,194	1.8
	XII	24,290	11.4	10.3	6,866	20.1	8.5	1,984,811	2,850,849	226,567	15,761	2.4	29,309	4.6
1930	VI	21,292	10.6	14.3	22,960	19.6	12.6	1,834,662	2,640,681	150,075	12,226	1.9	41,336	6.5
	XII	37,437	17.0	16.6	13,750	31.7	16.9	2,822,598	4,383,843	294,845	63,540	9.2	117,519	17.0
1931	VI	32,667	16.3	18.2	32,500	29.7	17.7	2,353,657	3,953,946	191,149	64,014	9.0	103,273	14.5
	XII	39,713	21.1	21.8	24,400	42.2	22.3	3,147,867	5,668,187	329,627	129,380	17.0	164,099	21.5
Total on which percentages for Dec. 1931 are based.		188,553		803,000	*	3,967,900		*		*	761,239			

(See notes on page 315.)

TABLE I. — STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES *(continued)*

End of month		Europe: Denmark		Danzig (Free City of)	Estonia [4]	Finland	France		Hungary [3]	Irish Free State [4]	Italy	
		Trade union funds returns		Employment exchange statistics			Employment exchange statistics		Trade union returns	Employment exchange statistics	Social insurance fund statistics	
		Unemployed		Unemployed registered							Unemployed	
		Number	Per cent.				Unemployed in receipt of relief	Applicants for work registered	Unemployed	Applicants for work registered	Wholly	Partially
1925	VI	24,135	9.1	*	1,771	1,155	626	10,125	34,015	27,196	85,532	6,944
	XII	85,944	31.7	*	3,213	2,176	645	9,902	27,984	31,721	122,200	8,870
1926	VI	42,993	15.6	*	1,051	924	384	7,916	27,048	22,432	82,264	6,650
	XII	88,854	32.2	*	3,807	2,172	17,178	21,517	22,332	23,791	181,493	10,216
1927	VI	49,405	18.0	*	1,907	1,130	21,934	23,720	13,110	18,735	214,603	103,792
	XII	87,116	31.6	*	4,437	2,152	13,221	26,292	11,468	(a) 21,817	414,283	107,964
1928	VI	36,917	13.5	8,416	883	811	1,659	10,370	13,861	(b) 21,967	247,021	30,296
	XII	77,558	28.4	13,081	7,770	2,868	895	7,916	15,187	(a) 22,092	363,551	27,178
1929	VI	27,398	10.0	8,876	1,110	1,157	394	7,885	14,708	(b) 18,918	193,325	10,970
	XII	62,563	22.4	16,198	6,055	8,517	817	11,244	20,288	(a) 20,720	408,748	21,349
1930	VI	25,191	8.7	14,975	910	3,553	1,019	10,168	19,789	19,146	322,291	21,887
	XII	73,363	25,1	24,429	6,497	9,335	11,952	22,879	25,583	26,167	642,169	21,788
1931	VI	34,030	11.3	19,855	931	6,320	36,237	51,354	24,411	21,427	573,593	24,206
	XII	91,204	32.2	32,956	9,055	16,144	147,009	177,294	33,146	30,918	982,321	32,949
Total on which percentages for Dec. 1931 are based.		300,674		*	*	*	*		*	*	*	

(*a*) XI; (*b*) V.

[1] Germany: From 1927 onward, including persons employed in mining.

[2] Persons in receipt of extended benefit included since 1929.

[3] Hungary: Data compiled by the Social-Democratic trade unions for the whole country, and by the Christian trade unions for Budapest.

[4] Irish Free State and Estonia: Beginning of following month.

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

SOURCE: The data are published regularly in the *International Labour Review*.

TABLE I. — STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES *(continued)*

End of month	Europe											
	Latvia	Norway			Netherlands (*a*)		Poland [1]	Rumania	Great Britain and Northern Ireland [2]			
	Employment exchange statistics	Trade union funds returns		Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Employment exchange statistics	Unemployment insurance statistics			
		Unemployed			Unemployed				Wholly unemployed (including casuals)		Unemployed owing to temporary stoppages	
	Applicants for work registered	Number	Per cent.	Applicants for work registered	Number	Per cent.	Unemployed registered	Unemployed registered	Number	Per cent.	Number	Per cent.
1925 VI	1,169	3,256	8.9	9,963	18,243	6.6	171,650	*	*	*	*	*
XII	5,097	9,363	26.1	26,276	44,660	16.0	311,090	*	*	*	*	*
1926 VI	936	7,751	22.1	19,300	16,983	5.9	243,302	*	1,082,656 [2]	7.1	668,477 [2]	5.6
XII	5,234	10,104	29.6	30,558	35,689	12.1	190,140	*	1,099,850	9.1	331,990	2.8
1927 VI	882	7,655	22.5	19,854	17,736	6.0	159,365		787,215	6.5	282,171	2.3
XII	6,399	9,285	28.0	28,532	44,848	14.9	165,258	13,824	935,696	7.7	258,609	2.1
1928 VI	1,223	4,925	14.4	16,747	14,302	4.4	116,719	9,014	917,726	7.7	355,634	3.0
XII	14,030	7,812	22.1	24,223	38,116	11.5	126,429	72,144	1,083,207	9.0	250,404	2.1
1929 VI	1,236	4,337	11.3	14,547	9,987	2.6	105,065	5,849	884,549	7.3	279,108	2.3
XII	8,134	7,693	18.9	22,092	48,609	12.3	185,314	6,866	1,071,849	8.9	272,371	2.2
1930 VI	779	4,700	10.8	13,939	23,678	5.5	204,982	22,982	1,341,818	10.8	569,931	4.9
XII	10,022	11,265	25.5	27,157	81,204	18.2	299,797	36,212	1,853,575	14.9	646,205	5.2
1931 VI	1,584	*	*	22,736	59,573	11.7	274,942	27,869	2,037,480	16.0	669,315	5.2
XII	21,935	12,633	27.2	34,789	147,107	27.8	312,487	49,393	2,262,700	17.7	408,117	3.2
Total on which percentages for Dec. 1931 are based.	*	46,461		*	529,697		*	*	12,770,000 [3]			

(See notes on page 317.)

TABLE I. — STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL LEVEL OF UNEMPLOYMENT IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES *(concluded)*

End of month		Europe									Oceania		
		Saar Territory	Sweden		Switzerland		Czechoslovakia			Yugoslavia	Australia [4]		New Zealand [5]
		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns		Unemployment insurance statistics		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union funds returns		Employment exchange statistics	Trade union returns		Employment exchange statistics
			Unemployed		Percentage unemployed			Unemployed in receipt of benefit.			Unemployed		
		Unemployed registered	Number	Per cent.	Wholly	Partially	Applicants for work registered	Number	Per cent.	Unemployed registered	Number	Per cent.	Applicants for work registered
1925	VI	*	19,000	8.2	*	*	40,200	6,086	0.6	*	36,490	10.2	528
	XII	*	45,900	19.5	*	*	48,384	17,196	1.6	*	34,287	8.1	344
1926	VI	*	23,800	9.6	2.4	3.7	69,372	40,034	3.4	*	24,920	6.7	2,092
	XII	*	47,950	19.1	5.6	4.6	71,237	29,295	2.5	*	25,351	5.7	1,086
1927	VI	2,150	24,999	9.4	1.6	1.7	45,460	13,833	1.3	*	29,217	6.4	2,408
	XII	4,466	50,655	18.6	4.5	1.7	45,571	14,334	1.3	*	38,641	8.9	1,575
1928	VI	2,987	21,257	7.6	1.2	0.8	32,701	13,468	1.2	5,696	46,656	11.2	3,317
	XII	7,601	49,633	17.3	4.0	1.4	39,400	19,698	1.7	5,832	42,637	9.9	1,476
1929	VI	3,762	21,764	7.3	0.7	1.0	34,434	19,436	1.9	9,017	40,996	10.0	3,662
	XII	10,515	53,977	16.9	4.2	3.3	52,809	30,170	2.8	5,663	56,801	13.1	1,242
1930	VI	6,330	28,956	8.3	1.7	5.7	73,464	37,853	3.4	6,991	80,595	18.5	5,067
	XII	15,245	82,655	23.3	6.6	10.4	239,564	85,374	7.5	9,989	104,951	23.4	7,596
1931	VI	15,413	45,839	12.9	3.6	9.7	220,038	82,534	6.6	6,182	118,424	27.6	45,264 [6]
	XII	35,045	110,149	27.1	10.1	14.9	486,363	146,325	11.3	14,502	118,732	28.0	47,096
Total on which percentages for Dec. 1931 are based		*	404,983		411,606		1,298,481			*	423,493		*

(*a*) Weekly averages.
[1] Poland: from 1926 onward, only the unemployed persons registered by the public employment exchanges.
[2] Great Britain and Northern Ireland: excluding miners.
[3] July 1931.
[4] Australia: trade unionists who have been unemployed 3 days or more during the week.
[5] New Zealand: Including those employed on public relief works.
[6] Since 1931, new series.
The sign * signifies: " no figures published ". The sign — signifies: " figures not yet received ".

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *

Australia

Trade Union Statistics: Membership of Unions Reporting and Percentages Unemployed

Date	B	C	E	F	G	I	L	M	
	Mining, quarrying, etc.	Engineering, metal works, etc.	Building	Wood, furniture, etc.	Books, printing, etc.	Clothing, hats, boots, etc.	Food, drink, tobacco, etc.	Land transport other than railway and tramway services	All unions reporting [1]
1927: 2nd qr.	11.0	4.3	6.7	3.2	1.6	2.2	8.9	4.9	6.4
4th qr.	18.6	8.7	10.0	6.3	2.2	6.4	8.3	6.1	8.9
1928: 2nd qr.	17.4	12.5	12.6	9.3	2.6	11.6	10.0	7.1	11.2
4th qr.	17.1	12.9	8.7	9.9	2.4	7.4	7.2	7.2	9.9
1929: 2nd qr.	12.0	9.4	8.8	13.6	3.2	10.2	11.4	8.4	10.0
4th qr.	8.6	15.4	14.3	15.5	3.3	10.0	12.8	9.0	13.1
1930: 2nd qr.	12.2	20.5	23.3	25.2	6.8	16.7	14.2	14.6	18.5
4th qr.	28.8	25.2	27.9	29.4	10.1	22.5	16.8	18.5	23.4
1931: 1st qr.	32.4	27.7	30.4	31.1	12.6	25.9	17.4	21.9	25.8
2nd qr.	32.7	30.2	32.6	33.3	14.4	26.7	20.7	24.0	27.6
3rd qr.	33.7	31.2	33.5	34.0	15.0	27.4	20.5	25.5	28.3
4th qr.	33.6	31.2	36.0	34.8	15.0	23.7	20.8	25.2	28.0
Membership of unions reporting (average 1930)	22,981	81,093	54,736	16,397	20,183	39,638	36,922	16,315	423,493 [2]

[1] Including unions of workers in other manufacturing, railway and tramway service, shipping, agriculture, domestic service, hotels, etc.
[2] 4th quarter, 1931.

Belgium

Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Membership of Funds Reporting and Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Intermittently (Int.) Unemployed

Date	B				C		D				E	
	Mining		Quarrying		Metals		Pottery, etc.		Glass		Building and construction	
	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.
1927: June	0.0	3.0	1.7	1.4	1.3	3.3	0.2	0.6	3.3	0.9	1.8	0.9
Dec.	0.2	9.8	3.6	12.2	1.6	2.6	19.8	9.4	0.9	0.9	23.7	8.4
1928: June	0.1	0.3	0.8	0.5	0.3	1.3	0.1	0.3	3.1	2.8	0.4	0.3
Dec.	0.0	2.6	0.9	2.6	0.8	2.2	5.7	8.0	2.2	0.3	15.0	3.9
1929: June	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.8	0.0	0.0	2.6	0.2	0.1	0.0
Dec.	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.1	3.8	1.6	4.9	15.2	2.7	5.5	2.5
1930: June	0.3	0.5	0.3	2.0	2.0	5.2	2.1	2.9	9.6	1.2	2.8	0.5
Dec.	0.4	6.2	7.3	28.4	7.1	18.0	27.5	12.4	10.5	13.6	19.5	3.7
1931: March	0.5	4.3	7.0	15.8	10.6	22.4	28.4	17.1	12.9	19.6	25.1	5.7
June	0.3	2.9	4.8	13.3	10.3	21.1	12.5	14.4	8.4	32.7	11.5	2.8
Sept.	1.4	13.4	10.0	11.9	12.0	21.2	12.5	13.3	7.5	26.7	12.5	3.7
Dec.	2.9	27.2	18.8	21.4	16.5	26.1	29.9	15.6	11.2	3.1	28.3	5.9
Membership of funds reporting (Dec. 1931)	63,353		25,411		168,983		14,684		15,888		68,724	

* The signification of the letters A, B, C, etc., at the head of columns in tables II and III is given on page 331.

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Belgium *(continued)*

Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Membership of Funds Reporting and Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Intermittently (Int.) Unemployed

Date	F		G				H		I		J	
	Wood (incl. furniture)		Paper		Printing		Textiles		Clothing		Leather and skins	
	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.
1927: June	2.0	1.0	0.0	2.2	5.1	3.5	0.4	3.2	1.3	3.1	5.8	6.9
Dec.	6.1	1.3	0.2	4.1	2.9	0.9	1.1	6.0	4.5	2.8	1.4	5.8
1928: June	0.8	0.7	0.1	2.0	1.8	2.7	0.5	7.3	0.7	2.2	0.7	10.0
Dec.	1.9	1.9	0.2	5.1	0.9	0.2	0.8	8.5	1.2	7.1	1.0	10.5
1929: June	0.4	0.3	0.0	1.4	0.5	1.3	0.4	3.4	0.4	2.9	0.2	9.8
Dec.	2.2	1.4	0.1	5.1	1.1	0.2	1.8	8.6	3.7	5.2	1.5	9.7
1930: June	2.6	2.1	0.4	4.3	0.9	0.7	1.4	14.4	1.9	1.7	1.7	14.0
Dec.	17.6	9.6	2.1	26.0	2.4	2.2	6.7	32.2	10.0	14.4	6.3	26.3
1931: March	19.3	5.4	5.8	15.9	4.0	3.3	7.7	30.8	4.2	6.6	5.2	28.0
June	12.9	5.4	2.7	17.6	6.4	2.6	7.0	18.9	5.0	5.0	5.5	2.6
Sept.	15.6	8.2	2.5	25.7	9.1	2.3	9.0	23.6	6.4	7.9	6.5	29.1
Dec.	23.6	12.4	4.2	42.6	8.3	2.9	17.4	30.5	16.0	17.4	15.7	30.7
Membership of funds reporting (Dec. 1931)	38,759		4,319		13,969		177,605		6,490		15,713	

Date	K		L				M		All funds reporting [1]	
	Chemicals		Food		Tobacco		Transport			
	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.	Wh.	Int.
1927: June	8.6	24.6	0.7	1.6	1.7	7.5	0.8	15.4	1.4	3.3
Dec.	1.7	30.6	1.8	1.9	2.0	2.8	0.9	11.2	3.6	5.6
1928: June	1.0	7.9	0.4	0.6	2.8	8.9	0.3	10.6	0.6	3.0
Dec.	0.1	17.0	0.8	3.3	2.6	3.6	0.2	10.1	1.9	4.5
1929: June	0.0	6.9	0.4	0.4	0.8	1.4	0.0	11.4	0.4	1.8
Dec.	4.9	16.6	2.3	2.2	3.7	8.5	0.2	15.2	2.4	4.6
1930: June	0.6	9.2	0.7	1.9	7.7	4.5	1.1	31.6	1.9	6.5
Dec.	3.5	27.1	3.0	4.0	3.1	9.3	3.7	27.3	9.2	17.0
1931: March	5.8	12.5	4.1	4.8	7.3	22.2	7.4	34.9	11.3	17.7
June	10.1	20.7	4.1	4.5	6.5	1.8	12.2	36.2	9.0	14.5
Sept.	10.0	22.5	4.2	3.4	6.0	16.0	10.4	40.6	10.2	16.5
Dec.	8.2	6.9	5.4	8.2	7.1	18.1	21.5	34.9	17.0	21.5
Membership of funds reporting (Dec. 1931)	4,659		16,480		8,435		26,325		761,239	

[1] Including other trades.

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Denmark

Trade Union Fund Returns: Membership of Unemployment Funds Reporting and Percentages Unemployed

Date	A	C	D	E			F		G	
	Agricultural workers	Smiths and mechanicians	Potters	Masons	Carpenters	Painters	Wood workers	Joiners	Paper workers	Printers
1927 June	12.2	21.8	12.4	9.2	21.6	10.9	18.9	36.1	5.5	12.6
Dec.	29.3	28.2	41.9	78.4	56.4	59.4	46.5	47.4	4.7	14.0
1928: June	9.6	16.3	6.0	2.5	8.9	4.6	13.2	24.6	2.6	10.3
Dec.	24.8	22.6	41.7	52.9	44.6	58.9	54.1	37.5	3.2	13.0
1929: June	5.7	10.9	2.5	0.2	2.8	2.8	8.1	17.9	3.3	11.3
Dec.	18.3	16.4	33.1	33.0	33.9	49.1	45.5	30.1	2.5	12.2
1930: March	28.5	10.8	2.7	14.8	16.3	11.2	9.5	15.0	1.4	11.3
June	3.8	8.3	1.7	0.5	1.6	1.9	7.6	13.0	0.8	9.2
Sept.	4.6	11.8	3.4	0.7	3.0	4.0	8.0	6.1	0.9	9.3
Dec.	21.5	24.0	41.5	42.2	33.3	48.4	57.1	28.8	3.4	10.9
1931: March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Membership of funds reporting (average 1930)	11,867	28,329	1,395	8,008	7,405	5,616	4,076	8,484	1,452	5,807

Date	H	I		L		N	S	All funds reporting [1]
	Textile workers	Tailors	Shoemakers	Bakers and confectioners	Tobacco workers	Seamen	Commercial workers	
1927: June	20.4	14.8	30.8	25.4	22.9	18.0	13.0	18.0
Dec.	22.4	28.5	25.5	30.1	45.6	22.4	12.8	31.6
1928: June	17.4	12.3	31.8	25.5	21.3	13.5	11.1	13.5
Dec.	26.3	19.2	29.8	28.6	68.1	17.1	9.6	28.4
1929: June	7.4	6.9	24.1	24.7	9.4	10.1	9.7	10.0
Dec.	24.8	13.8	24.1	27.0	41.0	14.1	8.2	22.4
1930: March	9.1	8.5	15.7	27.3	9.6	11.6	8.9	15.3
June	9.6	7.0	18.5	22.2	11.0	11.8	7.2	8.7
Sept.	8.8	5.4	6.7	21.0	8.6	16.1	6.9	9.0
Dec.	28.8	19.6	39.9	27.9	27.8	22.2	6.8	25.1
1931: March	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
June	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sept.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dec.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Membership of funds reporting (average 1930)	10,071	9,575	4,163	4,120	7,704	3,537	11,696	288,939

[1] Including general labourers and other occupations.

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Germany

Trade Union Returns: Membership of Unions Reporting and Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed

Date	B		B, D		C		E		F		G			
	Mining		Stone and earth		Engineering and metal working		Building		Wood		Paper		Printing, etc.	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927: June	1.4	5.5	4.2	1.1	8.0	2.8	5.3	0.1	10.8	3.7	6.8	8.4	3.2	0.7
Dec.	2.3	4.3	17.6	3.3	5.1	2.1	49.0	0.2	10.4	3.1	5.3	5.5	3.5	0.4
1928: June	1.3	4.6	5.4	2.0	4.8	3.9	8.0	0.0	10.1	5.0	4.4	5.2	3.8	0.5
Dec.	2.0	8.2	25.6	6.7	8.4	7.4	50.6	1.3	17.2	6.3	6.3	5.9	6.7	0.6
1929: June	1.4	1.7	7.3	3.9	7.2	7.4	10.4	0.0	15.0	6.6	8.8	10.6	7.9	0.8
Dec.	2.9	1.7	34.3	6.5	12.7	12.5	52.8	2.5	23.9	7.6	10.6	8.5	12.0	1.7
1930: June	6.4	19.9	24.8	10.1	17.5	19.5	38.0	0.2	30.4	14.0	15.2	19.1	14.3	3.0
Dec.	9.9	24.7	51.7	12.3	26.8	25.8	65.4	1.4	45.4	13.5	20.2	21.5	21.6	6.0
1931: March	13.4	29.8	51.4	11.6	29.3	27.0	73.9	0.5	48.5	12.9	22.2	28.5	22.2	6.9
June	13.4	26.2	40.8	11.5	28.7	25.7	56.6	0.4	46.9	10.9	22.7	22.6	23.5	7.6
Sept.	14.1	31.9	50.3	13.6	33.7	29.6	68.7	0.4	50.0	11.9	26.9	33.4	30.8	17.1
Dec.	16.5	32.3	65.1	12.6	39.5	30.7	85.4	0.6	61.5	10.1	30.7	31.4	33.0	16.9
Membership of unions reporting (Dec. 1931)	153,900		188,700		901,700		584,300		270,500		103,000		149,200	

Date	H		I		J		K		L		M		All unions reporting [3]	
	Textiles		Clothing [1]		Leather [1]		Chemicals		Food, drink, tobacco		Transport [2]			
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927: June	3.0	2.3	12.9	5.3	9.8	6.1	7.4	2.4	8.0	4.9	6.9	3.9	6.3	2.7
Dec.	2.7	4.8	18.3	11.9	10.1	17.9	8.3	3.0	8.1	4.1	5.5	1.5	12.9	3.1
1928: June	6.7	23.3	16.2	31.6	12.5	19.8	4.8	4.1	6.5	4.3	4.3	0.9	6.2	5.9
Dec.	7.8	25.1	24.5	27.3	15.0	19.3	7.6	4.2	11.4	6.0	5.2	1.1	16.7	7.5
1929: June	9.8	26.9	18.6	21.5	17.3	15.2	5.7	2.4	9.3	7.3	5.5	0.6	8.5	6.7
Dec.	11.6	23.2	23.7	24.3	20.8	14.7	12.1	8.4	12.9	6.6	6.2	0.7	20.1	8.5
1930: June	14.3	33.8	23.6	23.8	26.5	18.1	14.0	12.1	13.3	10.5	*	*	19.6	12.6
Dec.	20.3	43.3	35.4	39.4	33.2	24.7	21.6	19.8	26.3	14.6	*	*	31.7	16.9
1931: March	21.6	39.8	29.0	30.5	34.4	22.9	23.2	22.2	24.1	19.0	*	*	33.6	18.9
June	20.6	35.3	33.0	33.8	35.0	23.6	21.7	20.8	18.1	15.4	*	*	29.7	17.7
Sept.	23.8	42.4	33.3	30.8	37.0	26.4	25.9	34.4	23.7	33.1	*	*	35.0	22.1
Dec.	26.9	38.5	41.4	35.8	42.2	19.8	31.9	38.1	31.1	31.7	*	*	42.2	22.3
Membership of unions reporting (Dec. 1931)	310,600		141,900		51,600		100,400		260,800		*		3,967,900	

[1] Since June 1928, the shoemakers' union, and since January 1931 the Christian leather workers' union (which organises mainly shoemakers), are included under "Clothing" instead of "Leather".
[2] Since January 1930 transport workers are included under "Other trades".
[3] Including hairdressers, machinists and stokers, transport workers, workers on public works, and other factory workers and labourers (not included in any other group).

TABLE II. STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland

Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Number of Persons Insured and Percentages Unemployed

Date	B	C				D	E	F	G	
	Coal mining	Steel smelting and iron puddling, iron and steel rolling and forging	General engineering, engineers' iron and steel founding	Motor vehicles, cycles and aircraft (construction and repair)	Ship building and repairing	Brick, tile, etc., making	Building	Furniture making, upholstering, etc.	Paper, paper board	Printing, publishing, bookbinding
1927: June	19.0	16.8	9.4	5.7	22.9	5.2	6.9	4.7	6.3	4.6
Dec.	17.3	22.7	9.4	6.9	21.5	11.7	16.0	3.9	4.4	3.9
1928: June	25.7	20.5	9.5	7.9	26.5	10.1	10.0	5.5	3.9	3.8
Dec.	19.1	19.8	9.8	6.5	30.3	13.3	15.2	4.8	3.8	4.1
1929: June	19.0	19.3	8.8	6.1	22.5	8.6	8.5	5.8	4.1	3.9
Dec.	14.6	22.0	10.3	7.3	23.3	12.1	16.9	5.3	4.3	4.4
1930: June	23.9	29.8	15.7	13.1	30.7	12.0	12.7	10.0	9.1	5.9
Dec.	19.7	50.6	24.7	16.2	45.1	18.3	22.7	13.3	13.8	8.2
1931: March	27.4	45.8	26.6	18.2	52.6	19.4	22.5	18.3	13.5	10.1
June	36.2	48.2	28.4	21.2	56.6	15.8	18.1	16.9	14.4	9.7
Sept.	30.4	49.2	30.1	23.6	58.2	17.7	21.0	17.8	17.4	10.4
Dec.	24.6	45.4	26.8	22.2	60.1	20.1	28.6	16.9	10.0	10.8
Number of persons insured (July 1931)	1,046,870	169,350	576,380	251,320	195,390	87,620	858,170	132,020	57,090	278,970

Date	H	I		J	K	L	M		N
	Cotton trade	Tailoring	Boots, shoes, slippers, clogs	Leather: tanning currying, dressing	Chemicals	Bread, biscuits, cakes, etc.	Railway service[1]	Tramways and omnibus	Shipping service[1]
1927: June	7.0	3.1	6.5	7.4	6.4	6.0	4.2	2.8	14.8
Dec.	10.0	8.8	6.6	5.5	5.8	5.9	5.3	3.2	17.3
1928: June	12.9	4.3	14.1	6.5	6.2	6.4	4.9	2.7	14.9
Dec.	11.1	11.2	16.1	10.0	6.2	7.2	7.9	3.5	18.8
1929: June	13.7	4.4	13.5	9.7	6.1	6.3	4.6	2.4	15.3
Dec.	14.4	11.1	11.5	11.4	6.9	7.6	6.3	3.7	20.5
1930: June	41.5	7.4	16.9	13.6	11.8	9.1	6.3	3.4	21.5
Dec.	47.4	16.8	25.6	16.4	17.9	11.7	11.7	5.2	33.0
1931: March	36.5	12.4	19.2	19.6	17.5	13.2	12.5	5.6	34.4
June	40.4	10.9	20.1	18.9	18.8	11.9	10.8	4.6	29.6
Sept.	45.8	19.7	19.6	17.6	18.8	12.6	11.8	4.9	32.5
Dec.	27.4	17.5	19.5	15.8	18.3	12.7	13.6	6.2	34.7
Number of persons insured (July 1931)	550,110	213,020	137,840	41,630	98,940	155,760	140,020	173,860	161,430

[1] Mostly non-permanent staff.

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Great Britain and Northern Ireland *(continued)*

Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Number of Persons Insured and Percentages Unemployed

Date	O	R	S		T	U	V	All trades [1]
	Gas, water, electricity supply	Local Government	Commerce, banking, insurance, finance	Distributive trades	Hotel, etc., boarding house, club services	Entertainments, sports	Professional services	
1927: June	4.5	6.6	2.2	4.7	6.0	8.7	2.4	8.9
Dec.	5.4	9.1	2.3	4.8	8.9	9.3	2.5	9.8
1928: June	5.7	7.7	2.1	5.2	6.1	9.3	2.4	10.8
Dec.	6.1	10.4	2.5	5.8	10.8	10.8	2.9	11.2
1929: June	5.6	7.5	2.5	5.5	6.5	10.3	2.9	9.6
Dec.	6.5	11.1	2.8	6.4	11.9	13.5	3.4	11.1
1930: June	7.0	9.5	3.5	8.1	11.3	16.0	3.9	15.4
Dec.	8.6	13.4	4.4	9.8	18.2	20.7	4.9	20.2
1931: March	9.0	14.7	5.2	12.2	19.6	23.8	5.7	21.5
June	8.4	12.1	5.4	10.8	15.3	20.6	5.2	21.2
Sept.	9.1	14.4	5.7	12.2	17.6	21.2	5.9	22.6
Dec.	9.9	17.7	6.2	12.1	20.9	22.5	6.2	20.9
Number of persons insured (July 1931)	173,870	331,920	235,650	1,874,780	384,290	92,610	133,150	12,770,000

[1] This column relates to all trades insured; the rest of the table relates to selected trades only.

Netherlands

Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Membership of Funds Reporting and Percentages Unemployed [1]

Date	A	B	C	D		E	F	G
	Agriculture	Coal mining	Metal industry, shipbuilding	Pottery	Diamond working	Building and construction	Woodworking, etc.	Printing etc.
1927: June	2.5	0.1	6.1	0.6	34.2	8.5	5.5	6.3
Dec.	30.5	0.6	7.1	26.6	10.0	40.0	12.0	4.9
1928: June	2.1	0.1	3.9	1.3	30.3	7.0	4.2	4.6
Dec.	22.1	0.4	4.4	29.2	14.1	27.2	8.4	3.8
1929: June	1.6	0.02	2.7	0.04	19.5	2.1	3.2	3.2
Dec.	20.7	0.1	3.9	21.0	88.5	24.5	8.0	2.6
1930: June	2.2	0.3	6.6	1.1	65.7	6.2	4.2	2.9
Dec.	26.9	0.3	16.9	36.3	78.6	30.2	19.5	3.6
1931: March	38.5	0.4	23.7	30.1	81.0	29.9	17.8	4.5
June	2.5	0.2	22.5	1.6	86.6	9.2	13.9	4.8
Sept.	— [2]	0.6	25.9	— [2]	85.0	15.0	20.9	7.4
Dec.	34.7	14.2	35.6	34.9	84.5	39.1	35.6	8.4
Membership of funds reporting (Dec. 1931)	56,890	16,160	78,337	9,067	5,864	76,732	16,818	21,142

[1] Including a certain number of trade union members not insured in the unemployment funds.
[2] Data incomplete.

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Netherlands *(continued)*

Voluntary Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Membership of Funds Reporting and Percentages Unemployed [1]

Date	H	I	J	L	M, N	S	All funds reporting[2]
	Textiles	Clothing	Leather	Food, drink, tobacco	Transport	Commerce	
1927: June	2.2	6.5	5.4	10.4	2.5	5.0	6.0
Dec.	1.6	14.7	3.1	7.3	13.0	4.5	14.9
1928: June	1.9	6.7	2.4	6.1	2.2	3.8	4.4
Dec.	3.0	17.4	3.3	6.7	11.3	3.4	11.5
1929: June	2.6	6.2	2.2	4.2	1.4	3.4	2.6
Dec.	5.1	11.2	3.0	4.0	11.2	3.4	12.3
1930: June	10.0	8.1	2.1	5.2	2.0	3.1	5.5
Dec.	16.5	18.4	10.2	9.1	12.6	3.7	18.2
1931: March	21.7	9.3	9.9	12.6	24.3	4.0	21.8
June	21.0	7.2	12.2	9.9	10.2	4.4	11.7
Sept.	21.1	12.2	15.3	7.2	13.0	5.3	15.7
Dec.	26.9	25.2	30.4	13.2	24.1	5.9	27.8
Membership of funds reporting (Dec. 1931)	36,019	7,610	4,910	30,666	67,589	37,070	529,697

[1] Including a certain number of trade union members not insured in the unemployment funds. [2] Other unions than those specified in the table, e.g. those of fishermen, musicians, general workers, etc., are included in the totals.

Sweden

Trade Union Returns: Membership of Unions Reporting and Percentages Unemployed

Date	B	C			D		E		
	Mining workers	Metal workers		Foundry workers	Stone industry workers	Carpenters	Bricklayers	Painters	Construction workers
		Iron	Mechanical engineering						
1927: June	10.5	9.1	8.9	9.2	5.9	15.6	4.7	6.2	16.0
Dec.	21.4	16.8	11.0	9.2	23.6	42.3	64.9	38.1	42.1
1928: June	14.5	5.7	5.7	3.8	3.9	13.2	2.3	4.1	15.6
Dec.	18.0	10.9	8.9	3.5	22.7	37.1	49.5	50.8	33.1
1929: June	10.4	4.1	5.1	2.2	3.3	11.8	1.6	6.2	10.2
Dec.	18.5	8.3	6.9	3.1	8.7	33.2	39.2	46.2	17.6
1930: June	11.9	5.3	6.2	4.0	7.9	14.2	4.2	10.6	15.3
Dec.	24.1	32.8	16.7	20.4	44.9	39.4	50.4	56.3	39.7
1931: March	21.5	20.5	17.0	15.2	39.6	40.8	29.5	40.1	38.9
June	21.1	12.9	13.4	14.8	38.1	20.8	5.9	12.1	20.9
Sept.	19.6	19.5	14.6	19.7	47.7	14.2	19.6	1.7	18.8
Dec.	38.2	25.8	25.5	23.5	51.0	47.0	53.7	61.1	49.8
Membership of unions reporting (Dec. 1931)	2,610	19,336	77,404	5,814	5,666	16,417	6,105	9,383	2,667

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Sweden *(continued)*

Trade Union Returns: Membership of Unions Reporting and Percentages Unemployed

Date	F		G		H	I, J	
	Forestry, floating, sawmill, and wood-yard workers	Wood workers	Paper workers	Printers	Textile workers	Clothing workers	Shoe and leather workers
1927: June	19.0	13.0	4.2	4.3	3.4	6.9	6.4
Dec.	52.9	11.3	7.6	6.2	2.3	19.6	6.1
1928: June	16.5	9.6	3.6	2.7	2.9	4.0	6.6
Dec.	53.3	11.0	7.1	5.2	2.8	26.4	11.1
1929: June	14.0	7.7	3.6	2.3	4.5	4.1	7.8
Dec.	57.7	12.0	7.7	6.3	2.8	37.8	5.9
1930: June	21.4	6.5	5.1	2.4	3.4	2.3	4.2
Dec.	64.4	14.8	11.5	4.5	4.1	27.7	5.2
1931: March	41.1	14.4	20.4	5.0	3.8	6.6	7.5
June	23.1	14.0	9.7	3.3	4.1	4.3	6.6
Sept.	32.5	11.8	10.0	5.3	4.4	6.2	5.7
Dec.	66.2	23.4	15.8	8.2	3.7	29.3	8.8
Membership of unions reporting (Dec. 1931)	26,303	11,915	26,809	9,183	22,190	13,576	10,223

Date	L			M, N	O, Q, R	S	All unions reporting[1]
	Food workers	Tobacco workers	Brewery workers	Transport workers	Municipal workers	Workers employed in commerce	
1927: June	10.4	5.4	2.9	10.5	2.9	7.8	9.4
Dec.	19.6	7.7	5.2	12.8	8.5	7.5	18.6
1928: June	9.8	6.9	2.9	10.8	2.2	5.5	7.6
Dec.	20.0	5.9	5.5	13.7	8.4	7.4	17.3
1929: June	7.7	4.5	2.9	8.9	1.4	7.0	7.3
Dec.	20.1	1.2	4.9	11.8	7.6	7.4	16.9
1930: June	7.5	0.7	2.2	11.1	2.2	6.1	8.3
Dec.	20.3	0.5	5.0	16.1	8.3	8.3	23.3
1931: March	11.7	0.5	6.0	15.3	6.2	8.5	19.6
June	7.4	2.7	3.3	10.8	1.6	7.5	12.9
Sept.	9.1	1.8	4.7	8.1	2.4	6.8	14.0
Dec.	19.0	2.2	6.3	11.4	9.3	10.0	27.1
Membership of unions reporting (Dec. 1931)	11,123	2,532	4,729	7,122	25,980	20,511	404.983

[1] Including unions of bookbinders, forestry and timber-floating workers, electricians, furriers, lithographers, other metal workers, etc.

TABLE II. — STATISTICS OF UNEMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(concluded)*

Switzerland

Voluntary and Compulsory Unemployment Insurance Statistics: Number of Persons Insured and Percentages of Wholly (Wh.) and Partially (Ptl.) Unemployed

Date	C				E, F		G	
	Metal workers		Watch, etc., makers		Building and wood workers		Printing, etc., workers	
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927: June	1.0[1]	1.9[1]	*	*	1.8	0.2	3.2	0.1
Dec.	2.4	0.9	1.1	3.4	15.8	1.1	3.5	0.1
1928: June	0.3	0.1	0.4	1.0	1.2	0.0	2.2	0.0
Dec.	1.7	0.2	1.0	3.3	14.4	0.2	2.4	0.0
1929: June	0.2	0.0	0.2	1.1	0.6	0.0	1.5	0.1
Dec.	2.0	0.7	2.5	18.4	13.0	0.2	2.4	0.0
1930: June	0.8	2.3	5.3	37.4	1.1	0.2	2.0	0.0
Dec.	4.6	12.0	11.5	54.6	15.9	1.8	2.5	0.3
1931: March	4.3	14.5	17.0	61.3	8.1	1.0	2.0	0.7
June	1.7	12.5	16.5	56.8	1.5	0.2	2.8	0.6
Sept.	2.0	18.3	18.7	52.2	1.8	0.5	3.6	0.6
Dec.	8.1	22.1	22.5	55.5	22.9	2.7	4.4	0.7
Number of persons insured (December 1931)	*		*		*		*	

[1] Including watch, etc., makers.

Date	H		I, J		S		All trades [1]	
	Textile workers		Clothing and leather workers		Commercial employees			
	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.	Wh.	Ptl.
1927: June	3.4	5.0	0.1	0.0	1.1	0.0	1.6	1.7
Dec.	4.1	3.9	0.2	0.2	1.1	0.0	4.5	1.7
1928: June	3.1	1.8	0.7	0.5	0.9	0.0	1.2	0.8
Dec.	4.6	3.1	0.5	1.4	0.9	0.0	4.0	1.4
1929: June	2.0	3.8	0.4	3.1	0.7	0.0	0.7	1.0
Dec.	3.5	9.8	0.8	0.3	0.7	0.0	4.2	3.3
1930: June	2.7	10.2	0.2	0.1	0.9	0.0	1.7	5.7
Dec.	5.5	13.6	0.4	4.6	2.2	0.1	6.6	10.4
1931: March	5.1	17.3	1.1	17.2	2.5	0.4	5.7	12.6
June	2.8	12.3	1.1	8.8	2.7	0.3	3.6	9.7
Sept.	4.3	14.7	1.1	2.9	3.1	0.3	4.0	11.2
Dec.	8.4	21.4	2.4	28.8	8.5	0.6	10.1	14.9
Number of persons insured (December 1931)	*		*		*		411,606	

[1] Including other trades.

TABLE III. — STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES

Canada

Employers' Returns: Number of Persons Employed and Index Numbers of Employment
(1926 = 100)

Date [1]	B	C			D	E	F	
	Mining	Iron and steel products	Electrical apparatus	Non-ferrous metal products	Clay, glass, and stone products	Construction and maintenance	Lumber and products (incl. furniture)	Logging
1927: Jan.	104.7	94.2	108.3	100.7	93.3	73.1	77.4	136.1
July	106.6	103.0	106.5	114.4	112.2	144.2	115.8	69.9
1928: Jan.	112.6	96.9	109.5	107.9	89.8	78.6	78.1	163.2
July	113.1	116.4	118.4	122.0	116.5	154.3	117.7	69.5
1929: Jan.	116.2	114.9	128.7	121.7	108.3	87.4	84.2	171.0
July	119.5	126.8	142.7	134.8	137.8	164.5	122.7	80.1
1930: Jan.	122.5	107.3	156.3	127.4	116.0	92.7	83.7	200.2
July .	113.8	109.5	156.1	127.6	137.1	170.1	105.4	82.1
1931: Jan.	114.4	88.7	143.5	112.7	95.2	110.7	66.8	107.6
April	108.1	100.3	136.3	119.7	96.9	96.8	73.0	42.9
July	104.1	85.8	133.3	114.2	112.9	137.1	83.7	38.5
Oct.	108.2	71.6	134.5	101.8	106.0	164.5	72.9	42.2
1932: Jan.	105.1	70.7	126.4	93.6	77.1	104.8	55.6	68.7
Number of persons employed (1 January 1932)	47,249	92,035	14,045	14,418	8,236	118,911	29,062	18,772

[1] Beginning of month. [2] October 1931.

Date [1]	G		H, I		J	K	L	
	Pulp and paper	Printing and publishing	Thread yarn, and cloth	Garments and personal furnishings	Leather and products	Chemicals and allied products	Animal products (edible)	Plant products (edible)
1927: Jan.	95.6	103.3	100.9	93.2	102.9	95.0	91.9	92.0
July	111.5	104.5	109.3	99.1	100.8	103.6	121.4	100.4
1928: Jan.	102.3	107.9	108.8	93.9	102.6	102.8	102.1	87.7
July	117.2	110.0	107.0	99.7	97.6	113.6	121.6	101.3
1929: Jan.	100.1	114.6	106.9	93.0	85.8	110.2	109.8	98.1
July	110.5	116.1	104.1	103.5	92.8	118.7	122.3	112.3
1930: Jan.	105.0	118.7	96.8	95.5	88.1	119.9	103.3	100.0
July	107.3	115.9	97.2	100.3	86.0	116.5	119.9	114.5
1931: Jan.	87.0	114.6	99.0	88.3	73.8	113.8	95.5	95.5
April	83.5	111.4	103.0	106.8	91.7	119.8	95.4	98.6
July	87.4	110.3	97.6	94.6	89.4	115.9	112.6	106.8
Oct.	86.6	109.7	95.3	95.4	93.0	113.9	102.8	116.5
1932: Jan.	76.1	107.7	97.4	81.4	78.7	110.6	95.1	94.7
Number of persons employed (1 January 1931)	54,082 [2]		75,105 [3]		15,680	7,898	16,691	27,087

[1] Beginning of month. [2] Including paper products. [3] Including other textile and clothing trades.

TABLE III. — STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

Canada *(continued)*

Employers' Returns: Number of Persons Employed and Index Numbers of Employment
(1926 = 100)

Date [1]	M	N	O	P	S	T	V	
	Steam railways	Shipping and stevedoring	Electric current	Telegraphs and telephones	Trade	Hotels and restaurants	Professional services	All industries [3]
1927: Jan.	102.0	85.6	97.6	99.6	109.9	93.0	96.0	95.9
July	105.3	117.7	111.5	106.0	106.0	116.1	107.4	109.7
1928: Jan.	103.2	72.7	107.8	102.0	120.4	99.0	107.8	100.7
July	110.0	98.0	120.8	108.7	115.3	133.5	119.2	117.7
1929: Jan.	103.5	83.4	114.1	112.6	128.5	114.9	113.6	109.1
July	113.1	126.0	137.0	123.8	127.7	154.8	126.6	124.7
1930: Jan.	99.9	81.5	123.8	128.2	133.8	123.3	115.0	111.2
July	104.1	108.2	133.1	119.7	129.5	150.8	128.9	118.9
1931: Jan.	95.2	73.3	124.7	110.6	132.9	122.2	121.6	101.7
April	91.2	79.8	121.4	103.3	123.1	118.2	125.2	99.7
July	91.8	96.1	127.7	104.8	124.0	133.7	125.8	103.8
Oct.	90.3	87.6	132.4	104.2	120.8	125.9	125.8	103.9
1932: Jan.	82.5	68.0	118.4	98.1	125.7	107.7	128.2	91.6
Number of persons employed (1 Jan. 1932)	65,805	11,785	14,455	25,462	89,915	21,266 [2]		835,960

[1] Beginning of month. [2] Including personal services (chiefly laundries). [3] Including mineral products, musical instruments, other textile products, fur and fur products, rubber products, non-edible plant products (tobacco, etc.) street railways and cartage, personal services, etc.

United States

Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment

A. *Manufacturing Industries (Federal Reserve Board)*

(Average 1923-1925 = 100)

Date	C					D	F	G	
	Iron and steel products	Machinery	Non-ferrous metal products	Automobiles	Shipbuilding	Cement, clay, and glass products	Lumber and products	Paper and pulp	Printing (book and job)
1929: Dec.	93.6	113.3	91.1	91.0	108.1	85.0	82.1	99.2	111.3
1930: June	90.0	99.5	80.3	86.5	108.5	77.1	71.6	97.4	108.0
Dec.	79.1	84.2	71.2	78.9	98.3	68.6	58.8	88.2	102.7
1931: March	76.6	79.3	66.6	70.2	86.1	65.2	55.7	85.2	98.7
June	72.6	73.4	65.4	70.7	90.6	64.4	54.4	84.1	96.5
Sept.	67.4	67.3	62.5	62.0	90.9	59.4	49.4	82.6	93.0
Dec.	65.4	64.5	61.1	68.8	87.9	55.0	45.4	80.7	90.9

TABLE III. — STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

United States *(continued)*

Employers' Returns: Index Numbers of Employment

A. *Manufacturing Industries (Federal Reserve Board)*

(Average 1923-1925 = 100)

Date	H	I		J		K	L		
	Textile fabrics	Wearing apparel (textile)	Boots and shoes	Leather	Rubber products	Chemicals and products	Food and products	Tobacco manufacture	All manufacturing industries [1]
1929: December	92.6	95.7	93.4	89.4	90.8	111.9	98.7	87.4	96.9
1930: June	84.4	88.7	89.9	85.1	88.0	105.7	95.8	89.7	89.7
December	76.4	80.1	77.3	74.0	74.7	97.9	90.8	83.5	80.1
1931: March	77.9	84.0	84.1	74.3	68.4	89.9	89.9	83.4	77.9
June	78.7	78.3	85.5	77.4	75.7	89.6	88.7	80.4	76.0
September	78.4	84.0	82.3	75.2	69.8	85.7	87.5	77.2	72.8
December	73.4	69.2	77.2	67.6	71.3	81.9	86.3	70.4	69.4

[1] Including certain other groups, i.e. paper box manufacture, printing (newspaper and periodicals), ca building and repairing, musical instrument making.

B. *Non-Manufacturing Industries (Department of Labour)*

(Monthly average 1929 = 100)

Date	B			M	O	P	S		T
	Bituminous coal mining	Quarrying and non-metallic mining	Crude petroleum producing	Steam railroads [1]	Power, light, water	Telegraph, telephone	Wholesale trade	Retail trade	Hotels
1929: June	94.7	106.6	—	96.1	100.7	101.5	99.2	97.4	99.3
December	101.3	90.1	—	88.8	102.5	101.8	102.6	126.2	97.7
1930: June	88.4	90.3	90.2	86.5	104.6	99.8	96.5	93.9	98.0
December	92.5	70.2	77.4	74.9	103.2	91.6	92.0	115.1	93.5
1931: March	88.8	70.0	72.2	72.9	96.7	88.6	87.4	87.8	96.8
June	78.4	72.3	65.0	72.8	97.2	86.9	87.1	89.1	91.6
September	80.4	66.6	61.2	69.3	94.7	85.0	86.1	86.6	90.6
December	81.2	53.9	58.2	—	90.3	83.1	83.7	106.2	84.1
Number of persons employed (December 1931)	198,538	23,998	15,926	1,239,118[2]	230,884	292,772	75,433	424,571	144,820

[1] Monthly average 1926 = 100. [2] September 1931.

TABLE III. — STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(continued)*

France

Returns of Labour Inspectors and Mining Engineers: Number of Persons Employed and Index Numbers of Employment

(Number employed in same month of preceding year = 100)

Date [1]	B	C		D	E	F	G, J		H
	Mining, quarrying	Iron and steel	Metal working (ordinary metals)	Pottery, etc.	Navvying, building construction in stone	Wood	Rubber, paper, cardboard	Printing (books)	Textiles
1931: January	98.5	95.2 [2]	—	94.9	98.7	89.5	94.0	99.5	96.0
April	97.5	93.5	91.0	92.9	100.8	87.0	92.5	98.0	95.1
July	89.9	91.0	89.9	91.6	100.2	88.3	92.4	99.7	93.3
October	81.2	88.0	87.0	88.4	95.8	86.7	90.2	98.7	90.5
1932: January	85.3	83.8	81.5	81.8	95.2	81.5	88.7	96.9	85.9
Number of persons employed (January 1932)	435	163,618	516,384	101,076	79,950	36,267	90,589	49,446	514,413

[1] Beginning of month. [2] Including metal working.

Date [1]	I	J	K	L	M, N	S		All trades [2]
	Clothing, etc.	Leather, skins	Chemicals	Food	Transport	Commerce	Banking, insurance	
1931: January	92.9	95.8	97.7	100.8	105.1	96.9	—	95.8
April	92.5	92.4	88.1	99.9	98.0	97.0	99.0	94.1
July	91.1	91.3	85.8	100.0	94.6	97.9	98.2	92.8
October	91.5	90.4	87.2	97.4	91.1	96.9	98.1	90.5
1932: January	88.2	89.0	85.3	91.1	84.6	93.8	98.7	86.6
Number of persons employed (January 1932)	76,781	58,950	109,827	83,784	7,394	137,555	93,262	2,459,371

[1] Beginning of month. [2] Including the working of straw, feathers, and horsehair, of fine metals, and of precious stones, stone cutting, and loading and unloading.

Italy

Employers' Returns: Number of Persons Employed and Index Numbers of Employment

(Sept. 1926 = 100)

Date	C					D	G	H	
	Metallurgy	Engineering shops (specialised)	Engineering shops (miscellaneous)	Shipbuilding	Automobiles	Cement	Paper	Silk spinning	Artificial silk
1928: June	86.2	87.3	93.8	89.5	81.6	91.5	98.3	29.4	122.9
December	89.5	93.1	101.0	88.6	88.2	90.1	99.1	87.5	129.3
1929: June	91.9	94.7	100.1	86.7	95.2	104.9	101.6	26.3	121.4
December	88.6	95.5	99.4	84.1	85.6	96.1	100.0	86.2	139.4
1930: June	86.2	95.1	91.0	85.7	80.6	93.9	96.4	38.3	127.7
December	81.6	93.8	86.0	91.9	68.6	79.7	95.5	87.3	107.8
1931: March	77.8	92.5	80.1	95.3	67.1	74.8	92.4	84.0	98.4
June	74.4	92.4	77.9	91.7	66.1	75.2	90.3	21.8	101.2
September	76.2	86.9	77.2	90.6	63.8	73.4	89.2	74.5	95.7
December	72.2	84.9	74.7	78.0	61.4	68.3	90.6	59.0	90.6
Number of persons employed (December 1931)	46,831	51,546	54,658	21,873	17,775	8,582	22,047	59,708	24,082

TABLE III. — STATISTICS OF EMPLOYMENT, BY INDUSTRIES *(concluded)*

Italy *(continued)*

Employers' Returns: Number of Persons Employed and Index Numbers of Employment
(Sept. 1926 = 100)

Date	H *(cont.)*		I	J		K	L	All trades [1]
	Cotton	Wool	Hosiery (stockings)	Tanning	Rubber	Superphosphates	Bakers and confectioners	
1928: June	91.0	96.8	108.2	98.2	102.5	68.1	97.7	86.3
December	93.1	101.0	112.9	104.3	107.1	80.3	104.2	95.8
1929: June	93.0	102.8	116.4	100.3	111.0	70.3	99.6	90.2
December	92.4	102.5	120.6	95.7	105.3	73.8	106.6	95.7
1930: June	78.5	98.8	92.9	90.4	100.9	67.9	96.3	83.7
December	74.2	91.8	102.3	91.7	97.4	60.3	100.8	84.9
1931: March	69.9	87.4	95.2	84.2	96.2	62.5	93.3	81.1
June	67.0	88.2	92.3	80.5	94.1	49.0	93.4	73.1
September	66.1	89.8	92.7	81.0	92.4	61.0	92.1	77.6
December	66.5	89.4	89.5	83.7	92.9	51.8	94.2	74.2
Number of persons employed (December 1931)	162,607	69,271	18,568	9,570	11,435	4,328	14,498	734,634

[1] Including silk weaving, linen, jute, etc., industries, knitted wear, hat manufacture, foundries (second smelting), railway shops, and electrical engineering.

Classification of Industries used in tables II and III.

A. Agriculture (including forestry, hunting, and fishing).
B. Mining (including quarries and oil wells).
C. Metal (metallurgy, mechanical and electrical engineering, construction and repair of vehicles, ships, etc.).
D. Brick, pottery, and glass.
E. Building and construction.
F. Wood (felling, floating, saw-milling, and woodwork, including furniture).
G. Paper and printing.
H. Textiles.
I. Clothing (including boots and shoes).
J. Skin, leather, and rubber.
K. Chemical industry.
L. Food, drink and tobacco.
M. Land transport (tramways, buses, taxi-cabs, road, and railways).
N. Navigation (shipping and by air).
O. Water, electricity, and gas supply.
P. Post, telegraph, and telephone.
Q. Other public services (street cleaning, police and fire departments, etc.).
R. Public administration (not mentioned above).
S. Commerce, banking, and insurance.
T. Personal services (hotels and restaurants, domestic service, laundries, etc.).
U. Entertainments.
V. Professional services and institutions.

The following countries publish an index of employment and not of unemployment:

Canada (October 1931) (1926 = 100)

Index number lower than the average in: logging, iron and steel products, lumber and wood products including furniture, pulp and paper, shipping and stevedoring, steam railways, leather and products, thread, yarn and clothing, garments and personal furnishings, and animal products (edible).

United States of America (September 1931) (1923-1925 = 100)

Index of employment lower than the average in: lumber and products, cement, clay and glass products, automobiles, non-ferrous metal products, machinery, iron and steel products, and rubber products.

France (October 1931) (October 1930 = 100)

Index of employment lower than the average in: mining and quarrying, wood, ordinary metals, chemicals, iron and steel, pottery, rubber, paper and cardboard, and leather and skins.

Italy (September 1931) (September 1926 = 100)

Index of employment lower than the average in: superphosphates, automobiles, cotton, cement, silk spinning, metallurgy, and miscellaneous engineering shops.

It is interesting to note that while certain industries are particularly depressed in one or two countries and not in others, other industries are depressed in a large proportion of the countries for which statistics are published. This is true of the metal industry, textiles, especially cotton, and wood work including all branches from wood cutting to the manufacture of furniture. Unemployment is also widespread in building, paper and cardboard, mining, general engineering and shipbuilding.

Insurance and Relief Measures

The severe economic and financial crisis of 1931 has naturally strained the resources of unemployment insurance schemes to the utmost. The growing unemployment of 1930 had already brought one scheme—that of Germany—into a critical situation and the expenditure which the State was called upon to bear for benefits threatened the financial stability of the whole national budget. Radical alterations had to be made in the scheme, involving an increase in contributions and a decrease in benefits. In 1931 it was the turn of the British scheme and, to some extent, of the Austrian scheme. In these countries unemployment was particularly severe, and in Great Britain, for instance, the Fund had for some years been obliged to borrow large sums from the Exchequer in order to meet its obligations. Far-reaching reforms were consequently introduced in both countries, as well as in Germany;

for the purpose of effecting economies. The underlying principle of all these changes has been to render the ordinary benefits payable on a more strictly actuarial basis and to institute an emergency system of benefits subject to a means test and sometimes at a lower rate. Even then some of the unemployed are left unprovided for by the State schemes and are dependent on local poor law relief.

Moreover, in all countries, the schemes in force at the beginning of the crisis have been found inadequate in view of the growing unemployment, and relief measures have had to be adopted supplementary

In those countries which have not yet adopted the insurance principle in dealing with unemployment there has been considerable discussion as to the advisability of doing so, and references to such discussions are made in the following pages in respect of such widely separated countries as Sweden, Canada, the United States, Argentina and Ecuador. In the meantime the countries lacking insurance have had to set up emergency relief schemes, so that the absence of an insurance scheme does not mean that money has not to be spent on the relief of unemployment but only that it is spent in other ways, and generally in a more haphazard and less organised manner.

In the U.S.S.R. the suspension of the unemployment insurance scheme, which was decided upon at the end of 1930 on the ground that no considerable unemployment existed in that country, continued during 1931.

While no additional country has adopted unemployment insurance during the year, considerable progress was again made in Switzerland where insurance is voluntary under Federal law but may be made compulsory in particular cantons or even communes. The number of cantons with compulsory insurance has been increased from nine to twelve by the addition of Appenzell (Outer Rhodes), St. Gallen and Thurgau, while certain local authorities, such as the city of Zurich for practically all workers on its territory, and the town of Fribourg for building workers only, although situated in cantons which otherwise have voluntarity insurance only, have instituted compulsory insurance.

The total number of insured persons is somewhat smaller than that given in last year's *Annual Review* because on that occasion 10 million insured persons in the U.S.S.R. were included. If that figure is excluded from last year's total the number will be found to have risen from 35.6 million compulsorily insured and 2.9 million voluntarily insured to 35.8 million and 3.1 million respectively. The increase would have been even greater but for the fact that in Germany there is a fictitious decrease due to the fact that an unemployed person who has ceased to receive insurance benefit and becomes chargeable to the local poor law relief ceases to be included in the figures of insured persons.

The latest available figures are given in the following table.

Country	Number of insured persons [1]
Countries with compulsory insurance:	
Australia: Queensland	160,000
Austria	1,300,000
Bulgaria	287,000
Germany	15,240,000
Great Britain and Northern Ireland	12,770,000
Irish Free State	284,000
Italy	4,500,000
Poland	1,124,000
Switzerland (twelve cantons)	215,000 [2]
Total	35,880,000
Countries with voluntary insurance:	
Belgium	718,000
Czechoslovakia	1,250,000
Denmark	296,000
Finland	(?)
France	200,000
Netherlands	462,000
Norway	45,000
Switzerland (eleven cantons)	166,000
Total	3,137,000

[1] The figures in this column are in many cases estimates.
[2] This figure includes those who are compulsorily insured in certain communes in cantons which generally speaking have voluntary insurance.

National Regulations

Argentina. — In February 1931 the Argentine Government announced its intention to establish a compulsory unemployment insurance system based on contributions from employers, workers and the State. They have since been engaged in an investigation of the question.

Australia. — Practically all the Australian States have either enlarged the scope of their relief measures or prolonged their validity. In Queensland, which is the only State possessing an insurance scheme, indentured apprentices are now included in that scheme. On the other hand, rates of benefit were reduced on 1 August 1930, and in December 1930 an amending Act provided that no person should be entitled to benefit whose earnings during the twelve months preceding the date of his claim had exceeded £220. Reference was made in the *Annual Review* for 1930 to the supplementary relief measures which had been adopted in 1930. These measures with certain modifications have been prolonged until 30 June 1932. Relief measures have also been in operation in other States, including New South Wales, South Australia, Tasmania, Victoria, and Western Australia.

Austria. — Strenuous efforts have been made to limit the expenditure of the State on unemployment relief, but a large deficit on the emergency relief was unavoidable and had to be met by the State. Already in 1930 the deficit on the scheme was 51.5 million schillings as compared with 16.2 million in 1929 and the figure was certainly higher still in 1931, but no information on the subject is yet available. Early in the year the Government proposed a far-reaching reform in the unemployment insurance scheme which would have effected changes in the administrative organisation and in the conditions of benefit and also in the rates of contribution and benefit. It was anticipated that this reform would effect a considerable saving. It failed, however, to pass into law and its place was taken by a measure much more limited in scope (Twenty-seventh Amendment, 15 July 1931). The most important clause in this Act is that which provides that unemployed persons will not be entitled to benefit unless they can show that they have no visible means of subsistence, or, if they are under seventeen years of age, unless they have no relatives able to provide for them. Certain other classes of workers are excluded from insurance altogether and a special system was introduced for building workers under which their contributions are increased and their benefits reduced. On the other hand, certain special facilities are provided for workers who have been employed abroad or who have been engaged in a non-scheduled trade in Austria, and forestry workers are brought within a special scheme. By a Decree of 24 October 1931 the contributions of insured persons and of employers were increased from a total of 90 per cent. to 100 per cent. of the sickness insurance contributions, and in respect of salaried employees from 3.4 per cent. to 3.8 per cent. of their monthly remuneration and in respect of such employees under seventeen years of age from 100 to 120 groschen a month.

A series of Acts prolonged the emergency relief measures until 31 October 1932. An Act of 3 October 1931 provides for Federal subsidies up to a maximum of 12 million schillings to meet the deficit on emergency relief. A system of relief was also instituted during the period 1 December 1931 to 31 March 1932 for unemployed persons in distress who have been excluded since 3 August 1931 from the right to emergency relief.

Bulgaria. — By an Order of the Minister of Commerce, Industry and Labour, benefit was increased from 16 to 25 leva a day for heads of families and from 10 to 15 leva a day for other unemployed persons.

Canada. — The Dominion Government has been asked on several occasions to institute an unemployment insurance scheme. On 29 April the Prime Minister stated that the Government could do nothing in the matter until the results of the Federal census were known.

Under the Unemployment Relief Act, 1930, which provided for the financing of public works and also for direct relief, the amount

paid by the Federal Government for the latter purpose amounted to 1.7 million dollars up to 31 July 1931. This was supplemented by payments from the provincial and municipal authorities. A further Act was passed on 3 August 1931 to provide for expenditure for the relief of distress and the provision of employment. It was to remain in force until 1 March 1932.

Czechoslovakia. — Unemployment insurance is based on a system of trade union funds subsidised by the Government. A draft Bill has been under consideration by the Ministry of Social Welfare during the past year for the transformation of this system into a compulsory insurance scheme. In the meantime, special relief has been provided, under the Act of 5 June 1930, for those engaged in certain industries who have exhausted, or have not yet acquired, a right to insurance benefits. This special relief is now given to unemployed persons of the textile, glass, leather, wood, bookbinding, metal, pottery and mining industries.

Denmark. — A Bill was introduced into the Danish Parliament at the end of 1930 for the reform of unemployment insurance, while retaining the principle of Government subsidies to local unemployment funds. This was not passed and in the meantime a temporary Act was adopted on 19 October 1931 to provide for emergency relief for farmers and unemployed workers. This Act remains in force until 1 May 1932.

Free City of Danzig. — Unemployment relief was made conditional on compulsory labour service to be performed as opportunity offers. By a Decree of 22 May 1931 women workers, both skilled and unskilled, and women under twenty years of age engaged in domestic service and the hotel industry are excluded from unemployment benefits, subject, however, to exemptions permitted by the Senate. By a Decree of 18 September 1931 the special winter allowance was reduced by 50 per cent. and was only to be paid for four months instead of six. A further Decree of 21 October 1931 reduced benefits from 2.05 gulden to 1.9 gulden per day for unemployed persons having a household to support, and from 1.7 gulden to 1.55 gulden for unemployed persons living in lodgings.

Ecuador. — A Bill has been introduced into Congress providing for an insurance scheme, financed to the extent of 50 per cent. by the State and of 50 per cent. by the employers. No information is yet available as to the fate of this Bill.

France. — There was a big increase in unemployment in France during the year 1931 and this led to an extension in the number of municipal and departmental unemployment relief funds in activity. On 31 December 1931 such funds were in activity in a large number of districts with a total population of 11,700,000 inhabitants. Decrees of 13 and 21 February and 31 December considerably increased the State subsidy to the funds, partly by

an actual increase in the rate (not exceeding 90 per cent.) and partly by paying it on a higher rate of benefit. A Decree dated 10 March extended to municipalities of under 5,000 inhabitants the right to set up unemployment funds subsidised by the State. The qualifying period of residence was reduced by fixing it at six months as a rule and at three months in certain cases; the maximum daily benefit payable to a single household was increased to 19, 20, 23 or 26 francs according to the number of children. Additional payments, generally in kind, have been made by many municipalities to unemployed workers and their children, and in the Department of the Seine daily allowances are paid to landlords as a contribution towards the rent of unemployed persons living in furnished lodgings.

Another Decree of 10 March 1931 introduced special regulations for the payment of benefits to short-time workers. Those who are employed for less than four days in the week are entitled to benefit, but no benefit is payable unless the undertaking has been closed for eight full days at the rate of two days in each week, and unless wages have been proportionately reduced.

Special regulations were also laid down by Decrees of 3 June and 13 November 1931 for the payment of benefit to dockers and seamen. Finally, on 11 November a new form of subsidised relief, administered by welfare or relief offices, for needy unemployed persons who have exhausted their right to benefit was introduced.

Germany. — Numerous changes have been made in the unemployment insurance scheme during the year in order to take account, on the one hand, of the increasingly severe unemployment and, on the other, of the serious financial situation of the country. The expenditure incurred during the twelve months December 1930 to November 1931 on ordinary insurance benefit was 1,585 million marks, on emergency benefit 753 million marks, and on local relief 635 million marks, making a total of 2,973 million marks. The Government felt that it was essential to introduce economies into the working of the scheme and on 5 June 1931 a Legislative Decree was issued amending on a number of points the Unemployment Insurance Acts and introducing an emergency tax on wages and other income to meet part of the expenses of relief. This Decree was ultimately found to be too severe in certain respects and was modified by a further Legislative Decree of 6 October. Thus, the wage classification was in the first place to be made on the basis of the average earnings of the last thirteen weeks instead of twenty-six but the latter figure was restored so that wage reductions should not be immediately felt in the payment of benefit to the full extent; the rates of benefit were reduced and now amount to 30 per cent. of the basic wage in the highest wage class and 70 per cent. in the lowest wage class; unemployed persons under twenty-one years of age (instead of sixteen) are not entitled to benefit if they are actually in receipt

of the maintenance from their families to which they have a right under the Civil Code; payment of benefit to married women is conditional on proof of need; persons in receipt of pensions have their benefits proportionately reduced. The waiting period is increased from fourteen to twenty-one days for unemployed persons without dependants, from seven to fourteen days for those not having more than three dependants, and from three to seven days for others. Unemployed persons are no longer able to refuse employment on the ground that it does not correspond to their training and previous employment. Unemployed persons may be called upon to undertake work without remuneration in return for the benefits. The Government was empowered to grant temporary exemption from payment of their contributions to coal miners and their employers. This has, in fact, been done since the beginning of October 1931. The Institute for Employment Exhanges and Unemployment Insurance was empowered to take whatever measures it might think fit to maintain the financial stability of the fund. By an Order of 5 October the period of ordinary benefit was reduced from twenty-six weeks to twenty in a year. On the other hand, an Order of 23 October provided for a corresponding increase in the period of emergency relief which is paid at a lower rate.

In order to help local authorities in respect of their relief expenditure, the State grant for municipal relief was increased to 230 million marks. It is now provided that municipal relief may take the form of benefits in kind up to a maximum of one-third of the total amount. Moreover, the unemployed are able to obtain meat and coal at a specially cheap rate, the difference in price being made up by the State. Finally, an Order was issued by the Institute for Employment Exchanges and Unemployment Insurance on 27 August providing that persons temporarily unemployed for three, four or five days in a week should receive benefit varying from 1 mark to 21.3 marks according to the wage-group of the person concerned, the number of days he had been without work and his family circumstances.

Great Britain. — Considerable changes have been made in the unemployment insurance scheme in order to effect economies. The first sign of a crisis was the presentation to the Royal Commission, to which reference was made in the *Annual Review* for 1930, of a memorandum by the Treasury showing that the cost of unemployment insurance to the Exchequer alone was £37,000,000 in 1929-1930 and would probably be between 50 and 55 million pounds in 1930-1931, that it would probably be necessary in addition to borrow from 40 to 50 million pounds in 1931-1932 on the basis of the scheme then in force, and that this heavy borrowing for current expenditure threatened the financial stability of the country. Another memorandum, put before the Commission by the General Council of the Trades Union Congress stated that unemployment cannot be dealt with on an insurance basis, and

that benefits should be payable to all genuinely unemployed persons, and should be financed by a special levy on all incomes. On the other hand, the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations proposed that the scheme should be made actuarially sound by making the number of benefits a fixed ratio to the number of contributions and by limiting the number of benefits payable to any individual in the course of a year.

At the request of the Government the Commission issued an interim report containing a number of recommendations, which were afterwards embodied in the new regulations described below. The Labour Government did not accept most of these recommendations, but they agreed to deal with certain so-called anomalies and a Bill was duly passed into law providing for the setting up of an Advisory Committee to advise the Minister of Labour in drawing up regulations in respect of married women, seasonal workers, and two small classes of short time workers. Before these regulations had been drawn up the financial situation became more critical and the Government, while agreeing to a number of economies in the unemployment insurance scheme, was unable to agree on a proposal to diminish benefits by 10 per cent. The Government resigned and a National Government took office. One of the first measures passed into law by this Government was a National Economy Act which, among other things, empowered the Government to issue Orders in Council for the amendment of the unemployment insurance scheme.

In the autumn, therefore, two sets of regulations were issued, one set under the Anomalies Act, and the other under the National Economy Act. The latter introduced fundamental changes into the scheme. They provide for a reduction in benefits, an increase in contributions, and a limitation of the payment of ordinary benefits to 156 days per year. No further ordinary benefit will be payable until the applicant has paid ten further contributions. Those who fail to qualify under these conditions may, for an additional period, draw so-called transitional benefits which are at the same nominal rate as ordinary benefits but which are reduced or refused altogether if the applicant has other means of support. The means test, which is carried out by the public assistance authorities, has given rise to a good deal of dissatisfaction and led to a protest in Parliament by the Labour Party. The number of unemployed persons affected by the means test is 860,000. Up to 23 November about 50,000 had been examined, and of these benefit was refused to about 10,000.

The Anomalies Regulations provide for the payment of reduced benefit to persons who, although working short time, receive wages which are high in proportion to the time worked and those who are normally employed for not more than two days a week receive benefit only in respect of days of normal employment. Seasonal workers are entitled to benefit during the off-season only if they have had an appreciable amount of employment during that season in the two previous years and can reasonably

expect to obtain insurable employment during a substantial period of the off-season at the present time. The principal class of persons affected, however, is that of married women, who must show that more than fifteen contributions have been paid since marriage, or eight contributions in the preceding three months, or alternatively, that they can reasonably expect to obtain insurable employment in the district in which they reside. This is a condition hard to fulfil, and it is estimated that by the end of November about 100,000 married women had been disqualified by these regulations. At the same time, a small change has been made in the regulations affecting British workpeople working for British employers outside the United Kingdom.

The Royal Commission was still sitting at the end of the year and had not yet issued its final report.

Italy. — No changes have taken place in the compulsory insurance scheme. The benefits were, however, found inadequate to meet the situation, and relief measures had to be resorted to. During the winter of 1931-1932 a number of workers' occupational associations decided to obtain contributions from workers in employment for distribution to unemployed workers in distress. These contributions generally amount to the equivalent of one hour's pay per month or, in the case of salaried employees, to 0.5 per cent. of their salaries. In many cases the employers make a corresponding payment.

Luxemburg. — By a Grand Ducal Order of 5 January 1931, the maximum daily benefit was raised from 9 to 12 francs, and the total benefit payable to the head of a family from 15 to 18 francs. On the other hand, unemployed women workers are completely excluded from benefit if their husbands are in regular employment and are earning wages.

New Zealand. — In July 1931 an amending Act (the Unemployment Amendment Act 1931) provided for the reduction to 20s. of the annual unemployment levy payable by all male persons, and for the collection, in addition, of a special tax at the rate of 3d. in the pound for the benefit of the unemployment fund, on all salary or wages received by persons of either sex (with certain exceptions) and on all income other than salary or wages received by those not exempted from the general unemployment levy and by women in receipt of incomes of £250 or over. The new Act also provided for the appointment of special committees to deal with the questions of land development and assistance to unemployed women. The Unemployment Acts, 1930-1931, were further amended in November (by Part II of the Finance Act 1931, No. 4) to authorise local authorities, with the concurrence of the Unemployment Board, to undertake unemployment relief works for the benefit of private or other property. In a statement made in October the Minister in Charge of Unemployment indicated that it was the intention of the Government to divert as many

as possible of the unemployed from unproductive relief work to productive work on farms.

Poland. — The Unemployment Insurance Acts have been amended on a certain number of points. By a Decree of 19 November 1930 it was decided to postpone the operation of the clause extending the scope of the Act to include undertakings employing less than five workers until 29 January 1933. On the other hand, contributions and benefits were both increased to the rates provided for in 1924 by a Decree of 30 March 1931. Polish workers are entitled to enter the unemployment insurance scheme after having been employed abroad and to count in their probationary period any time so employed. On 7 April 1931 regulations were issued laying down strict conditions for the receipt of benefit by Poles who have previously been employed in certain specified foreign countries.

Increasing unemployment led the Government to take steps to provide supplementary relief, and on 26 August 1931 it instituted a new system of benefit in kind. The resources consist of State funds allotted to unemployment relief carried out by the local authorities, food products delivered in kind in payment of taxes in arrears, food products confiscated by the customs authorities, revenue derived from an increase in the income tax, revenue from special taxes on real property and voluntary gifts. Up to 30 September 1931, 19,000,000 zlotys had been spent on benefits in kind.

Spain. — The unemployment insurance scheme was reorganised by a Decree of 25 May 1931. Detailed regulations were contained in a further Decree of 30 September 1931. By these Decrees a National Unemployment Fund is set up for the purpose, among other things, of organising a system of unemployment insurance. It will grant subsidies to locally constituted organisations which fulfil certain conditions. The subsidy will amount to 50 per cent. of the amounts paid in unemployment benefit by the organisations concerned. A Solidarity Fund is also created and each subsidised organisation must pay into that fund 5 per cent. of the contributions it receives. The State also contributes to the Solidarity Fund. As a general rule this fund is to be used for the transport and occupational rehabilitation of the unemployed. All wage earners of either sex, with certain specified exceptions, are entitled to benefits provided their earnings do not exceed 6,000 pesetas a year and the benefit must not exceed 60 per cent. of the worker's wages.

Sweden. — An enquiry by the Social Board on the basis of reports prepared by the special commission appointed to consider the question of unemployment insurance led to the conclusion that the problem of relieving unemployment cannot be solved by insurance and that even if an insurance scheme were set up the public and private relief measures in operation at present would have to be maintained almost to the same extent as hitherto.

Two members of the Board, however, dissented from this view and recommended that an experiment be made with a State-subsidised voluntary insurance scheme.

The policy of instituting relief works has been continued during the year and a certain amount of direct relief has also been given. During the year Parliament voted a supplementary sum of 4,000,000 kronor for the relief of unemployment during the fiscal year 1930-1931 and a sum of 10,000,000 kronor for the year 1931-1932.

Switzerland. — During 1931 unemployment insurance made considerable progress in Switzerland and at the end of September the number of recognised funds was 198, with 381,000 members.

Cantonal legislation now exists in every canton except Unterwalden, which is exclusively agricultural. The number of cantons with compulsory insurance has risen by three, making a total of twelve, and compulsory insurance has also been introduced into certain municipal areas in other cantons.

Early in the year the Federal Council decided to extend considerably the period during which benefit is paid and to increase by 10 per cent. the rate of the federal subsidy to the industries suffering most severely from the depression. This measure was applied in the first place to clock-making and was later extended to the silk, ribbon and embroidery industries.

As the situation became progressively worse during the year, the federal authorities introduced an emergency scheme which is to remain in force for two years and which makes a clear distinction between insurance in the strict sense of the term and other forms of relief granted to the unemployed. Benefit under the insurance system will be granted for not more than 90 days in the year or 150 days in the winter months. On the expiry of this period the unemployed will be granted emergency relief, which will be available only for those who have exhausted their right to the statutory benefit and can show that they are in need of relief.

In addition to the federal measures referred to above, a certain number of cantons and local authorities have decided to grant special relief to unemployed persons in need.

United States. — The year 1931 witnessed a growing interest in the subject of unemployment insurance in the United States. A Bill was introduced into the Senate and this led to the appointment of a Senate Committee to make a general investigation of unemployment insurance schemes. The recommendations of this Committee are not yet known to us, but it is thought that the majority of the Committee will not be favourable to a federal system. Bills were also introduced into a number of State legislatures, but these have also failed to pass. On the other hand, Governor Roosevelt, of New York State, has declared in favour of an unemployment insurance scheme and Miss Frances Perkins, the New York State Industrial Commissioner, made a report

recommending an arrangement between a group of industrial States to place the administration and control of an unemployment insurance scheme in the hands of a joint board free from political influence.

An Act was passed in Massachusetts permitting the issue of group insurance policies by private insurance companies. The policy may be issued to an employer in respect of not less than fifty workers, insuring them against loss of any part of their wages or salary after not less than one year's employment. A similar Act was passed in Mississippi for State employees.

In the meantime the unemployed are depending on the existence of company schemes which, however, cover less than 200,000 workers, and on the activities of public and private relief agencies. In August the President created a body known as the President's Organisation on Unemployment Relief, to co-ordinate relief activities throughout the country during the winter 1931-1932. No national fund was constituted but campaigns have been launched in over 400 cities for the raising of money. A number of State and city authorities have also set aside sums of money for expenditure on public works and on direct relief.

International Agreements

A certain number of additional agreements have been signed providing for the payment of benefits to nationals of the countries concerned while residing on the territory of the other party.

France-Austria; France-Rumania. — France concluded treaties concerning the reciprocal relief of the unemployed with Austria on 27 May 1930 and with Rumania on 28 January 1930, ratifications of which have not yet been exchanged.

Germany-Free City of Danzig. — An agreement was arrived at providing that unemployed Germans in the Free City of Danzig shall be entitled to emergency relief equivalent to that granted in Germany to nationals of the Free City, and that nationals of the Free City shall be entitled to emergency relief in Germany on the same conditions as Germans.

Irish Free State-Switzerland. — An exchange of notes took place in November 1930 by which each of the two countries agreed to extend equality of treatment of each other's nationals in respect of unemployment insurance.

Poland-Germany. — Poland has concluded an agreement with Germany concerning the reciprocal grant of relief to unemployed persons who have exhausted their right to ordinary insurance benefits. By a Treaty signed at Berlin on 11 June 1931 the provisions of this agreement were extended to intellectual workers.

Poland-Switzerland. — By an exchange of notes with the Swiss Government the Polish Government has come to an arrangement

ensuring equality of treatment to the citizens of the two countries with regard to unemployment insurance.

Development of Employment Possibilities

The *Annual Review* [1] for 1930 stated that no State was content simply to pay relief to its unemployed without showing an equal if not a greater interest in the problem of reducing their numbers. This is just as true of 1931, more particularly since plans were made in that year which foreshadow a new and greater effort of an international character; and though this effort has not yet borne full fruit, there is every reason to hope that a number of large international public works will shortly be undertaken.

But before describing the international projects, the steps taken by the various Governments to increase employment must first be passed in review. To be complete, such a review would have to cover the whole economic policy of the States, describe every measure by means of which they have tried to combat the depression, and include an analysis of the complex problems of policy connected with money, credit, the cost of living, taxation, foreign trade, etc.—a task which cannot, even briefly, be undertaken here.

In accordance with the plan adopted last year, only those measures which refer explicitly to unemployment will be dealt with below, though it cannot be denied that this distinction is at times somewhat artificial.

The fact that in a considerable number of countries special bodies have been charged with the task of exploring all possible means of increasing employment shows plainly that the Governments are not in the mood to stop at palliative measures.

In Germany a "Commission of Experts to enquire into remedies for unemployment" was set up at the end of January 1931, with Dr. Brauns as chairman. It submitted three reports, the second of which dealt mainly with "economic action against unemployment" in the shape of the deliberate provision of work. The Commission was of the opinion that large works, calculated to give occupation to the unemployed, "may be most advantageously undertaken in the field of electricity supply, the gas industry, roads and railways, land improvement and settlement, and housing".

In the United States a similar body, the Federal Economic Stabilisation Board, was established in February 1931. Its duties are "to advise the President from time to time of the trend of employment and business activity and of the existence or approach of periods of business depression and unemployment in the United States", and to supervise the advance planning of public works in order that a reserve of employment may be built up.

The unemployment committees and boards in Australia and New Zealand and the special Commission set up in Poland by the

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President of the Council are directing their efforts at objects of a similar nature.

Apart from the creation of *ad hoc* committees, a desire to exercise a direct influence on the labour market may be noted in the deliberations of almost all the permanent Economic Councils.

Among the measures suggested by public bodies of these two sorts with the object of increasing employment, the first to mention are those intended to prevent simultaneous earning in two occupations.

In Germany the Government, in accordance with a recommendation made by the above-mentioned Commission of Experts, has instructed the works councils and employers to co-operate in eliminating from the staffs of undertakings such persons as are not in real need of their wages and could be replaced by other workers.

The Austrian Government has acted on the same lines in introducing a Bill to prohibit wage earners and pensioners in receipt of more than a certain sum per month from supplementing this income by other work. In Poland, too, a project of this type figures among the recommendations made by the Unemployment Commission, on the strength of which the Diet and Senate have, moreover, passed an Act restricting the employment of young persons and so giving increased opportunities to adults. Lastly, the Governing Commission of the Saar Territory has called on all employers of labour, public and private, to reduce the employment of persons with an income from more than one source, including those whose husband or wife earns enough to provide for the whole family.

Another type of direct action against unemployment is the foundation of land settlements and allotments. Germany, Great Britain and Italy are the principal countries which have adopted this method, while experiments in the same direction were made overseas by Brazil, Canada and Chile during 1931.

Allotments, which are usually situated on the outskirts of large towns, have the great double advantage that they give the workers the opportunity to grow some of their own food and at the same time keep them usefully occupied during periods of unemployment. Germany is the country where this method has been adopted on the largest scale (Decree of 6 October 1931), for the special committee instructed to supervise its execution provided for allotments for 80,000 unemployed workers during the opening period. Apparently, however, the scheme has not had all the success which was expected, for by the end of the advertised period of application only 5,000 Berlin unemployed—or less than 1 per cent.—had applied for an allotment. The reason seems to be the fear felt by the unemployed that they will be deprived of other means of support at the end of a certain period and will then not find sufficient livelihood in the product of a small piece of land. In Great Britain 64,000 unemployed were allotted plots in the workers' gardens established by the Society of Friends, but at the end of 1931 the Government decided, for reasons of economy, not to continue their financial support.

Such allotments keep unemployed workers in the neighbourhood of the towns, and are only a temporary and partial source of livelihood for them. But land settlements mean real migration for those who join them, and a more or less permanent adoption of agriculture as an occupation.

In Germany the Decree of 6 October 1931 provided for the creation of home land settlements as well as for allotments, and stipulated that the land allotted to settlers should vary between 500 and 5,000 square metres per head. 20,000 settlers were thus to be installed in the course of the first six months following application of the Decree. In Italy land settlements were regulated for the first time by an Act of December 1930, and further activity in this respect was provided for by an Act passed in April 1931. In Canada concerted action on the part of the Government and of the great railroad companies had led, by April 1931, to the establishment of 15,000 unemployed workers' families in land settlements.

Similar measures have been adopted in Bolivia, Brazil and Chile, to mention only the countries where the development of land settlements is expressly connected with the effort to reduce unemployment.

But the most usual method of providing new opportunities of employment still remains to be discussed—namely, the undertaking of relief and public works. The former are works undertaken purely to give relief to the unemployed, low wage rates being paid in order to encourage the workers concerned to return to their normal occupation at the earliest opportunity; public works, on the other hand, are those which would in any case have been undertaken, but which, in view of the need for further employment, are begun at an earlier date than would otherwise have been the case.

It is neither useful nor easily possible to go fully into the work done in these two directions during 1931. Suffice it to note that in almost every country financial difficulties have compelled the authorities to limit rather than to expand their relief work and to concentrate on accelerating the execution of public works proper.

This brief review shows that there is hardly a single State which has not been compelled by the depression to go beyond placing and the " dole " and attempt definitely to increase the possibilities of employment; but it also shows how disjointed the measures taken are, and, since the depression is no respecter of boundaries, how indispensable co-ordination is. The International Labour Office has naturally shown a keen interest in the position, and the proposals it has made for the simultaneous execution of great public works have been mentioned at the beginning of this section.

The Office has indeed been concentrating its attention since the end of 1930 on this most complex problem, with its three facets —economic, technical and financial. Is it possible, given the collaboration of the various States, to carry out a programme of

national and international public works capable of appreciably diminishing the number of unemployed and yet technically feasible and economically sound ? This is the question which the gravity of the depression and the intolerable overstocking of the labour market have forced on the attention of the International Labour Office.

In answer to a request made by the Commission of Enquiry for European Union to submit proposals for immediate practical action against unemployment, the Office mentioned the execution of great public works as an indispensable part of its scheme. In order to give its proposals a practical basis, the Office began, in June 1931, a rapid preliminary enquiry in the course of which the Governments of Europe were asked to communicate any plans which they might entertain in this respect and the financial resources necessary for the execution. Despite the short notice given, a large number of Governments replied outlining schemes whose execution would mean more than 500 million days' employment and require credits amounting to some 5,000 million Swiss francs. The Commission of Enquiry for European Union, its various committees, and the Assembly and Council of the League of Nations, have in turn given their approval to the action suggested by the International Labour Office. A Committee of Enquiry on Public Works and National Equipment was set up by the Communications and Transit Organisation of the League of Nations, and includes representatives of the Governing Body of the International Labour Office; its object is to conduct a thorough enquiry into the projects of the various Governments, and, in the words of a resolution adopted by the Twelfth Assembly of the League of Nations, " to expedite the examination of these programmes, to co-ordinate them on an international scale, to hasten their putting into effect, and to follow their execution ".

Thirteen Governments, almost all from Eastern Europe, have up to date replied to the questionnaire addressed by the above-mentioned Committee to all the States Members of the League of Nations, the U.S.S.R. and Turkey on 19 October 1931. The public works schemes outlined in their replies have been passed on to three reporters whose special task is to introduce the international co-ordination which the Assembly of the League of Nations had in mind in passing the resolution quoted.

Placing Work of Employment Exchanges

During the year under review improvements in the organisation of public employment exchanges were effected in several countries, and in certain others provision was made for the more stringent regulation or the gradual suppression of fee-charging agencies. In the following paragraphs a brief account is given of the principal measures adopted.

Brazil. — By a Decree of 12 August 1931 all unemployed persons are required to register at the employment offices of the Ministry of Labour or the National Department for Internal Settlement within fifteen days from the date on which they lost their job. In the case of workers going to take up employment at a distance from their place of residence, provision is made for the free transport of themselves, their families and their personal effects, tools and implements.

Canada. — In accordance with the policy of the Dominion Immigration and Colonisation Department of encouraging the settlement on farms of unemployed Canadian workers and their families, over 6,000 families were placed on farms and nearly 13,000 single men were provided with work as farm labourers in the period from September 1930 to December 1931.

Czechoslovakia. — The Ministry of Social Welfare has drafted a Bill providing for the organisation of a system of public employment exchanges and the gradual elimination of private employment agencies. The adoption of this Bill would make it possible to ratify the Washington Convention concerning unemployment.

France. — Provision has been made for reduced railway fares for unemployed industrial and commercial workers proceeding to take up employment in agriculture in their commune or district of origin. Reductions are also accorded on railway fares for their families and on the cost of transport of their furniture.

Germany. — By an Act and Decree of 25 March 1931 fee-charging employment agencies have been finally abolished and compensation provided for persons who formerly carried them on.

Great Britain. — An arrangement between the British Ministry of Labour and the mining industry whereby the number of new entrants to the industry is restricted continued in operation during 1931 and was shown, by the results of a special enquiry, to have achieved a notable success in preventing a further drift of labour towards an industry already over-manned.

A considerable development took place during 1930 in the system of approved courses of instruction and training for unemployed boys and girls from fourteen to eighteen years of age. The total average attendances increased during the year from 7,000 to 16,000.

Greece. — An Act was adopted providing for the establishment of special employment offices for salaried employees, workers and domestic servants.

Italy. — The public employment offices for commercial workers, to which reference was made in the *Annual Review* for 1930, was extended early in 1931 to cover a number of additional classes of workers on establishments including commercial travellers, commission agents, consumers' co-operative societies, booksellers

and employees of tourist agencies, sleeping-car companies and restaurants. Employers must engage the workers required through the medium of the public offices even when such workers are engaged for a period of less than one week.

Regulations were issued in October 1931 concerning the engagement of labour for public works. Although as a general rule the function of recruiting these workers devolves upon the industrial employment exchanges, provision has been made, in view of the problem of unemployment in agriculture, for the acceptance by the agricultural employment exchanges of applications from agricultural workers for such employment.

The obligation to be placed upon employers to apply to the public employment exchanges for any workers they may require was to come into operation at a date to be fixed by the Government. It has been confirmed and declared effective for agriculture, commerce and industry by Decrees dated 23 September 1930, 25 February 1931 and 30 November 1931, respectively.

Under an Act of 9 April 1931 regulations were issued for the purpose of co-ordinating and infusing fresh life in the movement for internal migration and settlement in Italy.

Netherlands. — The provisions of the Washington Convention concerning unemployment were embodied in an Act passed on 29 November 1930. The Act also provides for the regulation and ultimate abolition of fee-charging employment agencies.

Spain. — An Act of 27 November 1931 made it obligatory for provinces and municipalities to set up free public employment exchanges. The administration of each local and inter-local exchange is in the hands of a joint committee, the chairman of which must be a worker. The Minister of Labour may make it compulsory for intending employers and those who are seeking work to consult the exchanges. A central service to co-ordinate the work has been established at the Ministry of Labour.

The same Act provides for the complete suppression, at the end of one year, of all fee-charging employment agencies, and places free private agencies under the supervision of a joint commission of the Labour Council.

United States of America. — Senator Wagner's Bill providing for a system of federal and State-aided employment exchanges was adopted by Congress, but was vetoed by the President on 7 March 1931. An administrative reorganisation of the federal employment services has been undertaken. A federal employment bureau is to be set up in each of the States to co-operate with State and local authorities.

The Conference on Labour Legislation, consisting of delegates from ten industrial States, adopted in June 1931 a series of recommendations with regard to the organisation of free public employment offices and the control of private fee-charging offices.

More stringent regulation of private employment agencies in

Illinois was provided for by the Illinois Private Employment Agencies Act of 8 July 1931.

U.S.S.R. — By an Order of 13 September 1931 all State, municipal, co-operative and public undertakings were authorised to engage their workers directly instead of through the staff management offices (employment exchanges). The system in force before the Order and Decrees noted in the *Annual Review* for 1930, which made it compulsory to engage all labour through the staff offices, was thus virtually restored. However, a Decree of the Commissariat of Labour, published on 30 March 1931, provides for systematic organisation of recruitment of the workers needed for State undertakings. With this object in view, the State economic organs have to submit plans indicating their needs to the Commissariat of Labour; the local organs of the Commissariat then assign to each economic organisation a district in which it may proceed to recruit new workers. An Order published on 15 July 1931 and emanating from the " Kolkhozcentre " is intended to facilitate the recruitment of members of Kolkhozes for industrial employment.

Yugoslavia. — Provision has been made by the Yugoslav Government for a reduction of 50 per cent. in third class railway and Government steamer fares for unemployed workers travelling individually or collectively from one place to another, in order to take up employment.

International Action

With a view to co-ordinating the operations of the placing services of the various European countries, the International Labour Organisation has been asked by the Council and the Assembly of the League of Nations, in pursuance of the Resolutions passed by the Commission of Enquiry for European Union, to summon a technical conference on placing. This proposal was accepted by the Governing Body at its Session in October 1931. The agenda of the proposed conference will include:

(*a*) the organisation of a permanent exchange of information on the state of the labour market, and the creation of the necessary international bodies;

(*b*) the means of facilitating bilateral relations between the various national placing systems for the actual transference of labour from one country to another; and

(*c*) a comparison of the methods of placing in force in the various countries.

Governments will be asked to send, as Delegates to this Conference, persons who are experts in regard to placing. The Governing Body of the Office itself will send representatives from its

employers' and workers' groups respectively. Moreover, the International Labour Office prepared for the 1932 Session of the Conference a " Grey Report " setting out the law and practice in different countries with regard to fee-charging employment agencies, and concluding with suggestions with a view to drafting a questionnaire to be circulated to the States Members of the Organisation, whose replies may serve as a basis for a proposed Draft Convention designed to secure their abolition.

Migration

The following tables show the annual emigration and immigration (or arrival and departure) statistics for the principal countries for the period 1926-1930. Whenever possible separate figures have been given for nationals and aliens and for continental and intercontinental migration movements. In consequence of the delay with which annual statistics are published it has not been possible to include information for 1931.

The information available for the earlier months of 1931 would, however, seem to indicate that the volume of continental and intercontinental migration has considerably shrunk in comparison with 1930.

As recorded in the *Annual Review* for 1930, intercontinental migration underwent a sharp decline in 1930, this being due mainly to the economic depression and the restrictive measures adopted by a large number of the former immigration countries, in order to protect their labour markets. This decrease seems to have become still more accentuated and to have spread to continental migration in Europe which, up to 1930, had been very extensive.

The change which has taken place in *intercontinental migration* may be seen from the following figures which give an approximate idea of the net loss in population caused in the nine principal European States [1] by the migration of their nationals to non-European countries:

1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
333,000	300,000	251,000	244,000	143,000

The shrinkage in these movements is due not only to a decrease in the number of new emigrants but also to an increase in the number of former emigrants repatriated from oversea countries. In 1930 the repatriation movement was so large that several of the former emigrant countries showed an excess of immigrants. Thus, Great Britain, which showed a net loss of 4,227 persons for the third quarter of 1930, has a net gain of 9,739 persons during

[1] Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Great Britain, Irish Free State, Italy, Poland, Portugal, Sweden (including aliens).

OVERSEA AND CONTINENTAL MIGRATION MOVEMENTS OF NATIONALS AND ALIENS*

Country	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
	A. — Movement of nationals *Oversea emigration*					A. — Movement of nationals *Oversea immigration*				
AFRICA										
Madagascar	5	22	16	14	36	10	27	34	483	127
Mauritius	3,461	2,831	2,975	2,399	2,707	2,660	2,365	2,495	2,150	2,391
Senegal	1,761	1,159	1,169	1,307	283	1,714	2,216	1,858	868	298
AMERICA										
United States *a*)	15,797	11,223	6,074	5,829	4,128	—	—	—	—	—
Mexico	1,278	—	—	—	—	1,086	—	—	—	—
St. Pierre and Miquelon	—	16	5	7	2	—	—	—	—	—
ASIA										
British India	356	206	527	979	—	6,700	8,421	6,364	—	—
Indochina	2,832	1,528	1,439	2,199	778	206	226	441	553	3,501
Japan	12,670	13,656	18,146	21,215	15,951	13,750	14,423	13,368	12,546	12,550
Palestine	1,694	2,274	1,414	1,591	1,432	—	—	—	—	—
Syria and Lebanon	14,946	9,390	14,288	7,941	7,346	5,000	5,320	4,042	3,515	3,978
EUROPE										
Germany	65,280	61,379	57,241	48,734	37,399	29,656	38,271	45,075	38,463	43,097
Austria	3,895	5,339	4,589	4,850	4,181	—	—	—	—	—
Belgium	3,672	3,498	2,497	3,088	2,564	1,112	1,252	1,476	1,468	1,732
Bulgaria	—	1,436	2,094	2,906	1,889	—	—	—	—	—
Denmark	5,804	7,996	7,698	6,277	3,348	—	—	—	—	—
Danzig	753	94	12	10	60	—	—	—	—	—
Spain	45,183	43,867	48,555	50,212	41,560	39,949	41,517	38,563	36,623	41,563
Estonia	845	1,060	415	478	389	—	—	—	—	—
Finland	5,638	5,696	4,742	6,119	3,657	713	842	917	882	—
France	3,751	3,610	3,448	3,531	2,970	—	—	—	—	—
Greece	6,745	9,255	8,850	9,710	6,278	—	—	—	4,474	—
Hungary	5,856	5,586	6,654	7,400	5,023	400	555	576	518	813
Irish Free State	30,041	27,148	24,691	20,802	15,966	1,786	1,904	2,153	2,120	2,597
Italy	122,496	136,094	70,794[1]	61,777	59,112	71,520	73,424	49,751[1]	44,419	46,561
Lithuania	10,364	18,086	8,491	15,999	6,428	—	—	—	—	—
Luxemburg	126	130	120	109	84	—	—	—	—	—
Malta and Gozo *a*)	3,337	2,571	2,708	2,546	—	2,584	1,936	1,404	1,744	—
Norway	9,326	11,881	8,837	8,029	3,673	—	—	—	—	—
Netherlands	3,059	3,239	2,759	2,883	2,671	—	—	—	—	—
Poland	49,893	58,187	64,581	65,310	46,534	6,017	6,799	6,159	6,571	7,625
Portugal	34,132	29,591	26,704	31,413	15,800	23,359	13,522	12,756	21,274	15,979
Rumania	21,577	8,343	11,445	12,672	10,697	1,232	3,035	3,904	2,857	3,460
United Kingdom	166,601	153,505	136,834	143,686	92,158	51,063	55,715	59,105	56,217	66,203
Sweden	11,062	10,958	11,683	9,157	3,719	2,328	2,847	2,952	2,879	4,649
Switzerland	4,280	4,476	4,057	3,772	2,965	—	—	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	12,003	14,787	15,192	12,748	8,833	2,907	2,839	2,800	2,363	2,973
Yugoslavia	15,726	19,527	19,472	15,730	11,429	3,838	3,706	3,796	4,237	5,975
	Continental emigration					*Continental immigration*				
AFRICA										
Basutoland	95,864	57,967	53,878	74,762	—	—	—	—	—	—
French Somaliland	437	267	—	0	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mauritania	13	5	—	14	25	13	8	—	—	—
Nyasaland	11,666	7,340	6,660	3,068	3,485	—	5,615	7,872	3,357	3,738
French Sudan	19,127	—	—	20,455	—	—	—	—	—	—
Swaziland	12,817	13,205	12,774	12,415	14,058	—	—	—	—	—
AMERICA										
Barbados	9,897	10,290	(c)	10,985	—	11,792	12,288	11,765	11,882	—
Canada	—	—	—	—	—	62,293	42,078	34,120	30,479	31,608
United States *a*)	12,385	11,563	15,358	17,614	16,611	—	—	—	—	—
Jamaica	5,102	4,755	3,421	3,337	1,919	5,625	5,896	5,864	5,231	6,688
Martinique	1,101	395	291	368	218	—	—	—	—	—
Mexico	60,704	—	69,231	—	—	71,977	—	79,811	—	—
St. Pierre and Miquelon	8	16	15	4	0	—	—	—	—	—
ASIA										
Chinese through Hong-Kong	216,527	285,593	257,162	227,523	188,900	128,661	181,100	187,847	185,390	223,136
British India	214,805	221,767	109,651	136,910	—	—	—	—	—	—
Japan	3,514	4,385	9,552	9,971	5,884	—	—	—	—	—
Philippines	11,526	21,589	21,310	—	—	6,933	7,594	9,723	—	—
EUROPE										
Belgium	18,966	13,149	12,181	10,455	9,901	8,865	8,365	7,587	7,460	7,695
Bulgaria	—	16,033	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Spain	11,516	—	21,986	31,131	35,916	16,732	—	19,132	20,769	22,238
Estonia	1,715	1,262	878	961	616	—	—	—	—	—
Finland	405	392	313	264	307	—	—	—	—	—
Italy	141,314	91,958	79,772[1]	88,054	220,985	106,099	67,201	49,001[1]	64,887	82,461
Poland	117,616	89,427	122,049	178,132	171,853	49,171	73,014	112,921	97,932	93,459
Rumania	104	572	528	131	164	75	135	264	207	136
Sweden	1,981	1,889	1,767	1,862	1,963	3,060	2,831	2,656	3,457	2,866
Czechoslovakia	26,480	23,272	28,845	35,063	39,972	4,523	3,959	2,640	2,263	1,769
OCEANIA										
Western Samoa	654	870	1,231	1,005	—	727	941	1,250	1,040	—

* For explanatory notes see *International Labour Review*, Vol. XXIII, No. 5, May 1931.

OVERSEA AND CONTINENTAL MIGRATION MOVEMENTS OF NATIONALS AND ALIENS

(continued)

Country	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
	B. — Movement of aliens *Oversea immigration*					**B. — Movement of aliens** *Oversea emigration*				
AFRICA										
French Somaliland	49	67	—	67	83	118	13	—	66	72
Dahomey	415	321	—	538	337	325	—	—	380	280
French Guinea	124	203	1,068	477	620	147	172	597	351	532
Brit. East Africa [2]	16,785	17,328	17,268	19,803	20,550	11,815	12,737	13,519	14,707	20,344
Madagascar	*b* 920	1,618	2,327	2,822	2,231	147	929	945	1,486	2,047
French Morocco	4,624	4,895	5,003	6,294	5,818	1,902	2,059	1,865	1,161	2,152
Mauritius	1,329	1,848	1,547	1,622	1,527	1,562	1,658	1,822	1,884	754
Mauritania	36	31	—	157	157	28	35	—	151	111
Nyasaland	—	1,165	1,474	1,315	1,645	881	1,253	1,187	1,132	1,368
Southern Rhodesia	1,671	3,691	3,751	2,894	—	—	—	—	—	—
St. Helena	60	49	46	38	33	78	58	57	67	53
Senegal	1,831	1,649	3,636	4,370	4,033	1,436	1,329	3,009	3,875	3,393
Seychelles	425	648	552	566	623	460	543	501	565	389
French Sudan	349	237	690	294	—	—	—	—	—	—
South West Africa	797	723	664	771	548	51	44	94	102	123
Swaziland	212	175	201	161	175	180	57	84	107	55
South Africa	6,575	6,598	7,050	7,895	5,904	6,137	7,255	7,909	5,047	5,699
AMERICA										
Argentina	135,011	161,548	129,047	140,086	133,183	55,769	57,936	54,262	58,357	—
Bermudas	162	222	182	246	844	—	—	—	—	—
Brazil	117,714	96,880	76,586	94,931	61,099	—	41,573	39,702	—	—
Canada	115,040	135,066	136,849	133,142	79,174	—	—	—	—	—
Cuba	15,552	13,746	10,725	11,203	5,636	—	—	—	—	—
United States	179,013	176,744	170,470	174,211	135,437	68,061	68,677	69,384	41,956	42,947
British Guiana	1,117	4,572	5,565	5,532	5,590	3,853	5,205	6,542	6,032	5,250
French Guiana	—	—	456	82	159	—	—	—	—	—
Dutch Guiana	1,349	1,724	2,323	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Martinique	—	—	18	7	17	—	—	—	—	—
Mexico	9,062	—	8,375	—	—	6,809	—	5,709	—	—
Paraguay	317	405	404	284	1,800	—	—	—	—	—
St. Pierre and Miquelon	227	167	139	218	117	—	—	—	—	—
Trinidad and Tobago	—	78	17	0	146	996	897	0	938	0
Uruguay	12,454	11,641	15,310	11,608	12,107	4,679	4,698	5,071	4,983	5,165
Venezuela	21,672	23,805	19,068	21,899	20,891	16,552	20,260	18,630	20,015	19,297
ASIA										
Ceylon	4,607	4,614	—	—	—	4,093	4,094	—	—	—
Dutch Indies	6,155	7,400	7,795	8,580	7,244	—	—	—	—	—
Indochina	—	4,021	5,802	5,027	6,098	—	3,077	5,628	5,020	6,064
Palestine	12,373	2,858	1,901	4,689	5,144	7,735	4,704	1,708	1,244	1,571
Philippines	925	1,080	1,100	1,161	—	323	313	480	468	—
EUROPE										
Germany	—	—	—	—	—	1,157	1,268	992	1,032	4,998
Belgium	1,604	1,579	1,880	1,643	1,765	742	1,141	788	1,225	1,054
Spain	182	—	557	783	855	1,783	2,194	2,172	3,140	2,568
Norway	265	236	454	617	—	—	—	—	—	—
United Kingdom	786	832	1,284	1,270	1,719	—	—	—	—	—
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—	667	796	743	836	671
Czechoslovakia	—	—	—	—	—	60	46	269	474	394
Yugoslavia	1,716	2,047	2,031	1,755	1,632	2,504	2,492	2,326	2,459	2,131
OCEANIA										
Australia	55,923	61,655	43,933	31,698	17,537	13,201	13,773	15,446	21,926	27,765
French Establishments	343	555	858	811	795	339	530	733	631	1,004
Hawaii *a*)	7,925	10,961	*d*15,809	*d*11,483	*d*12,054	11,603	12,358	*d*11,850	*d*12,040	*d*10,644
Nauru	259	527	277	225	—	204	340	229	220	—
New Caledonia	1,557	3,800	3,344	3,427	2,145	2,566	3,143	2,288	1,650	4,484
New Guinea	48	101	69	80	103	84	135	127	141	187
New Zealand	15,981	9,868	4,852	4,321	4,756	868	1,188	1,413	1,387	1,207
Western Samoa	686	499	1,052	519	765	636	567	974	594	808
	Continental immigration					*Continental emigration*				
AFRICA										
Gambia	13,553	17,237	0	0	0	—	—	—	—	—
Kenya	3,352	3,434	3,894	3,408	3,621	2,717	2,820	2,633	2,445	2,882
Madagascar	225	19	251	466	180	105	22	116	69	189
Southern Rhodesia	1,281	1,391	1,167	984	—	—	—	—	—	—
South West Africa	1,177	1,007	1,518	1,279	427	526	489	480	517	539
South Africa	40,968	46,187	74,943	166,784	192,994	—	—	—	—	—

OVERSEA AND CONTINENTAL MIGRATION MOVEMENTS OF NATIONALS AND ALIENS

(concluded)

Country	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
	B. — Movement of aliens *Continental immigration* (concluded)					B. — Movement of aliens *Continental emigration* (concluded)				
AMERICA										
Bermudas . . .	99	184	190	338	—	—	—	120	122	—
Canada	20,944	23,818	29,933	31,852	25,632	—	—	—	—	—
Cuba	16,717	17,668	16,589	5,976	1,166	—	—	—	—	—
United States	157,282	147,141	119,467	94,730	48,794	5,118	6,445	8,215	11,217	9,983
British Guiana.	5,318	—	5,607	5,089	5,026	—	5,102	5,446	5,240	5,277
Mexico	26,369	—	—	—	—	23,359	—	—	—	—
Dominican Republic . .	—	9,969	—	9,470	—	—	9,091	—	9,306	—
St. Pierre and Miquelon . .	40	35	60	58	390	—	51	6	0	15
Trinidad and Tobago . . .	—	5,347	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
ASIA										
Ceylon	216,167	285,137	271,869	238,141	—	182,348	211,062	216,061	241,972	—
Straits Settlements [3]. . .	523,388	515,394	358,772	407,419	307,796	186,472	243,916	240,606	216,616	310,124
Dutch Indies .	39,411	43,565	45,128	39,806	34,741	—	—	—	—	—
Indochina . .	53,563	59,867	76,093	82,284	72,366	34,156	27,841	45,214	52,887	54,769
Palestine . . .	1,537	737	1,185	1,877	1,289	—	—	—	—	—
Philippines . .	13,116	12,835	10,783	9,718	—	646	561	801	1,219	—
EUROPE										
Germany . . .	55,157	71,255	88,927	96,174	87,134	—	—	—	—	—
Austria. . . .	3,871	5,104	6,053	7,427	8,172	—	—	—	—	—
Belgium . . .	32,944	29,973	31,034	45,006	43,217	13,405	12,153	12,837	14,393	16,048
France	170,366	64,325	97,742	179,321	221,619	41,174	89,982	53,903	38,870	43,789
Norway . . .	1,012	673	454	493	—	—	—	—	—	—
Rumania . . .	4,469	7,385	7,555	7,944	6,030	9,555	13,775	12,123	12,729	7,972
United Kingdom	5,230	7,020	8,930	11,306	11,677	—	—	—	—	—
Switzerland .	45,234	45,629	50,088	61,801	77,723	—	—	—	—	—
Czechoslovakia	2,120	2,848	1,274	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
OCEANIA										
Australia . . .	3,541	5,423	4,300	3,159	2,236	4,232	4,159	4,202	4,748	6,212
French Establishments . .	—	—	—	—	—	237	254	—	237	201
New Guinea *a*)	865	1,148	1,445	1,456	1,325	754	891	1,069	1,201	1,063
New Zealand .	1,887	1,459	1,487	2,022	2,154	1,713	2,957	2,541	1,706	1,233

(*a*) Fiscal year. (*b*) 31 May to 31 December. (*c*) No figures available. (*d*) Calendar year.

[1] Italy: new system of statistics since 1928; Italians naturalised in other countries are no longer included.

[2] British East Africa: including Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and the Belgian Congo.

[3] Straits Settlements: including Federated Malay States and other States of the Malay Peninsula.

the corresponding quarter of 1931. A similar state of affairs is revealed by the statistics of Germany, the Irish Free State, Italy and other countries which formerly provided large streams of emigrants.

Migration movements in the old immigration countries show quite the reverse tendency, and 1931 statistics for the United States, hitherto the chief immigration country, indicate that emigration has become more important than immigration, and that there was an excess of about 20,000 emigrants during the first eleven months of the year.

The volume of *continental migration* largely increased during 1930. Two European immigration countries, France and Belgium, for which statistics are obtainable, showed a net population increase (including nationals and aliens) of 168,000 in 1929 and 202,000 in 1930. The net total for continental emigration from the main European States concerned (Czechoslovakia, Italy, Poland, Roumania) was 142,000 in 1929 and 241,000 in 1930. The figures available for 1931 seem to indicate that the continental emigration movement has almost completely ceased.

Organisation and Control of Emigration

In consequence of the spontaneous decline in the flow of migration, State action for regulating emigration appears to have slowed down during 1931. Measures to encourage emigration in particular, which were few in 1930, became more and more infrequent in 1931.

Austria. — A plan for a settlement in Paraguay, intended to allow of the emigration of 30,000 Austrians, has been worked out by various leading persons. During the course of the year the Emigration Office has tried to encourage seasonal emigration to Germany.

Great Britain. — During the past year the number of British nationals repatriated from the Dominions exceeded that of emigrants. The reduced passenger rates granted to emigrants to Canada were suspended. Assisted emigration to the Dominions has ceased almost entirely.

Italy. — Two Legislative Decrees of 26 February, restoring the system in force before June 1928, provided for special reduced passport fees for continental emigrants. An additional fee, on the other hand, has been imposed on persons emigrating from Italy in response to a letter of invitation from relatives settled overseas.

Morocco. — A Decree of 27 October requires all native workers leaving the French Zone of Morocco to be in possession of a medical certificate and a contract of employment. They must also deposit a sum of money large enough to cover the cost of their repatriation should it prove necessary.

Poland. — Since 26 February emigration to Uruguay, Paraguay and Chile has been limited to persons in possession of a letter of invitation or of engagement and of a specified sum of money in addition to that required for the expenses of their journey. On the other hand, the Emigration Office has been instructed to make grants, in certain cases, towards the travelling expenses of Polish emigrants going to France and Belgium.

Spain. — The provision requiring that emigrants to Cuba should be in possession of a contract of employment was suspended on

11 February. On the other hand, a Decree of 25 September prohibited the emigration to North Africa of all persons not in possession of a contract of employment or letter of invitation, and further required that their repatriation expenses should be secured beforehand.

A Royal Decree of 27 March provided for stricter supervision over the societies dealing with emigrants and repatriated workers and the placing of such workers either at home or abroad, and prohibited them from engaging in propaganda for emigration.

Organisation and Control of Immigration

The restrictions imposed on immigration during 1930 were multiplied during 1931. No measures to encourage immigration were adopted, whereas several countries of immigration made increasing efforts to facilitate or prescribe the departure of numerous immigrants in order to relieve the home labour market.

Angola. — Under the terms of an Order issued by the Governor at the end of 1930, any immigrant who within one week of his arrival has failed to obtain employment must leave the Colony.

Argentina. — Supplementary visa fees have been imposed on immigrants since 1 January 1931. Various categories of workers were subsequently exempted from this measure, particularly agricultural workers who are assured of work in the country, or are in possession of a specified sum of money.

Australia. — The systematic restrictions on immigration in general, necessitated by the crisis, and the suspension since 1930 of all assisted immigration for British subjects, have been maintained throughout the past year.

Belgium. — In virtue of a Royal Decree of 10 March 1931, every immigrant is required to provide himself with a document certifying that he has been authorised by the competent Belgian consular or diplomatic agent to take up work in the Kingdom.

Brazil. — The restrictions imposed in 1930 on the employment of foreign workers have been relaxed in certain respects. Mining, farming and stock-breeding undertakings have been exempted from the obligation to see that at least two-thirds of their workers are Brazilians by birth. Further, foreigners who have been settled in Brazil for more than ten years, and particularly those who have married Brazilian women and have children born in the country, are put on the same footing as Brazilians by birth.

Cape Verde Islands. — Under provisions that came into force on 1 January, admission to the Colony is limited to certain classes of immigrants in possession of the necessary means.

Costa Rica. — An Act promulgated on 7 March prohibits the entry into the country of all immigrants who do not possess, in

addition to the prescribed documents, a specified minimum sum of money.

Cuba. — Measures have been adopted to restrict the admission of immigrants other than those coming from Spain or from the American States.

France. — The admission of foreign workers, and particularly of industrial workers, has been severely restricted by the enforcement of measures of an administrative character. The supervision of foreigners already settled in France has been made stricter and the authorities have concluded agreements with the railway companies with the object of facilitating the repatriation of certain immigrants. Foreigners who have failed to obtain the documents authorising them to hold employment have been refused identity cards, and have therefore frequently been obliged to leave the country. The authorities have further tried to prevent agricultural immigrants from transferring to industry, and have endeavoured to diminish the proportion of foreign labour employed in industries affected by the depression, particularly in the execution of public works. A series of draft Bills were introduced into the Chamber of Deputies in November with the object of limiting more strictly, and possibly of regulating through a quota system, the employment of foreign labour in trade and industry.

Germany. — In January the Reichsrat restricted the issue of permits for the employment of foreign agricultural workers during 1931 to farms cultivating sugar-beet, covering a specified area, and having previously employed foreign labour. The number of foreign workers allowed to these undertakings was also reduced by one-third of that permitted in 1930.

Great Britain. — In virtue of a decision of the Home Secretary, the administrative regulations concerning the admission of foreigners into Great Britain have been strengthened.

Greece. — Under the terms of an Act promulgated in September, no foreigner may be engaged as a worker, salaried employee or domestic servant except on presentation of a special permit.

Guatemala. — Various restrictions on immigration were imposed in December 1930, particularly in respect of persons without means, workers not in possession of a contract of employment, and the nationals of various countries in Africa, Asia and Europe.

Liberia. — The International Commission of Enquiry on Liberia has recommended the abolition of the restrictions on immigration from the United States.

Luxemburg. — The Government recommended in September that employers should recruit their staff from among national workers, and when effecting dismissals should dispense with their foreign workers first.

Martinique. — An Order issued in August required immigrants to produce a medical certificate and prohibited the admission of persons whose repatriation expenses were not secured.

Mexico. — Subject to certain exceptions, the admission of foreign workers was temporarily prohibited on 14 July. Under the terms of the new Labour Code, employers must employ 90 per cent. of Mexican-born citizens or naturalised foreigners belonging to the white races.

Morocco. — A Decree of 20 October provided that immigrants may not take up employment in the French Zone of Morocco except on presentation, among other documents, of a contract of employment drawn up on a specified model.

New Zealand. — An Act restricting immigration, and intended in particular to prevent the admission of indigent persons even if they are of British nationality, was adopted on 17 April by the legislative authorities.

Nicaragua. — An Act promulgated in February requires that all undertakings shall employ at least 75 per cent. of national labour on their staffs.

Palestine. — The British Prime Minister declared on 13 February that the duty of facilitating Jewish immigration and encouraging close settlement by Jews on the land remains a positive obligation of the Mandatory Power, and pointed out that the absorptive capacity of the country, which must be taken into account, is governed by economic considerations. The High Commissioner has decided that up to 31 December permission to settle permanently in Palestine may be granted to any person already resident in the country, even if the capital of such person is less than £1,000.

Panama. — A Decree of 28 May prohibited the admission of immigrants from British India unless they are in possession of a specified sum.

Peru. — Under a Decree of 2 May, third-class passengers may enter the country only if they possess a contract of employment.

Poland. — Measures severely restricting the employment of foreign labour in industry, agriculture and trade, in relation to the state of the labour market, came into force in March.

Siam. — Restrictions on immigration were strengthened during August, and a considerable decline in Chinese immigration is expected to result.

South Africa. — The restrictions on the admission of foreigners were strengthened on 21 May and the powers of the Government were extended, particularly in regard to the expulsion of immigrants convicted of certain offences.

Spain. — A Decree was promulgated in January requiring that foreigners already established in the country should procure a special identity card before being permitted to take up employment, and that immigrants should secure a contract of employment before entering Spain. The same Decree provided for the progressive substitution of unemployed Spanish workers for foreign workers. The enforcement of these measures was suspended for an indefinite period on 13 March.

Switzerland. — Under the terms of an Act which came into force on 1 July, admission into Swiss territory was facilitated by the abolition of the preliminary supervision of foreigners entering the country, but they still need a permit for residence or settlement in the country. In the case of foreigners intending to take up employment the permit is granted only after consultation with the employment exchanges and for a period to be fixed in each case.

Tunisia. — An Order of 10 January strengthened the supervision of foreign labour, and laid down a standard contract on which the individual contracts prescribed for immigrants must be modelled.

United States. — Except for the temporary prohibition of the entry of certain classes of foreign industrial students, no fresh measures tending towards a further restriction of immigration have been adopted. The legislative provisions already in operation have, however, been so strictly enforced that the number of visas actually issued during the six months ending 30 June has remained far below half the total annual quota admissible. During recent months the proportion of visas granted has been less than 10 per cent. of the monthly quota. The expulsion of foreigners has also become more frequent, and larger credits have been granted to the authorities for this purpose. The legislation at present in force allows the expulsion of immigrants who become public charges within five years of their admission to the country, and for reasons anterior to it. Since February immigrants who have been reduced to indigence for reasons subsequent to their arrival, and who have been domiciled in the country for less than three years, may at their own request be repatriated at Government expense.

Uruguay. — About the middle of the year the Senate Committee on Legislation and International Affairs adopted a draft Bill specifying the classes of foreigners to whom admission should be refused, and authorising the Government to prohibit all immigration except in the case of skilled workers holding a contract of employment.

International Action

The world-wide depression and the general atmosphere of uncertainty which it has produced have not been favourable to international initiative and negotiations in the sphere of migration.

It was, moreover, to be expected that after the numerous agreements concluded during recent years with a view to regulating migration movements, especially in Europe, the countries concerned should mark time for a while in order to assess more accurately the results of the attempts at regulation already made. But the fact that in the midst of the crisis international action continues to be carried on, even though on a reduced scale, is proof of the importance attached by certain countries to the settlement of migration problems by way of agreement.

Bilateral Agreements

The series of agreements on the rights of foreigners, treaties of commerce and settlement concluded by France with Rumania and Luxemburg and by Italy with Panama have been ratified or published. The first of these agreements recognises the principle of equality of treatment for the nationals of the two countries, subject to reciprocity in respect of fees for residential permits and police formalities, while the other two are based on the principle of most-favoured-nation treatment.

No new labour treaties were concluded during 1931, but conversations were carried on between various countries on the application of existing agreements, regard being had to the state of the labour market. At the beginning of June the Franco-Polish Advisory Commission fixed a lower level for the quota of Polish workers to be admitted into France during the year. Out of a total of 36,000 Polish immigrants allowed to enter the country in 1931, 30,000, of whom one-third were women, were to be employed in agriculture. The opportunity was also taken to make it clear that the functions of the protection committees appointed to protect foreign women workers in French agriculture are of a social character.

Various agreements have been concluded in respect of the labour requirements of agriculture, which are more stable and less affected by the depression than those of industry. The 1929 agreement on Hungarian industrial immigration to France was extended even before the end of 1930, through an exchange of notes between the two Governments, to cover, under special conditions, the Hungarian agricultural and forestry workers recruited for work in France. With the approval of the competent authorities, the Central Agricultural Society of Latvia and the Polish Agricultural Service in that country organised the recruiting by contract of more than 3,000 Polish seasonal workers for Latvian agriculture in 1931. In Brazil the Government concluded an agreement with the Japanese International Development Company, providing for the admission to Brazil of about 12,000 Japanese emigrants during 1931. On the other hand, no new colonisation agreements were made during 1931 for the British Empire, and in many cases the economic depression from which the Dominions are suffering has

resulted in the suspension of assisted emigration from Great Britain to the Dominions.

With regard to the transport of emigrants, certain new agreements have been concluded. The commercial treaty concluded on 12 April 1930 between Germany and Austria, made public in 1931, established equality of treatment as well as most-favoured-nation treatment for undertakings in either country that carries out on the territory of the other the transport of migrant workers from one of the two countries to the other, or in transit to a third. On 20 May 1930 an exchange of notes, published in 1931, took place between the Irish Free State and Italy, setting up between the two countries a system of regulations for emigrant ships similar to that, noted in the *Annual Review* for 1930, agreed upon between Italy and the Governments of Great Britain, Australia and India.

As a result of the depression, which has been severely felt by the labour market of immigration and of emigration countries alike, several Governments have also had to consider the question of repatriation. At the beginning of 1931, the consuls of various Latin American States in Washington came to an agreement for the organised repatriation of their unemployed nationals resident in the United States and made arrangements with the shipping companies to this effect. The question of repatriation has also assumed some importance in the British Empire, and an exchange of views has taken place between the British, Canadian and Australian Government regarding the deportation or sending back of British subjects who had emigrated to these Dominions.

Frontier migration, which is less affected by the depression than long-distance migration, has also been the subject of negotiations. In virtue of an agreement of 31 March, Belgium granted to French frontier workers in employment in Belgium treatment equivalent to that enjoyed since 1928 by Belgian frontier workers employed in French undertakings. As a result of correspondence between the Governments of Canada and the United States, the United States Secretary of Labour issued in May a series of new regulations defining on a more liberal basis the formalities for the admission of Canadians domiciled in Canada but working in the United States and the status of such workers in the United States.

Further progress has been made with the system of agreements for exchanges of a limited number of young workers who desire to stay a short time in a foreign country in order to perfect their professional or linguistic knowledge, such exchanges being carried out even during periods of crisis on the labour market. The existing network of arrangements of this kind has been extended by the conclusion of further agreements between France and the Netherlands (October 1930), Great Britain and the Netherlands (13 April 1931) and France and Poland (10 June 1931). Bilateral conversations on the same subject, opened between France on the one hand and Italy, Sweden, Switzerland and Yugoslavia on the other, have not yet produced results.

Multilateral Agreements

As a result of representations made by the International Labour Office to the League of Nations, the Organisation for Communications and Transit undertook an enquiry into the passport and visa formalities imposed on immigrants belonging to various countries and races.

The enquiries into unemployment undertaken separately or jointly by the International Labour Office and the Commission of Enquiry for European Union cover, among other problems, that of the transfer of population and the migration of workers. In a resolution of 2 July the Mixed Unemployment Committee formed by the two bodies repeated the suggestions put forward in January by the Unemployment Committee of the International Labour Office, reaffirming in particular, as has been seen above, the necessity of organising the international migration of workers, and demanding that a technical placing Conference should be convened to discuss among other things the methods employed for the actual transference of labour from one country to another. At the same time, the Mixed Committee and the Commission of Enquiry for European Union approved in principle a plan submitted by the International Institute of Agriculture proposing that a better utilisation of the factors of production (labour, land and capital) should be secured by means of organised international collaboration. Prominence was thus given to the idea that the economic balance of Europe could be more securely restored if its surplus population were to be employed in exploiting undeveloped territories that might usefully absorb it.

The International Association for Social Progress adopted in October a resolution embodying a general plan of action in the sphere of migration, intended at once to remove the obstacles to the rational organisation of migration movements and to remedy the effects of the international rivalry between interests both private and political which centres in the migration movement. The principles governing international law on migration should be based, from the social standpoint, on the need of protecting both the material and the moral interests of migrants and of securing equality of treatment for national and foreign workers; from the economic standpoint, on a better and more thorough organisation of the labour market by distributing information on the demand for and supply of labour, encouraging the transfer of suitable workers, and comparing the placing methods employed, and from the political standpoint, on the necessity of clearly defining by Conventions the measures that may legitimately be adopted by the authorities of the countries concerned, either to maintain the natural links between emigrants and their own countries, or to facilitate their assimilation by country of immigration.

The Permanent Conference for the Protection of Migrants devoted its annual meeting to the study of three main questions—the

measures to be adopted in respect of the repatriation and protection of emigrants returning home without resources; the recruiting of migrant workers, the enforcement of their contracts of employment, and the economic, social and cultural position of immigrant workers; and the maintenance by emigrants of members of their family remaining in the country of origin.

The unfavourable condition of the labour market has not prevented the trade associations from following attentively at their international congress all problems connected with the movement of workers. In May, the International Conference of Hotel, Café and Restaurant Employees drew attention to the abuses to which the wholesale and uncontrolled introduction of foreign hotel employees in certain countries has given rise, and suggested a comprehensive scheme of remedies and measures, which included regular and centralised issue of information by the trade unions on the conditions of the labour market in the hotel industry, representation of the competent trade associations on the official bodies for the recruiting and admission of foreign labour, regulation of the employment of foreigners in management posts, necessity for a written contract of employment, replacing of private employment agencies by public exchanges. The question of the international exchange of young workers, which is of special interest to the printing industry, was considered on 15 June by a meeting of representatives of the Master Printers Associations and Typographical Workers' Unions of Czechoslovakia, France, Germany and Great Britain. This meeting, which was held under the auspices of the International Labour Office with the participation of the Governments of the four countries, recognised that the exchanges in question, affecting as they do only a very small number of workers, could not affect the labour market and that they might be carried out within the framework of existing bilateral agreements, provided that in practice the necessity for collaboration between the official bodies and the employers' and workers' organisations were borne in mind.

International Regulations[1]

Convention concerning unemployment (1919)

Chile. — A report by the factory inspectorate of 28 August 1931 states that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931, and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

[1] Under this heading, as in the *Annual Review* for 1930, will be found information relating to the Conventions and Recommendations concerning unemployment, placing, and migration. The information given relates to the year 1931. For the general situation in regard to the Conventions, see the tables appended to this volume.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Netherlands. — The Act respecting the finding of employment, which, among other matters, gives effect to this Convention, came into force on 1 January 1932.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved of by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except, however, those which concern the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to resubmit these Conventions to the Chamber.

Recommendation concerning unemployment (1919)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that the operation of private employment offices for gain is prohibited in Nova Scotia, Manitoba, Saskatchewan, Alberta and British Columbia, while private employment agencies are subject to provincial regulation in Quebec and Ontario. No legislation has been adopted in Canada relative to the proposals in the remaining sections of the Recommendation.

Recommendation concerning reciprocity of treatment of foreign workers (1919)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that no legislation exists in Canada on the subject dealt with in this Recommendation.

Convention concerning the simplification of the inspection of emigrants on board ship (1926)

Australia. — Ratification was registered on 18 April 1931.

Canada. — The Dominion Government has pointed out to the Office that certain parts of the Immigration Act provide for inspection abroad and on board ship, and accord a certain amount of protection to emigrants. This Act, however, does not appear to contain any provision for the nomination of an official inspector, to travel on emigrant ships with a view to ensuring the enforcement of all Acts, Regulations or Agreements for the protection of emigrants on board.

Chile. — A report of the Labour Inspectorate, dated 28 August 1931, indicates that a Decree for the codification of the labour laws, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the provisions needed to render operative those Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

France. — Conditional ratification of the Convention was authorised by an Act of 15 August 1931 (on condition of ratification by Poland, Spain and Italy) [1].

Hungary. — Ratification registered on 3 February 1931.

Poland. — The Convention was transmitted by the Government to the President of the Chamber with the information that the Government considers ratification undesirable.

Spain. — Submitted to the Council of Labour for examination.

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[1] This ratification was registered on 13 January 1932.

Recommendation concerning the protection of emigrant women and girls on board ship (1926)

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Hungary. — The Royal Hungarian Government, while recognising the utility and advantages of the Recommendations, does not consider it opportune to take steps in regard to it, seeing that Hungary does not at present possess any ships transporting emigrants (15 April 1931).

Other Information

Canada. — The Dominion Government states that no legislation exists on this matter. However, women, specially engaged for the purpose, are employed on all British passenger boats carrying emigrants to Canada; they afford the emigrants all necessary assistance.

CHAPTER VI

SPECIAL CATEGORIES OF WORKERS

Mercantile Marine
Sea Fishing — Inland Navigation — Air Navigation

Mercantile Marine

The Economic Crisis

The economic crisis has affected merchant shipping throughout the whole world, sparing neither flag, class of trade, nor any of the industries allied to shipping; while it increased in severity as the year advanced. The crisis was marked by a steady increase in the number of laid-up ships, by a persistent fall in freights, by the collapse of several important shipping concerns and the financial difficulties from which nearly all shipping companies have suffered, by a falling off in the movement of ships in the chief ports and through the Suez and Panama Canals, and lastly by a general cessation of shipbuilding. The crisis has reacted so severely on seamen that a few preliminary words as to its causes and chief aspects are essential.

The difficulties from which merchant shipping has suffered are not due exclusively to trade depression. Shipping, which had felt the great depression of 1921-1922 so severely, has now had to face a new and disastrous crisis at a time when the industry was only beginning to recover a stability which was bound to be precarious, as long as there existed any considerable disparity between the amount of existing tonnage and the goods available for transport.

There can be no question, and this is the determining factor of the crisis, that shipping has increased faster than world trade; and even had no interruption occurred in the economic expansion of certain countries, the total amount of tonnage now available would probably have been considerably in excess of the demand. Statistics show that there were 68,720,000 gross tons of mechanically propelled vessels in existence in 1931, as against 43,079,000 in 1913—an increase of over 50 per cent. But the increase in effective transport capacity was still greater, since the increase in the total quantity of world tonnage has been accompanied

by an improvement in quality. Taking this factor into account, together with the increasing rapidity with which cargo is handled in ports, no surprise will be felt that the British Chamber of Shipping has estimated that the transport capacity of the mercantile marine as a whole was in 1931 75 per cent. greater than before the war.

With the cessation of hostilities, and during the period which preceded the present crisis, a number of economic upheavals occurred which have reacted unfavourably on shipping. These include the cessation and dislocation of important trade currents, the increasing industrialisation of certain agricultural countries, and the cessation of migration on a large scale.

The shipping industry has endeavoured to meet this altered situation; but how could shipowners be expected to cope with a sudden and general fall in the volume of international trade, coupled with the policy of so many countries, which aimed at becoming self-sufficing by imposing heavy duties on foreign goods or limiting imports ?

Moreover the severity of the crisis affecting shipping has been heightened by currency depreciation in some countries, and by the instability of the foreign exchanges. The determining factor in this connection, the fall in the pound sterling, which served as a unit of currency for most maritime transactions, was an additional element of difficulty and loss. These various factors serve to explain the collapse in freights, which are estimated to have fallen to 21 per cent. below pre-war rates, and the enormous amount of shipping laid up.

The last feature of the crisis deserves special attention in view of its direct effect on the employment of officers and seamen. The table on the following page shows the rapid increase in laid-up shipping during the first and second quarters of 1931, and enables interesting comparisons to be made between the position in the principal maritime countries.

However eloquent these figures may appear in themselves, they are inadequate to give an idea of the extent of the crisis; and the actual employment of vessels in service must also be taken into account. For it is certain that the extent to which ships are effectively utilised, despite all the shipowners' efforts at rationalisation and agreement, is becoming relatively smaller. The British Chamber of Shipping has emphasised this aspect of the crisis in its annual report for 1931, where it is stated that three ships are doing the work of two.

Some shipowners have appealed for State aid to meet these difficulties, and have sought to obtain a monopoly to work certain lines; and, in some cases, seafarers' organisations have associated themselves with these proposals. But these suggestions are too isolated in character, conceived too purely in the national interest, to deserve more than passing mention. Some attempt must, however, be made to describe certain measures or proposals of a more general and international character.

LAID-UP SHIPPING (SEA-GOING SHIPS ONLY)

Ports	First months 1931	July 1931	First months 1932
	Gross tonnage	Gross tonnage	Gross tonnage
Australia	171,000	133,000	—
Belgium:			
Belgian shipping	77,233	—	188,000
Foreign shipping	109,000	—	186,000
Denmark	133,700	154,400	225,173
Finland	—	35,000	8,267
France:			
French shipping	229,111	566,782	768,020
Foreign shipping	28,596	20,223	21,644
Germany:			
German shipping	646,208	682,082	1,009,823
Foreign shipping	—	—	120,000
Great Britain:			
British shipping	2,512,184	3,229,208	3,113,723
Foreign shipping	37,011	41,339	32,544
Greece	223,151	300,133	179,622
Italy	672,056	782,937	828,518
Japan	325,279	205,000	500,000
Netherlands:			
Dutch shipping	425,310	529,081	781,514
Foreign shipping	—	—	120,000
New Zealand	—	70,000	—
Norway	572,420	815,777	915,348
Spain	120,000	85,000	—
Sweden	131,055	118,563	180,688
United States	2,574,000	2,601,000	3,030,531
Total for above countries	8,987,314	10,369,525	12,209,475
Total (estimated) for all countries	9,820,000	11,600,000	13,800,000

Notes. — *Denmark:* The average tonnage of shipping laid up increased from 70,300 in 1930 to 180,100 in 1931. *Finland:* 8,627 tons gross (5,266 tons net) laid up for the whole year; 35,000 gross tons (including sailing ships) at the beginning of September. *Greece:* Exclusive of sailing ships. *Italy;* The amount of laid-up shipping (including sailing vessels) due solely to economic causes (i.e. exclusive of vessels undergoing repairs) was 631,609 tons in January 1932, 570,589 in July 1931, and 589,081 in January 1931. *Japan:* The figures for 1932 only include mechanically propelled ships over 1,000 tons; none of the three columns include ships temporarily laid up for repairs etc., amounting to 265,515 tons on 23 January 1931. *New Zealand:* At the end of December 1931 there were 14 vessels, with a gross tonnage of 37,399, laid up at Auckland alone. *Norway:* The above figures do not include either coasting or fishing vessels; nor the whaling fleet of 330,000 tons, which remained completely unemployed during 1931. *Spain:* The figures are incomplete and only relate to a few of the principal ports. *Sweden:* Exclusive of ships under 300 tons, and ships temporarily laid up for repairs, etc. *United States;* The above figures are exclusive of sailing ships laid up, probably amounting to from 150,000 to 180,000 tons gross. *Yugoslavia:* The only figures available relate to June 1930: 59,450 tons laid up.

In the first place shipowners have endeavoured to reduce working expenses. The financial burdens to which shipping is subject include port and harbour dues, lighting and buoyage charges, inspection and classification fees, maritime canal tolls, ice patrol fees, etc. But though shipowners' organisations have everywhere insisted on a reduction of charges of this kind, they have only obtained satisfaction in some cases and to a limited degree.

Shipowners have also sought to reduce another item in working expenses, a comparatively small one, namely, wages and salaries. The cost of handling goods has been decreased by a reduction in dockers' wages, which occurred towards the end of the year in several countries, in particular in Germany, Belgium, the United States, Great Britain and the Netherlands. And with a view to lowering the wages bill on board ship, various ingenious technical improvements have been effected in ship construction and equipment, many of which involve considerable capital outlay. The adoption of the internal-combustion engine and oil fuel have made it possible to reduce the engine room staff considerably. But in many countries efforts have tended to reducing wages and the strength of deck staff. These are dealt with in detail below under the headings " Wages " and " Hours of Work ".

On the other hand, with a view to limiting competition or lowering overhead charges (e.g. administration and management, foreign agencies, commissions, etc.), many companies have concluded understandings, or formed combines. International understandings, generally known as " shipping conferences ", which aim at regulating traffic on certain lines, have been also strengthened and re-organised; and the formation of new " pools " or combines has enabled shipping concerns under the same flag, and in some cases even those of different nationality, to pool their earnings. Many fusions have taken place. In 1930 the two largest German Companies, the Hamburg Amerika and the Nord-Deutscher Lloyd, had concluded an agreement which embraced a number of allied or subsidiary companies. The year 1931 saw a considerable extension of this policy: important fusions took place in the United States and in Italy, while in France and Japan, interests were organised on a common basis [1].

[1] The following table shows the tonnage of the principals hipping companies or groups, the groups formed in 1930 being marked with an asterisk:

Companies, groups or conferences	Aggregate gross tonnage
Royal Mail Group	2,520,074
Peninsular and Oriental Company	2,232,013
Hapag-Norddeutscher Lloyd	1,962,514 *
" " " plus 4 companies	2,500,000 *
Dollar-Dawson-Roosevelt	1,406,085 *
Nippon Yusen-Osaka Shosen	1,391,571 *
Transatlantique-Chargeurs réunis	1,106,765 *
Cunard Line	950,559
Italia-Lloyd Trestino	832,603 *
Ellerman Lines	829,755
Furness, Withy and Company	651,573

Conferences, pools, and other types of combines are evidently favourable to the organisation of shipping on rational lines; and as far as seamen are concerned the consolidation of shipping services may serve, in the future, to guarantee regularity of employment for the crews of the vessels affected. But the economies resulting from fusions of this kind necessarily include the suppression of a certain number of posts either afloat or ashore, and economies of this kind are generally the first to be made.

Lastly, attempts have been made to deal with the principal cause of the crisis, namely, superfluity of tonnage, by one of two methods: an agreement for laying up, or the compulsory scrapping of a sufficiently large proportion of existing ships.

Japanese shipowners seem to have been the first to try to carry out a concerted laying-up plan. But in Europe the problem has remained in the academic stage; and the various suggestions mooted have received little or no encouragement. This applies particularly to the detailed plan discussed by a Committee of the Baltic and International Maritime Conference, which aimed at laying up half the tonnage habitually employed in the Baltic and White Sea timber trade during the early months of the season.

As regards scrapping excess tonnage, any such scheme could only be contemplated internationally, except in isolated cases, since a plan of this kind, to be effective and not to prejudice any individual country, would have to be applied to all merchant navies. Taken in this sense, proposals for immediate and final scrapping have been made by several outstanding shipping personalities; but the shipowners by whom they have been examined have reported unfavourably on these schemes. In Great Britain, a special Committee appointed by the Board of Trade in November, 1930, consisting of three shipowners and two independent members, has recently issued its report. The majority emphasise the difficulties which would occur in Great Britan, both in selecting the vessels for scrapping and in providing compensation for their owners. Whilst stating that any concerted scrapping policy could only be effective if carried out internationally, the Committee added that, even supposing all the chief maritime countries were prepared to agree to it in principle, its realisation would encounter insuperable practical difficulties; and the Committee of the Baltic Conference which studied the problem came to a similar conclusion. Nevertheless, the idea of scrapping a portion of the existing tonnage has been contemplated in another form. The scheme, in this instance, would aim not at an international understanding between shipowners, but at an agreement between Governments, a so-called "Washington Treaty" for merchant navies, which would specify what ships were to be kept afloat. Is an agreement of this kind possible ? A number of objections would have to be answered and many difficulties overcome before it could be concluded, the chief one being that of fixing a criterion for selecting the vessels to be scrapped. It would clearly be necessary to agree upon complex formulae, varying with the class of vessel, and

sufficiently flexible to obtain the acceptance of all maritime countries.

A discussion of these schemes between the shipowners and Governments of certain countries would afford a basis for general negotiations between all maritime countries; and the conclusions of the Franco-German Economic Committee may be recalled in this connection. In a Protocol signed on 27 November 1931 by the representatives of the two States, French and German shipping companies were invited to concert together with a view to finding means of adapting their services to the needs of the traffic on the chief maritime routes, and limiting the number, speed and tonnage of the vessels to be built for service on the great international liner routes during the forthcoming years. French and German shipping companies should endeavour to make agreements, on both these points, with the shipping companies of other countries concerned and urge upon their respective Governments to support the idea of an international agreement. The Committee also showed that it was not oblivious of the importance of international labour legislation in connection with the equalisation of working expenses in the various mercantile marines, referring specifically to the action already taken by the International Labour Organisation in this sense, and expressing the hope that " the question may eventually be settled in such a way as to give satisfaction to all parties concerned ".

Acting on these conclusions, French and German shipping companies have asked the representatives of the chief " shipping conferences " to examine the possibility of taking concerted measures internationally to adopt tonnage to traffic needs and regulate the question of new shipbuilding; while the French Government has given the clearest possible indication of its intention to enter resolutely on the path of international agreement. In a report distributed on 14 December to the members of the Budget Committee, it declared its intention of " obtaining the co-operation of the various maritime countries with a view to arriving at a general agreement as to the measures best calculated to alleviate the existing shipping crisis ". The actual text of the report may be quoted with advantage.

> Instead of persisting in the present method of unrestricted competition, which must necessarily prove injurious to each country individually, it would be of great advantage to reach agreement on the principal questions affecting shipping: namely, tonnage, freights, unemployment; an agreement for a more rational working of the principal international lines; agreement on labour legislation.

It will be noticed that this programme specifically refers to unemployment among seamen as one of the problems requiring solution, and indicates international labour legislation as an appropriate method.

In any case the effect of the adoption of any of the methods proposed for alleviating the existing crisis on seamen must not be lost sight of. If a reduction of existing world tonnage were

suddenly carried out it might ensure security of employment in the future; but it would produce a serious immediate increase of unemployment.

Without going more closely into the comparative merits of all these various schemes, it may be noted that all imply international agreement and application; and that none of them could be regarded as satisfactory unless they tended to ensure a proper equilibrium between the interests of the chief professional groups engaged in the industry.

Unemployment

How has the crisis affected unemployment ?

It is clear, in the first place, that the existence of a considerable percentage of laid-up merchant ships involves corresponding unemployment among seamen, which is intensified by the fact that they belong to a specialised occupation and are practically debarred, particularly in the case of officers, from obtaining employment on shore.

Is it possible to make an accurate estimate of the extent of such unemployment. In most countries, unfortunately, no detailed and reliable information is obtainable. But it is possible to arrive at approximate general estimates on the basis of the number of ships laid up. It is true that the data available does not make it possible to estimate the number of seamen actually unemployed with any great accuracy; but though the ratio between a ship's tonnage and the crew carried varies considerably with the type of vessel, the class of trade, and the cargo carried, there is little doubt that a definite relationship exists between the aggregate figures of laid-up tonnage for the whole world, and even for those of individual countries, and the total number of officers and seamen unemployed as a result of the crisis; and that this ratio is a fairly constant one.

If this assumption is correct, the interest of the table of shipping laid up in 1931 and the beginning of 1932 (see above, page 368) is obvious. The figures in this table (which in some cases relate to periods before the crisis was most acute, at the end of 1931, and which exclude Great Lakes shipping and sailing vessels in the United States, Japan and Greece) reveal the existence of 14 million tons of unemployed shipping belonging to different countries. This figure represents 23 per cent of the entire merchant fleets of the world; and it is therefore legitimate to estimate the number of seamen actually shipped at 23 per cent. below the total number of officers and lower ratings who would be required to man these ships if they were all in service, a number which may be estimated at 880,000. It follows that there were approximately 200,000 officers and men unable to find employment as a result of laying up.

To illustrate this general estimate a few examples of the gravity of the unemployment crisis in several countries with an important mercantile marine are given below. These will serve to show the relative importance which must be attributed to the various

factors making for unemployment already in existence prior to the crisis [1].

Germany. — Some idea of the state of the maritime labour market (including deep-sea fishing) may be formed on the basis of the statistical data supplied by employment exchanges: (1) the index number of applications for employment per 100 vacancies; (2) the number of engagements; (3) the number of seamen remaining available. The data calculated by taking the annual average of the figures at the end of each month, are as follows:

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
(1) Applications for employment per 100 vacancies	256	249	289	411	604
(2) Engagements	5,712	5,823	6,237	4,912	3,998
(3) Number still available	7,157	7,223	9,100	13,705	19,007

The index number of applications for employment, as compared with vacancies, shows the increasing disproportion between supply and demand. Whereas in 1927 there were five applicants for two posts, the number had increased to twelve in 1931, while the number of engagements, which showed a serious falling off in 1930, fell 20 per cent. further in 1931. As to the average number who were unable to obtain employment on board ship (who may be generally considered as unemployed seamen), a comparison with the period 1927-1929 shows that this figure was 75 per cent. higher in 1930, and 250 per cent. higher in 1931.

It would also seem possible to estimate the direct effect of laying up at a given date in 1931, since it has been calculated that the crews of 219 merchant ships (representing 764,680 gross tons) laid up on 1 December amounted to 8,636 officers and men of all ratings. Adding the few thousand seamen discharged as a result of the laying up of some hundred deep-sea fishing vessels, it may be considered that 9,640 of the 19,965 seamen registered as unemployed by the employment exchanges at the end of November were due to laying up.

Great Britain. — The evidence supplied by unemployment insurance statistics is fairly similar to that revealed by the employment exchange statistics in Germany; but two differences must be noted. First, deep-sea fishermen are not grouped with

[1] Five of these may be mentioned: permanent excess of seamen seeking employment in most maritime countries; the intermittent character of maritime work; technical improvements contributing to reduce the number of the crew; facility of access to certain kinds of maritime work resulting from these improvements; the possibility of sea fishermen being employed as able seamen.

merchant fishermen, and secondly a considerable proportion of officers are not included in the figures, since all those whose earnings exceed a certain figure are not eligible for unemployment insurance.

The following table shows the number of insured seamen, the number of insured seamen unemployed, the tonnage of ships laid up, and the percentage of unemployment in all occupations for the years 1927-1931.

	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931
Merchant seamen:					
(1) Number of insured (in July)	140,190	139,220	141,420	144,240	161,430
(2) Unemployed (average number)	21,706	22,575	24,832	35,785	51,396
(3) Average unemployment (percentage of insured unemployed)	15.4	16.2	17.5	24.8	31.8
Tonnage of ships laid up [1]:					
(1) Maximum	420 (July)	415 (Oct.)	365 (Dec.)	1,570 (Dec.)	2,082 (Oct.)
(2) Minimum	273 (Oct.)	363 (April)	236 (April)	365 (Jan.)	1,570 (Jan.)
Unemployment for all occupations: Average unemployment (percentage)	9.8	10.9	10.5	16.4	21.7

[1] In thousands of net tons; from 1927-1929 the figures only refer to ships laid up in the principal ports.

The causal relationship between laying up and seamen's unemployment is evident: unemployment was twice as acute in 1931 as during the three years 1927-1929. Out of 161,000 insured seamen, 51,000 were unable to obtain work; which shows that there was almost one unemployed seamen for two seamen shipped. Unemployment was therefore 50 per cent. more acute for seamen than for other occupations as a whole.

France. — The effects of the shipping crisis only began to show themselves clearly in 1931; and this applies equally to unemployment among seamen. In 1930 the index number of applications for employment per 100 vacancies was more satisfactory than during the two previous years; but in 1931 the number of ships laid up increased so rapidly that at the end of the year there were 12,000 seamen unemployed, including 2,000 masters and officers.

Norway. — The effects of the crisis began to be manifest in 1930, specially towards the end of the year; but if unemployment only

became acute relatively comparatively late, the severity of the crisis in 1931 was all the more striking.

In 1931 there was greater employment among lower ratings during the month in which the minimum number of unemployed were registered than during the worst months during the period 1925-1930; while the average figure for the first eight months of 1931 shows increases of 53.7 and 65.7 per cent respectively compared with the corresponding periods in 1930 and 1929. As regards officers, the number of engineer officers registered with their trade union organisations as seeking employment was three times higher in 1931 than in 1929.

The number of officers and seamen discharged as a result of laying up may be estimated at between 12,000 and 13,000. But this figure only relates to merchant seamen strictly so-called, and excludes ordinary unemployment. To form a true idea of unemployment among Norwegian seamen as a whole, some attempt should be made to estimate the number of unemployed in coastal and deep-sea fishing: unfortunately this is extremely difficult. The number of seamen included in the total of 10,000 persons employed in whaling ships, which were laid up throughout the year, must also be taken into account.

Australia. — Unemployment among seamen increased steadily from 1927 to 1931. The average annual figures for lower ratings, on 30 June for each year and for the principal ports, were 1,952, 2,302, 2,777 and 3,390. These figures are parallel to those for laid-up ships, on 30 June of the same years: 57,000, 71,000, 119,000 and 133,000 tons. It may be estimated that the number of unemployed seamen on 30 June 1931 was equivalent to the number employed on board Australian ships at the same date (3,518).

Remedies for Unemployment

Measures aiming at excluding foreign seamen. — Some of the measures, or suggested measures for relieving unemployment merely aim at protecting nationals, either by excluding foreign seamen wholly or in part, or by equalising the opportunities of finding employment.

In *Brazil* the Decrees of 19 August and 17 November 1931 aim at excluding foreign seamen; and provisional exceptions are only made in favour of naturalised persons actually employed on Brazilian warships or merchant vessels.

In *Greece* Act No. 5231 of 4 August 1931 only authorises the master to engage foreign seamen (for a period not exceeding six months) when it is impossible to obtain Greek seamen. The Greek Seamen's Home, an official organisation, is also prepared to provide masters with Greek seamen, even in foreign ports.

In *Turkey* a Bill has been introduced to prohibit the employment of aliens, even if resident in Turkey, on board vessels employed in harbour services and inland navigation.

In *Latvia* and *Rumania*, seafarers have asked for similar restrictions; Latvian seamen, in particular, on the ground that obstacles have recently been placed in the way of their employment on British ships.

Chilean seamen also urge, as an equitable measure, that foreign ships engaged in the coasting trade should be compelled to carry a certain percentage of Chileans.

On the other hand, in some ports at which foreign ships frequently discharge or engage the whole or a large part of their crew, measures have been taken which aim at preventing the entry of foreign seamen seeking employment, or at least restricting their number. At *Liverpool*, for instance, the immigration authorities have issued instructions that foreign crews shall only be discharged if the master undertakes to repatriate them. At *Antwerp*, foreign seamen are only allowed to land after obtaining a Belgian Consular visa certifying that they have obtained employment; while at *Marseilles*, and in other French ports, lascars are only permitted to land if in possession of a certificate attesting that they will be engaged in a British port.

Lastly, European seafarers' organisations have shown a marked tendency to seek means of restricting the recruitment of coloured seamen, which, in spite of a diminishing demand for labour, has shown little sign of falling off, at all events in the case of lascars.

Measures, or proposals, for limiting the number of national seamen. — The number of seamen can be reduced more or less speedily in any given country, either by suspending registration or the operation of administrative measures of a similar kind regulating the admission of seamen to their occupation; or by prohibiting the engagement of seamen over a certain age, who have acquired pension rights.

The former method has been adopted in *Germany* at the suggestion of the representatives of the official seamen's employment exchanges. And applicants without previous sea experience, and those seamen who have not served at sea for at least seven months in the last eighteen months, are not permitted to register. Similarly, in *Italy* the maritime registers have been closed, and have only been reopened to allow the normal working of the system of naval recruitment.

Seamen's organisations in *Portugal* have suggested similar measures; while the Royal Commission on Labour in *India* recommended that all seamen should automatically be struck off the registers three years, and subsequently eighteen months, from the date of their last discharge.

Proposals of a similar nature have been put forward in other countries with a view to reducing the redundancy of officers. *British*, *German*, and *Scandinavian* officers' organisations have suggested that the issue of certificates should be suspended, for they consider that the number of candidates would already be excessive, even if shipping activity had remained normal. In

Norway, the Minister of Commerce has appointed a committee to prepare a scheme for restricting the number of pupils in navigation schools, corresponding to actual needs.

In *Italy*, it has been suggested that all seamen on reaching sixty years of age (fifty for engine-room staff) and with acquired pension rights should be compulsorily retired; and it was pointed out that such a measure will be facilitated by the improvement in pension rates which occurred in Italy last year (as in France and in Belgium). Officers' organisations in the *Netherlands* have suggested, on similar grounds, that they should be granted pensions at fifty-five years.

State aid. — Seafarers in some countries have urged the Government to assist shipowners to maintain the working of certain lines, or certain classes of ships; and State aid has been sought in *France*, *Japan*, and *Portugal* for this purpose. In *Italy* the Seamen's Federation joined with the shipowners in obtaining a Government subvention for cargo vessels. It is to be granted for one year (up to 35 million lire) in the form of mileage subsidies proportionate to the age and tonnage of the ship. It is estimated that it should enable shipowners to recoup half the loss due to the fall in the pound.

State aid in combating unemployment may also assume other forms than financial assistance to shipowners. The principal officers' organisation in the *United States* has suggested that unemployed officers might be granted temporary commissions in the Navy. In *Spain* a number of posts in the harbour and river services, in navigation schools and maritime courts have been reserved for officers; proposals of a similar character have been made by *German* and *Portuguese* officers. Loans might also be granted to unemployed officers: a measure adopted in *Greece* by the official Seamen's Home, which makes advances up to 2,000 drachma. Special relief work for seamen has also been organised, particularly in *Japan*, where a Government grant of 450,000 yen has made it possible to find work for 2,000 officers and seamen. Action has also been taken to enable unemployed officers and seamen to devote their spare time to improving their professional instruction (e.g. attending wireless and signal lectures, *Germany;* courses in stoking, *Italy*), while institutions exist in *Sweden* which provide board and lodging, as well as giving instruction.

Measures adopted by seafarers' organisations. — Some officers' organisations, particularly in *Great Britain*, have appealed to their members in regular employment to take one or two months' holiday without pay so as to enable their unemployed colleagues to obtain temporary employment. This proposal has actually been put into practice by the wireless operators' organisations in *Belgium* and *Great Britain*, resulting in a system of rotation ensuring from six to nine months employment per annum for each member of the organisation.

In *Italy* the Seamen's Federation has organised a system for

employing officers in rotation on board the ships belonging to its co-operative shipping undertaking. This system guarantees stability of employment for nearly nine months in the year; and it will be extended next year, in agreement with the shipowners' organisation to the whole merchant fleet.

Seamen's organisations in *Australia* and *New Zealand* have also expressed themselves as favourable to a policy of rotation.

Hours of Work

Since 1919 there has been a tendency to reduce working hours on board, with the eight-hour day as a possible goal in view. What has been the effect of the crisis in this connection ? What progress or the reverse has occurred during 1931 ? An eight-hour working day on board ship has been introduced in two countries: in Argentina, with a forty-eight hour week, and in Chile, with a fifty-six-hour week. The eight-hour regime has also been consolidated in Spain by the introduction of a forty-eight-hour week in the national coasting trade, and the adoption of fresh provisions in other trades; and in Greece by the adoption of penalties for the infringement of manning scale rules.

Argentina. — The general eight-hour regime, introduced by Act No. 11544, has been applied to sea-going ships and to river navigation by a Decree of 1 January 1931. But the organisations concerned are made responsible for agreeing on practical methods of application, including time-tables for duty and shifts, and for drawing up rules for granting the weekly rest or compensating it.

Chile. — Legislative Decree of 13 May 1931 introduces a fifty-six-hour week at sea and a forty-eight-hour week in home ports or final ports of discharge, hours in ports of call being the same as at sea. The whole crew is also entitled to eight hours' consecutive rest in the twenty-four, while those employed on watch duty are guaranteed four hours' rest before going on duty. Overtime shall, as a general rule, be remunerated; and, except where the safety of the ship is involved, total working hours, both normal and overtime, shall not exceed ten per day.

Greece. — Act No. 5231 of 4 August 1931 does not involve any alteration in the manning scales imposed by previous Decrees, but its provisions aim at ensuring their more effective application. Fines are provided in cases of infringement; while masters, in addition to a fine, become liable to a temporary suspension of certificate.

Spain. — Provisions regarding working hours on sea-going and sea fishing vessels, and on craft employed in harbour services, have been recast in Chapter VI of the Labour Code promulgated in the Decree of 1 July 1931, which confirms the provisions of the Royal Decree of 2 October 1930 introducing a forty-eight-hour

week for the deck and engine-room staff on national coasting trade ships. In other trades, the engine-room staff enjoy a forty-eight-hour week, while the deck staff work twelve hours at sea, and nine or ten hours in port. The catering staff is normally required to be on duty for twelve hours, with eight consecutive hours' guaranteed rest. Precise rules are laid down for limiting overtime, determining overtime payments, and fixing the number and strength of watches. The administrative authorities have also issued manning scales for national coasting trade ships to ensure a crew strength sufficient for applying a forty-eight hour week; these are based on tonnage, horse power, and the time the ship remains at sea.

In several countries, including Denmark, Finland, the Netherlands and Norway, collective agreements have been renewed without any alteration of existing working hours.

In the *Netherlands* the rules relating to working hours have not been altered in the new collective agreement concluded between officers and shipowners. The lower ratings have hitherto refused to ship under the new conditions; but it does not appear that shipowners, should they succeed in concluding an agreement with the seamen's organisations, have any intention of introducing new rules as regards working hours.

In *Finland* and *Norway* existing legislation relating to working hours has prevented any modification of these as a result of the denunciation of existing collective agreements. In Norway proposals for modifying the existing rules concerning manning and hours of work could only be carried out by fresh legislation. In Finland the shipowners' refusal to enter into negotiations with seamen for the conclusion of a fresh collective agreement cannot affect the present system of working hours, which is determined by law.

In *Denmark* and *Sweden* existing collective agreements have been renewed from year to year, without any modification being suggested by either party.

On the other hand, the renewal of collective agreements in *Germany* and *Italy*, and to some extent, in *Great Britain*, has not been effected without a prolongation of working hours, or a reduction in crew strengths.

Germany.— The revision of general working conditions, involved by the conclusion of a new collective agreement on 12 October 1931, entailed a slight modification of working hours in port, and a more serious one at sea. In port, a normal eight-hour day is still in force, but may be prolonged by one hour (instead of half an hour) for complementary work connected with loading and unloading. At sea, the three-watch system on deck is only maintained on ships over 2,600 tons gross (instead of 2,000 tons formerly); and work in the engine room is only organised in three

watches (in other than distant trades) on (1) ships over 1,600 (formerly 1,000) tons trading to Mediterranean and neighbouring ports; and (2) ships over 2,000 tons (previously 1,600) trading to Northern European ports, including French Atlantic ports. These provisions permit a considerable reduction in crew strength (two watch system on the ships affected), while involving a prolongation of working hours estimated at from three to four.

Italy. — The manning scales annexed to the national collective agreement which came into force on 1 January 1931 show that seafarers have consented to heavy sacrifices in order to assist cargo owners during the crisis, particularly as regards Mediterranean owners. This part of the agreement is subject to revision in the light of experience after one year's application.

Great Britain. — The National Maritime Board rules only regulate working hours for lower ratings *in port.* These remain unaltered, but the National Seamen's Union has accepted slight reductions in manning on certain ships. Isolated instances of infringement of the National Maritime Board rules concerning the three-watch system for deck officers have also been noted; but no general lowering of the standards fixed by the Board appears to have occurred.

Can any conclusions legitimately be drawn from this rapid summary of the various favourable and unfavourable events connected with working hours on board ? In those countries where working hours are subject to legislation, the existing rules have been maintained and in some cases even their scope has been extended. But in others serious modifications must be noted, all the more regrettable in view of the tendency to demand similar concessions in other countries on the ground of international competition and the need for reducing working expenses.

At a time when unemployment among officers and seamen is acute, it must be recognised that prolongations in working hours or reductions in crew strength have occurred, and are in danger of becoming more general. Measures of this kind, which are powerless in themselves to alleviate the depression in shipping, must inevitably intensify the difficulty of finding employment for seamen, and until international legislation is adopted are bound to threaten what has already been achieved nationally in this domain.

Safety of Crews

Slow but steady progress in the ratification of the two principal international Conventions which affect the safety of crews may be noted, namely, the 1929 *Convention on safety of life at sea,* and the 1930 *Convention on load lines.*

At the end of 1931 the safety Convention had been ratified by *Canada, Denmark* and the *Netherlands,* while the ratification Bill

in *Germany* had been adopted by the Reichstag. The load line Convention had been ratified by *Canada*, *Denmark*, *Latvia* and the *United States*.

In *Great Britain*, the passage of the Bill for the simultaneous ratification of the two Conventions was delayed by the dissolution of Parliament. It was reintroduced by the new Government, was read a third time in the House of Lords at the end of the year, and was to be reintroduced in the House of Commons early in 1932.

In *France*, a Bill for ratifying the safety Convention has been adopted by both branches of the legislature; while in *Italy* and the *United States* Bills have been introduced for this purpose. In *Sweden* and *Norway* the competent Government departments have declared themselves in favour of ratification, as soon as this has been carried out by Great Britain. Lastly, the *Yugoslav* Government has declared its intention of issuing rules in conformity with those of the Convention, as soon as the latter has been put into force.

A Bill for ratification of the load-line Convention is at present before the *French* Chamber of Deputies; meanwhile, pending its adoption, the rules applicable to tankers and timber-carrying vessels have been applied in France by Ministerial Decree. Similarly, in *Belgium*, *Germany*, *Norway* and *Sweden* legislative measures have been taken, at the instance of shipowners, which permit the application of the load-line rules embodied in the Convention to the ships of these countries. In the *United States*, following on the ratification of the Convention by the Senate, the competent authorities took steps for assigning load lines to those American ships (approximately 15,000) which are subject to its provisions. Some 11,000 applications for assignments have already been made, and 480 certificates granted. The extension of the load-line rules to ships engaged exclusively in the national coasting trade, and to Great Lakes shipping (two classes of ships excluded from the scope of the 1930 Act) has been recommended by the Federal Shipping Commissioner, and is at present under consideration.

Among the measures, or proposed measures, which have been taken nationally, some, though only indirectly connected with international Convention, nevertheless deserve special mention.

In *France*, a Bill has been introduced for amending the Act of 1907 on safety at sea so as to bring it into harmony with modern requirements. Its provisions are in conformity with the international rules on safety and load lines, even going beyond them in certain respects. The principal innovations are the application of the Act to ships of small tonnage, or to other classes of vessels (e.g. sailing ships with auxiliary engines, dredgers, lighters, etc.) previously excluded from the scope of the regulations, and the creation of a body of marine engineer inspectors. Ministerial instructions have also been issued, which aim at reinforcing existing measures of supervision, and impose special tests of seaworthiness, particularly as regards the stability of small craft carrying passengers.

In *Poland* where shipping is still comparatively undeveloped, an Order of 24 November 1930 concerning safety of ships at sea provides for a revision of the existing rules, and, in particular, for organising a corps of safety inspectors.

Reference may also be made to an *Italian* Decree of 25 May 1930 making it compulsory for all members of the crew to have a knowledge of swimming and rowing.

Reference was made in last year's *Annual Review* to the results of the Lisbon Conference on *buoyage* and *lighting*, and to the possibility of resuming the study of the principal problem left unsolved by the Conference: namely, the adoption of a uniform system of buoyage and lighting. The necessity for effecting economies in the League budget will probably preclude another Conference being held in 1933 as has been proposed.

Wages

In a considerable number of countries, efforts to lower working expenses have involved a reduction of wages. In comparing the position at the end of 1930 with that at the conclusion of last year, countries may be classified into two groups: (1) those in which wages have remained unaltered; (2) those in which wages have actually been reduced.

Group 1. — In *Belgium* the scales agreed upon have remained unaltered. Under these, rates for firemen and able seaman are fixed (for ships in distant trades) at 1,062 and 987 Belgian francs respectively.

In *Italy* rates for *distant trades* vessels remained unaltered, at 530 and 500 lire for fireman and able seaman respectively. On the other hand, a revision of existing local agreements for ships in the *home and coasting trades* on a uniform basis took place, resulting in a levelling up of wages, which previously varied considerably and were particularly low, for example, in southern Italian ports. Rates have now been fixed at 480 and 450 lire, for fireman and able seaman respectively, on vessels under 1,600 tons in these trades.

In *Greece*, while nominal rates have remained unaltered, it must be noted that wages in a considerable number of foreign-going ships are paid in sterling, and the depreciation of the pound has consequently resulted in a decrease of real wages.

In *Denmark* and *Sweden* similarly, although the collective agreements in force were renewed and nominal rates remained unaltered, currency depreciation has probably resulted in a certain diminution of real wages.

Group 2. — *Australia* was the first maritime country where wage reductions actually took place, a fact probably attributable partly to the great severity of the economic crisis in that country, and also the exceptionally high level of existing wages. In January the Commonwealth Arbitration Court made an order involving a

10 per cent. reduction on officers' salaries; and this was subsequently extended to cover all lower ratings, firemen's and A.B.s' wages being reduced from £17 15s. to £15 8s., and from £15 15s. to £13 12s. respectively.

In *New Zealand*, similar action was taken by the Arbitration Court in revising existing agreements and imposing a 10 per cent. reduction. But this only applied to agreements concluded by registered trade unions (in this case most of the officers' organisations); and the Federated Seamen's Union, the strongest seamen's organisation which includes most of the lower ratings, was not affected by this decision, as it is not a registered trade union. It is claimed that it has been able to maintain existing rates unaltered.

The wage reduction movement has also affected the Baltic and Scandinavian countries (except Denmark and Sweden, as above noted).

In *Estonia*, firemen's and able seamen's wages were reduced to approximately £5 and £6, in the home and foreign trades respectively. In *Finland*, existing collective agreements were denounced in September; and the shipowners' organisation declared that no written agreements would be concluded in the future, and that it was intended to impose a 15 per cent. wage cut; while in *Latvia* a 10 per cent. reduction had already been effected in May.

In *Norway*, on the other hand, a protracted dispute occurred which lasted from January to September, and was only put an end to by the seamen's organisations accepting on 17 September an official award involving an average reduction of 4 per cent., both for officers and lower ratings. The new scale fixed firemen's and able seamen's wages at 149 and 144 kr. respectively; but it must be noted, as in Denmark and Sweden, that some reduction in the real wages has probably occurred owing to currency depreciation.

In *Germany* shipowners denounced the existing agreements in June, and made proposals involving drastic revision ranging from 25 to 48 per cent. in certain cases. As a result of the protracted negotiations which followed, an arbitration award was issued on 10 October providing for an all-round reduction of 13.6 per cent. as from that date; but an additional cut, under an Order of the Reich, was subsequently imposed on 1 January 1932. The new scale will remain in force until 30 April 1932, after which it can be terminated at a month's notice from either party, failing which it will remain in force for a further four months. The new scale reduces wages to the 1927 level, firemen and able seamen's rates being fixed at 113 and 103 marks respectively.

In *Great Britain* a general reduction in wages has taken place, though it is true that it only came into force in 1931 for officers; but, as already foreshadowed at the end of the year, the movement extended to lower ratings in January 1932. It was initiated by the adoption of a new scale of pay for engineer officers on motor ships, who, under existing agreements, enjoyed higher pay than

their colleagues on steamships. This scale came into force, by negotiation, on 1 October; it aimed at assimilating their pay more closely to that of engineers on steamships, and involved reductions ranging from 14 to 15 per cent. for higher grades (chief and second engineers); 11 to 13 per cent. for third engineers; while leaving the pay of junior engineers (already low) practically unchanged.

In November the shipowners' representatives on the National Maritime Board made proposals involving considerable reductions in the pay of all other officers, both deck and engineer; and, after laborious negotiations with the representatives of the latter, an agreement was finally reached in December which involved a 10 per cent. cut as from 1 January 1932, together with a curtailment of annual leave and reduction of certain allowances.

As regards wages for lower ratings, these, after negotiations commenced at the end of 1931, formed the subject of an agreement concluded on 26 January, to come into force on 31 January 1932. This agreement involves a reduction of 18s. monthly for all lower ratings on foreign-going, and 6s. weekly, on home-trade vessels, with slight exceptions in the case of some of the lowest grades. The men's representatives, however, succeeded in prevailing on shipowners to withdraw their demand for a revision of overtime rates. The new monthly rates for firemen and able seamen are £8 12s. and £8 2s. respectively, as against £9 10s. and £9 formerly; while the corresponding weekly rates are £2 16s. (as against £3 2s.) in both cases.

In the *Netherlands*, wages remained unaltered until the fall in the pound sterling. Dutch shipowners then declared that it was impossible for them to face international competition without some reduction of wages; and the officers' organisations finally consented, on 15 November, after negotiation, to a 10 per cent. cut.

Codification of Seamen's Labour Legislation

Chile. — The Chilean Government undertook a very complete revision of labour legislation, in virtue of a Legislative Decree of 18 May 1931, whose provisions came into force on 28 November. Except in the instances specifically referred to in Book V of the Code, seafarers are subject to the same legislative measures as other workers, and in consequence enjoy the benefit of provisions regarding workmen's compensation, freedom of association and labour courts.

The sixty-three sections of Book V may be said to constitute a Maritime Labour Code. There are detailed provisions concerning the engagement and discharge of seamen; and it is also provided that in case of shipwreck the crew are entitled to unemployment indemnity not exceeding two months' wages, together with allowance for the loss of personal effects. Normal working hours are fixed at fifty-six per week at sea, and on arrival and sailing days; and at forty-eight per week in port. Working hours in port fall

between 6 a.m. and 6 p.m.; while at sea, seamen cannot normally be required to perform work, other than watch duty, between 6 p.m. and 6 a.m. Overtime (except in cases of safety) shall be remunerated at 50 per cent. over normal rates during the day, and at double normal rates at night.

China. — The new Act concerning maritime trade, which was promulgated on 20 December 1929 but only came into force on 1 January 1931, contains provisions (Chapter III, sections 39-69), dealing with masters' and seamen's articles of agreement including detailed rules concerning the payment of wages. In particular, shipowners are liable for the payment of wages, and medica ltreatment and expenses in case of sickness and injury, and also for funeral expenses. Seamen landed abroad are entitled to repatriation.

Mexico. — Chapter XV of the Federal Labour Act, which came into force on 28 August 1931, contains fairly detailed regulations concerning seamen's work; dealing in particular with the conditions for entering into articles of agreement and the circumstances in which the agreement may be terminated by either party. In case of shipwreck, seamen are entitled to wages for the period during which they have been in the ship's service, to repatriation, and to special remuneration for salvage services, in the event of these having been rendered. There are also certain provisions concerning hours of work: the master is required to observe the weekly rest, either at sea or in port, provided it does not interfere with the requirements of the service, while, generally speaking, overtime is subject to remuneration. The Act also contains provisions relating to the food and accommodation of the crew.

The Fishing Industry

It would scarcely be possible, within the limits of the *Yearbook*, to make a detailed analysis of the conditions of the sea-fishing industry in its varied technical and economic aspects; and only brief references to the severe depression from which it has suffered are possible. A few examples will serve to illustrate the owners' difficulties, and their reaction on the working conditions of sea fishermen, followed by a short review of a few measures or proposed measures affecting working conditions.

The fishing industry, which had already suffered from depression in some of its branches during the last few years, underwent a general and severe crisis in 1931, particularly in those countries where it has become industrialised. The principal feature of the crisis common to the various countries affected was the falling off in sales, attributable mainly, as in the case of other commodities, to the impoverishment of the general body of consumers. But other factors, including the defective organisation of the distributing trade which prevented retail prices from reflecting

the fall in wholesale, must also be taken into account. Instead of expansion in home markets, which might have compensated for the fall in wholesale prices, a decrease in consumption occurred in many instances, which naturally entailed a restriction of owners' activities. In other cases the fall in prices was accompanied by poor sales in certain branches of the trade, the French cod-fishing, and Belgian and Dutch trawling industry being particularly affected by these two factors. Additional customs restrictions, including import quotas, and the depreciation of certain currencies also contributed to some extent to close certain markets. The German herring-fishing industry has no longer been able, as in the past, to dispose of its surplus catch in Great Britain, which also ceased to provide a profitable market for Belgian trawlers. A few examples of the critical position in certain countries are given below.

Two points are worthy of note in *Great Britain:* first, the construction of new trawlers has been entirely suspended, an unprecedented event; secondly, unemployment statistics reveal the existence of a considerable increase in the number of fishermen seeking work, though they only apply to approximately half the total number, since crews remunerated wholly or mainly by a share in profits, (the general rule in the herring fleet which suffered so severely from poor catches during recent seasons) are not eligible for insurance.

In *France* there was a marked decrease in the number of fishing boats put into commission, in consequence of a very bad deep-sea fishing season in 1930. And in 1931 only 98 sailing vessels (as against 141 in 1930, and 150 in 1929) and 37 trawlers (as against 45 in 1930) sailed for the Newfoundland and Iceland banks. The length of the season was also curtailed, in spite of the fact that some owners extended operations to the coasts of Greenland and other Arctic waters. But, in spite of these efforts, most owners of deep-sea fishing craft experienced a very poor season in 1931, a remark which also applies to trawler undertakings at Boulogne, Dieppe, La Rochelle, etc., which supply the market with fresh fish.

In *Germany* the internal market was unable to absorb an abundant catch; and fishing undertakings agreed at the end of the year to lay up a quarter of the total number of trawlers. This was possible owing to fusions among the chief companies.

In *Norway* the Lofoten Islands fisheries experienced a very poor season, aggravated by a decline in wholesale prices. In consequence, the average gross earnings of the 26,500 fishermen employed (on 8,400 vessels) in this trade fell to 377 kr. per head, though in the previous five years they had varied from 523 to 804 kr. The more prevalent use of vessels fitted with auxiliary engines, enabling them to extend their operations further afield, probably contributed to prevent the results being even poorer.

In the *Netherlands*, the Ymuiden trawlers, which had already experienced a poor season in 1930, only enjoyed two or three good months during the summer. And at the close of the year half

the total fleet of 100 trawlers was laid up, leaving approximately 1,000 seamen unemployed. Similarly in *Belgium* only 20 out of 50 trawlers were in commission; and here, as in the *Netherlands*, motor-boats engaged in coastal fishing were the only ones to experience a fairly successful season.

In *Canada* the Newfoundland season, in spite of a fairly good catch (estimated at 1,112,000 cwt.), was a disastrous one for fishermen, practically half the catch remaining unsold.

Some reference to the various measures or proposed measures affecting working conditions is also necessary.

In *Great Britain* a committee set up by the Advisory Economic Council reported that working conditions might be improved by conferring wider powers on mercantile marine superintendents in connection with employment on fishing boats. While fishermen's representatives proposed that all sea fishermen should be included in unemployment insurance, and should also be guaranteed a greater regularity of remuneration by receiving fixed wages, in addition to a share in profits.

In *France*, the difficulties experienced by owners reacted on conditions of employment. At Boulogne, in particular, it appears that the existing practice of engaging crews for the whole year, which generally gave satisfaction to both parties, will be discontinued; and in future fishermen will be engaged for an indefinite period. Fishermens' shares in profits, and the strength of the deck crews have also been reduced.

In *Belgium*, *Germany*, and the *Netherlands*, the collective agreements concluded in 1929 and 1930 provided for periodical leave at the end of each cruise, regulated working hours in home ports and pay for work in foreign ports; and the above stipulations have remained unaltered. The fixed wage rates, additional to a share in profits have also remained unchanged in *Belgium* and the *Netherlands;* but two successive cuts were made in *Germany*, which have reduced rates to 133 and 123 RM. for firemen and able seamen respectively, in the herring fishery, and to 126 and 116.5 RM. in deep-sea fishing.

In *Belgium*, the Act of 23 September 1931 for encouraging the employment of sea fishermen aims at remedying the existing lack of skilled labour, which had retarded the development of steam trawling in that country, and provides for granting bonuses for the employment of boys and apprentices.

A commission was set up by the Minister of the Interior in the *Netherlands* to propose suitable measures of a technical and economic character, and also in connection with working conditions.

In *Spain*, new regulations were issued dealing with working conditions in the fishing fleets of the North-West coast, as a result of arbitration awards. These provide for a forty-eight-hour working week while proceeding to the fishing grounds, the weekly rest, shore leave proportionate to the time spent at sea. Wages are also fixed in certain cases.

To sum up, 1931 has been the worst year ever experienced by the sea-fishing industry. The almost universal losses experienced may be attributed to unduly rapid development, aggravated by the general economic depression. And the reduction in the share of profits, the principal factor in sea fishermen's earnings, coupled with existing or probable unemployment both contribute to make the position worse. Its gravity may be realised if it is recalled that there are approximately 1½ million seamen employed wholly or partly in fishing in temperate countries alone, and that it also forms a subsidiary occupation for another million.

It is some satisfaction to note, however, that most of the measures or proposed measures affecting the working conditions in the industry do not show any tendency to regression; some of them even constitute a distinct progress in a sphere where the part played by legislation and collective agreements has hitherto been a limited one.

Inland Navigation

Position of the Industry

The general economic crisis has generally reacted severely on river shipping and on employment in this industry, though perhaps less seriously than in the case of sea shipping.

In *North America* it is estimated by the Sailors' Union of the Great Lakes that only 60 per cent. of this shipping was actively employed at the height of the season; and the Canadian Bureau of Statistics notes a serious falling off in cargoes passing through the Sault-Sainte-Marie Canal by the American and Canadian locks, which amounted to only 44,614,168 tons, a decrease of 61 per cent. in comparison with 1930.

In *Central Europe* river shipping on most of the great international rivers was seriously affected by the depression in the heavy industries. Though traffic on the Danube, owing to special circumstances, was fairly well maintained, a serious decrease of Rhine shipping took place.

It is difficult to distinguish *traffic on the Rhine* properly so-called from that on its affluents and canals; but it may be estimated that approximately 11,000 craft, with a tonnage of 7½ million, were employed, a 47 per cent. increase compared with 1914 . The total crews of these vessels may be estimated at approximately 33,000 (including 12,000 licensed watermen) as follows: 23,760 watermen, seamen and boys on barges; 6,819 watermen, seamen, boys, mechanics and firemen on tugs; 1,900 watermen on barges; 360 pilots. In 1930 there had already been a marked falling off in the activity of these vessels; and many of them remained unemployed in 1931 owing to lack of cargoes and falling freights, which only made it possible for owners, particularly in the case of the larger concerns, to cover their working expenses with great difficulty.

German river shipping, in particular, was faced with a decrease

in heavy goods offering for transport and also with severe competition from the railways. In September 1930 the German Rhine Commission, a joint organisation of employers and workers established for the purpose of examining the economic position of the owners and the social conditions of the employees, recognised that German Rhine shipping concerns, which own approximately 2½ million tons of cargo shipping, including a fleet of tugs with an aggregate horse power of 220,000 and employ 12,000 inland watermen, were confronted with very serious difficulties. In 1931 they were compelled to lay up half their fleet, involving further unemployment among inland watermen in Germany. Moreover half the vessels which were not actually laid up remained unemployed for want of freights; and it may be estimated that only one quarter of the total number of German Rhine craft were in regular employment during the year. To find remedies for this disastrous state of things, the Association for the Defence of Rhine Shipping Interests submitted a series of proposals to the Chancellor of the Reich, involving, *inter alia*, an increase in railway rates (the railway companies, it is alleged, having adopted a policy hostile to river shipping), a reduction in fiscal burdens on river shipping, and lastly, a reduction of wages and social charges (which vary considerably in different countries, but weigh particularly heavily on German river shipping). In consequence of renewed applications from owners and watermen, a Legislative Decree *(Notverordnung)* was issued on 23 December 1931, which empowers the Reich: (1) to group river shipping concerns, and to limit the number and to restrict the employment of barges and tugs; (2) to fix, with the assent of the organisations concerned, freights, towage rates, and commission charges; to regulate the distribution of cargoes; and to impose penalties, in the shape of fines, for infringements of these rules. Wages were fixed by an arbitration award on 31 August. Shipowners had already, in view of economic difficulties, reduced the rates settled by arbitration on 4 November 1930 by 8 per cent.; but the effect of the new award, which came into force on 1 September 1931, was to reduce this to 6 per cent. for watermen, firemen and apprentices; and to 7 per cent. for masters, officers and mechanics.

Rhine shipping under other flags, though less severely hit than German shipping, was not spared. The total tonnage of vessels of various flags laid up from February to October in Ruhr ports amounted to 950,000, including 600,000 tons of German, 200,000 tons of Dutch, and 150,000 tons belonging to other flags. Several large shipping concerns, belonging to different countries, were induced in consequence to conclude agreements involving concentration. German, Dutch and Belgian river craft owners' associations have established a central freight office at Rotterdam to regulate up-river cargoes. But these measures can only have an appreciable effect on freights if all or the great majority of shipowners concerned participate. And this also applies to agreements supported by Governments.

Studies by the International Labour Office

The fact that the Committee of Experts, established by the Governing Body to examine the possibility of regulating conditions of employment internationally on the principal European waterways, had selected two subjects for study was referred to in last year's *Annual Review*. These were: (1) rest periods and, in particular, night rest; (2) social insurance (insurance against accidents, sickness, old age and invalidity), in connection with the solution of difficulties arising from and differences in national laws, and the co-operation of national administrations.

The Office has drawn up a list of questions dealing with rest periods (night rest, day rest, the weekly rest, holidays, periodical leave) and applied to the Governments or competent administrative authorities in the following countries for information: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Danzig, France, Germany, Great Britain, Greece, Hungary, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, the Netherlands, Poland, Rumania, Switzerland. A memorandum has also been prepared dealing with the second problem, namely the one connected with the application of social insurance to inland watermen, giving a brief analysis of the questions proposed by the Experts Committee (conflict of laws, co-operation of national administrations, preservation of rights in course of being acquired), together with a list of questions on points where detailed information is required. And this document has already been sent to the Governments of the above countries.

The Office will prepare a series of studies for submission to the Committee of Experts, on the basis of information received.

AIR NAVIGATION

It was mentioned in the *Annual Review*, 1930, that the Office had been led to undertake the study of certain problems connected with air transport, in consequence of the resolution adopted by the Thirteenth Session of the International Labour Conference asking for a study of the working conditions and of the professional training and safety of aircraft personnel, with a view to the adoption of international measures.

A general plan of study has been prepared by the Office, covering the various questions within this general framework; and all the States Members, and certain non-Members, have been requested to co-operate, as far as possible, in collecting the necessary information.

Various technical, economic and legal problems connected with air transport have also been the subject of study by other international bodies. With a view to establishing close and effective collaboration in this sphere, the Office has got into touch with most of these organisations, including the International Commission on Air Navigation (C.I.N.A.), an official body under the auspices

of the League of Nations which has been carrying on the legal and administrative work initiated in 1919 by the Paris Convention; and also with the International Technical Committee of Legal Air Experts (C.I.T.E.J.A.), a body concerned with the unification of private law. The C.I.N.A. will decide at its next session, in May 1932, on the expediency of closer collaboration with the Office; but the C.I.T.E.J.A. has already agreed to co-operate on questions, such as the legal rules regulating the contract of employment, intimately connected with the protection of aircraft crews and the unification of private law.

International Regulations[1]

Convention fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment at sea (1920)

Brazil. — By letter of 25 March 1931 the National Department of Labour informed the Office that the question of the age of admission of young persons to employment at sea had been regulated in Brazil. It added that the Department of Labour had been instructed to examine the Convention with a view to application in Brazil.

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

India. — The Council of State and Legislative Assembly have adopted a Bill to amend the Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, which gives effect to this Convention with certain reservations.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Convention concerning unemployment indemnity in case of loss or foundering of the ship (1920)

Brazil. — The Convention has been submitted for examination to the National Department of Labour.

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Convention which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Convention for establishing facilities for finding employment for seamen (1920)

Brazil. — The Convention has been submitted for examination to the National Department of Labour.

[1] The information given here refers only to 1931. See the tables appended to this volume for the general situation in respect of the Conventions.

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Netherlands. — The Finding of Employment Act, which gives effect among other matters to this Convention, came into force on 1 January 1932.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Convention fixing the minimum age for the admission of young persons to employment as trimmers or stokers (1921)

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Netherlands. — Ratification was registered on 17 June 1931.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Convention concerning the compulsory medical examination of children and young persons employed at sea (1921)

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Convention concerning seamen's articles of agreement (1926)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has informed the Office that at the present time there is only one Australian registered vessel engaged in oversea trade. The question of ratification by the Commonwealth is under consideration.

Brazil. — The National Department of Labour has stated that the questions dealt with in this Convention were the subject of Brazilian legislation and that it was studying the Convention with a view to application in Brazil.

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that many of the requirements of the Convention are met by the provisions of the Canada Shipping Act.

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and come into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Greece. — The Minister of National Economy has stated that a draft Public Maritime Code now in course of preparation is based on the principles underlying the Convention.

Hungary. — The Hungarian Government has stated that as Hungary possesses no maritime port or coast, it does not consider itself called on for the present to ratify this Convention.

India. — The Convention is largely covered by the existing law and procedure, and in certain respects in which it is not so covered at present it will be covered by action under the existing law. The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State have passed an amendment to the Merchant Shipping Act, 1923, which among other things gives effect to Article 14 of the Convention.

Poland. — Ratification registered on 8 August 1931.

Spain. — Ratification registered on 23 February 1931.

Convention concerning the repatriation of seamen (1926)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has stated that British seamen stranded anywhere outside the United Kingdom are at present repatriated as " distressed British seamen " to their " proper return ports " under the provisions of the Merchant Shipping Act. The Commonwealth Navigation Act makes no provision in this connection, as the Merchant Shipping Act applies throughout the British Empire and generally meets requirements. Where it does not, as in the case of an Australian seaman stranded in the United Kingdom, the Commonwealth repatriates him. The question of ratification is under consideration by the Commonwealth Government.

Brazil. — The Convention has been submitted for examination to the National Department of Labour with a view to its application to Brazil.

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Greece. — The Minister of National Economy has stated that a draft Public Maritime Code now in course of preparation is based on the principles underlying the Convention.

Hungary. — The Hungarian Government has stated that as Hungary possesses no maritime port or coast, it does not consider itself called on for the present to ratify this Convention.

Poland. — Ratification registered on 8 August 1931.

Spain. — Ratification registered on 23 February 1931.

Recommendation concerning the repatriation of masters and apprentices (1926)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has stated that the requirements of this recommendation in so far as they apply to apprentices are partly met by sections 203-209, 215, 217 and 265 to 268 of the Canada Shipping Act. Section 215 provides for the repatriation of sick masters as well as seamen and apprentices but this provision has no application in cases of shipwreck or distress.

Recommendation concerning the general principles for the inspection of conditions of work of seamen (1926)

Communication to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

India. — The Government has decided to accept the Recommendation, subject to the following observations concerning Article 6: " All British Indian vessels fly the British flag and no category of British Indian vessels

flies a distinctively Indian flag ". For the purpose of this Article the Government of India therefore proposes to construe the words " vessels flying the national flag " as meaning " vessels registered in British India ". The Legislative Assembly and the Council of State have passed an amendment to the Merchant Shipping Act 1923 which gives effect among other things to this Recommendation (13 May 1931).

Other Information

Canada. — The Dominion Government has stated that many of the requirements of this recommendation are met by the provisions of the Canada Shipping Act.

Agricultural Workers

General Remarks — The Agricultural Depression

In the *Annual Review*, 1930, reference was made to the severity of the agricultural depression. The steep fall in agricultural prices has continued. The rapidity with which they have declined has been such that in some cases figures well below pre-war figures have resulted. In United States of America markets the lowest prices ever recorded for wheat have been reached, while a fall of 36 per cent. in the average price of all farm commodities has taken place since 1930. In Great Britain the average 1931 price for wheat was 21 per cent. below pre-war level, and that for oats was 14 per cent. At Cairo the July 1931 index number of cotton stood at 63, where January 1913-July 1914 = 100; in 1928 the index stood at 181, so that this commodity has in three years lost two-thirds of its money value. World-wide examples of this kind could be cited.

Towards the end of the year the levels of prices, though often unprecedently low, showed some signs of remaining steadier. But the confusion and uncertainty of the financial and currency situation then became paramount, so that any advantage from a slightly steadier tendency in agricultural money prices was destroyed. The general effect of this economic depression on the agricultural working populations is terrible. As General Smuts declared at the meeting of the British Association for the Advancement of Science in September 1931, it is " as though another war had ravaged the world ".

The inevitable tendency in agriculture has been to mark time. Refuge has still been sought in an almost complete stagnation or abstention from significant legislation, most definitely in the matter of social reform; the tendency to abide by the *status quo* in this field is still perhaps the abiding article of faith of most agricultural communities.

Nevertheless, some attitudes of mind must be recorded and some actual steps noted which imply, if not progress, at least an effort at adjustment. Recognition is gradually accumulating that the old price levels are unlikely to be reconstituted and that a return to the old methods of organisation will hardly be sufficient.

Thus land is beginning to be valued at a permanently lower figure, which implies a final decision to write off losses; some Governments have even proceeded to act on this assumption, and are attempting to assist their agricultural populations by dealing with the debt question. On the side of production, less is heard of the famous " gulf " between costs of production and present selling prices, and more attention is being concentrated on the fundamental facts of the present dislocation, the proper direction of national agriculture, and—very markedly—international competition in agricultural selling. The attention paid by various organs of the League of Nations to this side of the agricultural problem has been considerable, and mention may also be made of the discussions at the Fifteenth International Congress of Agriculture at Prague in June 1931. On the one side the Federal Farm Board of the United States of America, and on the other the Soviet Five-Year Plan, both being institutions surrounded by the acutest controversy, have, together with the continued discussion round such organisms and arrangements as the Canadian wheat pools, the various Australian and New Zealand pools, deeply engaged the attention of the public; the cross-over of the biggest free trade market in the world, that of Great Britain, to tariff protection has made a profound impression. The dislocating effect of such changes, when first made, can be very great; in particular, the countries accustomed to supply the London market will feel the full effects of the new arrangements.

The prolonged attention to the theme of international underselling on produce markets has undoubtedly increased national nervousness, and the doctrine of national self-sufficiency in agriculture and of a stabilised home market (at whatever cost) has been the outcome. All the more important are those conceptions which go further and rest, at any rate to some extent, on the idea of international agreement as the only real answer to international undercutting.

In these general circumstances specific labour questions have gained by dropping into their proper place in national discussion: they have lost by being sacrificed to a certain vagueness and to some uncertainty of action. Thus in place of the farmer complaining that he can no longer afford to pay proper cash wages, the stage has been occupied by statesmen and others asserting that the rural standard of living is threatened: the problem is the same, but the presentation has become at once more social and more loose. The wide discussion has been all to the good in showing the fundamental character of the problems raised: but when raised they are seen to be so enormous that action is hesitant.

On labour questions the efforts at adjustment have seldom exceeded an attempt to conform to present circumstances without any idea of final mastery over the factors involved. Adjustments in wages have been confined to what has been strictly necessary. It is significant that no violent general attacks have been directed against agricultural wage rates in spite of continued steep falls

in agricultural prices, and that the practice of collective bargaining has been well maintained where it was already established. In certain countries agricultural wages have been lowered over the whole national area *en suite* with general wage falls; in others, they have dropped by local agreements. Most of the falls have been moderate, between 4 and 8 per cent., and only here and there have drops attaining as much as 10, 15 or 25 per cent. been recorded. But it is grave that wherever a small margin of prosperity had been attained in the last few years, this has inevitably gone by the board; thus the considerable post-war increases in women's agricultural wages have mostly vanished, lending substance to the assertion made on the workers' side that agricultural wages remain at the subsistence level and that the fact that they have never risen beyond this level accounts for their not moving markedly downwards now. Many employers have expressed their own conviction that this is so, and that agricultural wages do not admit of any lowering worth speaking of; great efforts have undoubtedly been made to avoid the cutting of the basic cash rates. Even more grave are the signs, only passing it is to be hoped, of a real inability of agriculture to continue on the cash wage basis at all, or to continue on that basis on a good regularised footing. From widely distant parts of the world and from quite different types of agriculture accounts have come in which show a tendency tacitly to desert normal arrangements, to substitute for former cash arrangements equivalents in kind or even in simple board and lodging, to supplement these by action outside the industry of a welfare character, or, where the cash wage principle is too strongly established to admit of these expedients, to keep it going at decent standards only by the sacrifice of other pertinent and important advantages in the way of hours, holidays, etc.; in some cases, the basic rates are retained by forgoing extra payments, which used to be reckoned an integral part of the whole remuneration.

Thus agriculture is being forced back to its reserves, in its reward of labour as in other fields. A final economy in these second and third line defences is to abstain from employing wage-paid labour at all. This perhaps is the most serious threat to the agricultural labour force. That agriculture cannot at the moment advance to try any experiments in the sought-for direction of a plentiful employment of first-class wage-paid labour under skilled foreman direction on large estates equipped in a modern way, is only too obvious, but that the hoped for reorganisation of agricultural labour should take the form of putting a premium on the long working day of family assistants who make no demands on the farm wages bill, is regrettable; in one European country even an experiment in lage-scale modernised farming which would have given ample opportunities for a reconsideration of the wage-paid labour problem in agriculture was set aside on financial grounds in the course of the year by parliamentary vote.

Everywhere the volume of labour to be employed has been a preoccupation, and the effort not to sacrifice basic wage rates has

thus had another side. Paid holidays, of which there were shortly after the war more than might be supposed in agriculture, show no tendency to extend or else are shortened; overtime payments cease to be earnable; casual labour is ousted by the introduction of harvest machinery; farm servants' contracts, remunerated largely in the form of board and lodging on the farm, are offered instead of cash-paid daily engagements; the number of immigrant workers is closely revised.

In this situation the stream back into agricultural occupations of many urban unemployed threatens to be a disturbing factor in almost every country. The accounts vary, but practically everywhere it is stated that the influx of urban workers has affected the terms offered to agricultural workers proper; a very few countries are exempt from this influence, in others it is the major factor in the rural situation. In this connection some mention needs to be made of the suggestions, already carried into practice, for giving agricultural or gardening allotments to urban unemployed. It is scarcely to be wondered at if this attractive suggestion is making its way into national economic plans. Nor is the International Labour Organisation as yet called upon to pronounce on the principle without much more detailed examination than has hitherto been given. The new allotments are whole-time working units, and the temptation might be not to treat them as additions to the family subsistence, but to sell a certain amount of produce off them at any and every price. No State could in the long run afford to subsidise such production, if it were to be really built up on a lowered standard of living, to compete with its own legitimate agriculture; it is from distress selling that agriculture always suffers. Consequently, the purpose of such schemes will need to be very carefully defined.

Nevertheless, it is necessary to recall that the present movement of urban workers into the countryside, though it has for the time being counteracted the effects of the rural exodus, has not abolished that exodus. The situation which makes the agricultural worker wish for urban employment is untouched; it is even intensified when he contrasts his own uninsured employment with urban jobs carrying the right to unemployment benefit. The extent to which agricultural workers, especially the younger workers, seek to qualify for admission to unemployment benefit by themselves taking the initiative in deserting agriculture and entering upon a short-time urban job, indicates what is their own view on the threat to their livelihood.

In the midst of these conflicting and rather obscure tendencies it is pleasing to be able to record that some agricultural workers' organisations have made good progress, and that this movement is holding its own very well in extremely difficult circumstances. The movement for the organisation of agricultural employers appears to have made no advance. General agricultural associations maintain their ground, and chambers of agriculture have been active; in some of these workers are represented.

Structure of the Agricultural Industry — Population and Land

Structure of the Agricultural Industry

The agricultural depression was the subject of long discussions on the Second Commission of the Twelfth Assembly of the League of Nations (Geneva, September 1931); the opposition of overseas countries to any system of preference to the agricultural products of Eastern European countries which would contravene most-favoured-nation clauses was maintained. A somewhat new and important position was taken up by the Conference of East European agricultural States (Sofia, December 1931) in a resolution which maintains the impropriety of assuming that these countries must remain purely agricultural; on the contrary, a gradual process of industrialisation has in these countries become a matter of urgent necessity, and, by assisting a rise in their purchasing power, would also be a contribution to the prosperity of other industrial countries. At the Fifteenth International Congress of Agriculture (Prague, June 1931) resolutions were adopted in favour of all that tended to international collaboration in the marketing of agricultural products, including the improvement of statistics and price forecasting. The Second Conference of the International Federation of Agricultural Technicians (Prague, 7 June 1931) adopted a resolution expressing the opinion that the world depression had arisen in the first place from the fact that in many countries the efficiency of agricultural work has been too much neglected in comparison with the efficiency of industrial work and urging the different countries to make every effort to bring the efficiency of rural work up to the level attained by industrial work. The Fifth General Assembly of the Federal Committee of European Co-operation (Budapest, 20 and 21 May 1931) adopted a resolution on the agricultural crisis, which, among other recommendations, appeals to the International Labour Office jointly with other international organisations to investigate all methods which would tend to adapt agricultural production to consumption, to increase consumption of agricultural products, and to reduce the general costs of agricultural production. The Pan-American Commercial Conference (Washington, October 1931) re-stated the demand for international conferences on the better planning of raw materials production. The Ninth Danish Landworkers' Congress (13-17 September 1931) adopted a resolution requesting the State, if it intervened in the agricultural crisis, to pay attention to the bad position of the wage-paid workers. In Great Britain (England and Wales), a deputation from the organised agricultural workers brought to the attention of the Ministry of Agriculture their request that any new legislation on the wheat question should include measures to attribute larger powers to the Central Agricultural Wages Board, so as to give it some influence over the fixing of local rates of wages.

Permanent Organisation of the Agricultural Industry

In Germany, an authoritative and comprehensive analysis of the agricultural part of the 1926 national enquiry into production and marketing has appeared and throws light on the considerable changes in the structure of the agricultural industry since the pre-war period. In Spain, a Decree of 7 May 1931 establishes joint arbitral committees on agricultural labour, on land questions and on the relations between agriculture and industry. All three types of committees are elected by the groups concerned and will be provincial or inter-provincial; the secretaries of the first two types of committees are to be appointed by the Government; a central appeal and consultative body is also constituted. Temporary arrangements to graft this system on the existing system of agricultural corporations set up by the previous Government are laid down. In Great Britain, an Agricultural Marketing Act was adopted in July 1931

State of Agricultural Bodies and Associations connected with Agricultural Labour

The International Commission of Agriculture, on the occasion of its annual meeting (Prague, June 1931) convened for the first time a meeting of its special sub-committee on agricultural labour questions; this sub-committee is constituted of the Bureau of the Commission and of two delegates from each country. At the Second Congress of the International Federation of Agricultural Technicians (Prague, 7 June 1931) the membership was stated at 45,000, grouped in thirty-three associations; grants of money had been received from some Governments and a review had been started. At the Sixth Congress of the International Landworkers' Federation (Stockholm, 7-11 July 1931) the membership for 1930 was stated at 354,951, grouped in sixteen organisations, as against 326,601, grouped in fifteen organisations, in 1928; two new organisations, in Spain and Yugoslavia, had affiliated since the last Congress, and an application for membership had just been received from an organisation of Jewish agricultural workers in Palestine. In connection with the Congress a conference of Scandinavian landworkers' and timber workers' unions was held; an exchange of information with the International Landworkers' Federation was agreed upon, and it was decided to adopt the same international trade union orientation.

In Czechoslovakia, the Czechoslovak Land and Forestry Workers' Union has been reorganised, and membership has decreased from 34,417 in 1928 to 7,251 in 1930. Membership of other agricultural trade unions, where reported upon, has remained more or less stable.

In Great Britain (England and Wales), the National Union of Agricultural Workers increased its membership by over 5,000 and opened sixty-two new branches during 1930. In Scotland, membership of the Scottish Farm Servants' Union has decreased from

10,000 in 1928 to 5,000 in 1930. In the Netherlands, the number of organised agricultural workers has risen rapidly since 1928, when it had sunk to 21,100; on 1 July 1931 it was 51,943, the Netherlands Union of Workers in Agriculture, Horticulture and Dairying (Social-Democratic) having the largest membership with 21,766. In Sweden, membership of the Swedish Agricultural Workers' Union has increased from 5,000 in 1928 to 10,000 in 1930.

Agriculture in the U.S.S.R.

Progress of socialisation. — The socialisation of agriculture has been continued in 1931 at increased speed. Special attention must be called to the rapid extension of the large State farms *(sovkhoze)* which took place alike in farms cultivating industrial crops such as cotton and sugar beet, in farms organised specially for stock raising, which have an aggregate area of about 50 million hectares, and in farms engaged in the cultivation of cereals. About 9 million hectares of the 97 millions sown in the spring of 1931 belonged to the large State farms. While this increase is partly due to the acquisition by the State of land previously held by the peasants, the main reason for it is the development of vast State lands which had remained uncultivated in previous years. The size of the *sovkhoze* varies greatly from one district to another. Some of the State farms have 10,000 hectares and more, but the average is usually from 3,000 to 4,000 hectares.

The collectivisation of peasants' farms, which, on account of financial difficulties and opposition by the peasants, suffered a check and even a decline in 1930, has progressed rapidly in 1931 and has led to the organisation of about 15 million collectivised holdings *(kolkhoze)*, which include nearly 60 per cent. of the peasants' farms as compared with an average of 22 per cent. in 1930. The area sown with wheat by the *kolkhoze* in the spring of 1930, which was 30 million hectares or 34 per cent. of the total area under wheat, rose in 1931 to 59 million hectares or 60 per cent. of the total area sown. On the other hand, the area sown by non-collectivised farms fell from 62 per cent. of the total area in 1930 to 30 per cent. in 1931.

The part played by the non-collectivised undertakings in the cultivation of rye and potatoes is, however, still considerable (about one-half of the total output), the chief reason for this being that these commodities are grown mainly in the less fertile regions where collectivisation is less advanced. The Soviet Government has concentrated its collectivisation scheme in the so-called productive areas, such as Southern and Eastern Ukraine, the Northern Caucasus, the Lower and Middle Volga regions and the Crimea, where agricultural output exceeds local requirements. In all these areas collectivisation, which applies to from 80 to 85 per cent. of the peasant holdings, is considered to be complete. In the central areas, the collectivisation of agriculture is to be completed in 1932. In this connection the Central Committee of the Communist

Party has pointed out, in a circular issued on 2 August 1931, that all farms need not be brought within the system and that it is sufficient to collectivise an average of 70 per cent. of the farms and 80 per cent. of the area under cultivation.

The average size of a collectivised farm has risen from 400 to 440 hectares, and the average number of members in each undertaking from 70 to 72. But in certain agricultural areas such as the Lower Volga and the Northern Caucasus most of the *kolkhoze* own over 2,000 hectares of arable land, while some of them possess 5,000 hectares and even more. In the less fertile districts, that is mainly in Northern and North-Western Russia, the average area of a *kolkhoze* barely exceeds 70 hectares.

The agricultural artel—in which land, livestock (with the general exception of one cow per family), draught animals and the principal agricultural machinery and implements are used in common—remains the commonest form of *kolkhoze*. Agricultural communities are practically non-existent. Associations for the cultivation of the land in common, in which all other property remains private, are also fairly numerous, especially in Eastern Russia and the Asiatic provinces. In Transcaucasia collectivisation seems to have encountered difficulties and has progressed very slowly.

Organisation of the work. — The successful results achieved as regards the actual socialisation of agriculture do not appear to have been followed as yet by a corresponding success as regards output. According to Mr. Yakovlev, Commissary for Agriculture of the U.S.S.R., steps must now be taken to raise the output of the *kolkhoze*, which up to the present have concentrated their efforts on increasing the area under cultivation without any endeavour to raise the output of the land. Only in rare cases does output per hectare in the *kolkhoze* exceed by more than 10 to 15 per cent. that of the individual farms. Even in the large State farms, which have numerous advantages as regards fertilisers and machinery, the output is very little higher than that of the *kolkhoze* [1].

The main cause of the inadequate output of the *kolkhoze* lies in the want of interest shown by the members in the result of their work. The equal distribution of profits among the members on the basis of the number to be fed which was widely practised in 1930 has also largely contributed to this. The idea that another member may be ordered to take over his work and that ultimately the State will provide for all seems to be rooted in the mind of many a member of the *kolkhoze*, while those peasants who have joined a collectivised undertaking more or less against their will have obviously not shown much zeal for their work.

To remedy this state of affairs, the *Kolkhozcentre*, the central administrative body of the collectivised farms, issued on 8 February 1931 an Order which requires the management of all collectivised farms to introduce a system of piece work and to

[1] *Izvestia*, 6 Oct. 1931.

distribute earnings on the basis of the number of days actually worked. All jobs are divided into four classes: easy, average, difficult, and skilled work, which are valued respectively at 0.75, 1.00, 1.25 and 1.50 working days. It is forbidden to estimate the work in cash. Each member of a *kolkhoze* receives a book in which all work performed by him is entered in accordance with the above rates. The payment of labour—whether it be the payment of agricultural workers or the distribution to a member of his share of the earnings of the undertaking—is made in kind and in cash and must be entered in the work-book.

Piece work is compulsory whenever it is practicable. It may be organised individually or in shifts. There are combined shifts for carrying out interdependent jobs and special shifts for certain specified operations. Shift foremen are appointed by the management of the *kolkhoze* and are personally responsible for the whole work of the shift. They allot the work to be performed by each member of the shift, calculate the value of such work in working days and enter it in his work-book, and supervise the upkeep of machinery and implements.

Distribution of earnings. — The earnings of the undertakings are divided among the members on the basis of individual output, and in accordance with the watchword adopted at the Congress of Soviets (March 1931): " He who works better receives more; he who does not work gets nothing ". Henceforward it is only the quantity and quality of the work furnished which is taken into account when distributing the earnings of an undertaking. On 12 July 1931 the Commissariat of Agriculture adopted an Order which establishes the procedure for distributing earnings in the *kolkhoze* after the 1931 harvest. Earnings in kind, that is the crops, are distributed as follows:

After the contracts for the sale of produce to the State have been fulfilled, a seed fund is set up. This fund must be large enough to ensure an increase of 10 to 20 per cent. in the area sown with wheat in 1932. A reserve seed fund, equal to from 10 to 15 per cent. of the main fund, is also established. In addition to these funds, a food fund is formed to meet the requirements of families of members of the *kolkhoze* who, for good and valid reasons, have been unable to furnish an adequate number of working days, and to provide food for surveyors, veterinary surgeons, technical workers, etc., attached to the undertaking. Members of a *kolkhoze* engaged in industry and the transport and building trades, and their families, are also to be fed from this fund, and are entitled to the same share as members actually employed in the *kolkhoze*. The members of a family remaining in a *kolkhoze*, who are able to work, are entitled to these advantages only if they take part in the work of the *kolkhoze*.

The remainder of the food products are distributed among members of the *kolkhoze* on the basis of the number of working days shown in their work-books. The management of the *kolkhoze* fixes the maximum quantity of wheat which may be distributed

to the best workers; if their earnings exceed the amount fixed, the surplus earnings are paid in cash. The management also fixes the amount of loans which may be made to members on the basis of the number of days work already completed.

Provision is also made for the creation of a fodder fund to feed the collectivised cattle, and a reserve fund to be used to increase the number of livestock. These funds may not be established before the amount of fodder due to the State in accordance with plans and contracts has been delivered. The remainder is divided according to the number of head of cattle and the number of working days furnished. Members who have no cattle receive their share of the fodder in cash. If a member acquires cattle after the distribution of the harvest, he may apply for fodder to the reserve fodder fund.

Cash earnings must be used in the first place to pay taxes and insurance and to refund loans expiring in 1931. Thereafter the following deductions are made from them: (*a*) 15 per cent. for the inalienable common fund [1] for the purchase of machinery and cattle and for building purposes (in the *kolkhoze* formed after October 1930, only 10 per cent. is deducted from gross earnings for such purposes); (*b*) 2 per cent. for distribution among members on the basis of the value of their collectivised property; (*c*) 1.5 per cent. for the establishment of a fund to provide bonuses for the best workers; (*d*) 1.5 per cent. to meet the expenses of workers sent to special schools; (*e*) 2 per cent. for cultural and social purposes.

The remainder of the cash earnings of the undertakings, after deduction of working expenses, are distributed among the members in accordance with the number of working days to their individual credit. Every day worked during 1931 must be taken into account when distributing profits, even when there is no definite result before 1 January 1932 (for example, work connected with autumn sowing, building work, etc.). The management of the *kolkhoze* must establish the approximate amount of profits to be distributed before 1 October in the southern areas and before 1 November in other areas. They may grant loans (not exceeding 66 per cent.) on the basis of the number of working days completed, but must make the final distribution of profits by January 1932 at the latest. In a large number of collectivised undertakings the provisions of the Order of 12 July have not been observed. Loans have been made without regard to the number of working days performed, and food supplies have been issued free of charge and in excess of real requirements to families who have not completed an adequate number of working days. Excessive deductions have been made for cultural purposes. Some undertakings have included as members a large number of officials in no way connected with the work of

[1] In *kolkhoze* formed before 1931 these funds amount on an average to 12,194 roubles, of which 26.7 per cent. has been obtained by the confiscation of property belonging to the well-to-do peasants *(kulaki)*: in the new *kolkhoze* the funds amount on an average to 2386 roubles *(Socialisticeskaja Reconstrukcia Selskovo Khoziajstva*, 1931, No. 11, p. 47).

the *kolkhoze*, in order to be able to increase their reserve funds. In many cases members of the *kolkhoze* do not receive their full share of the harvest because the management establish a system of monthly deliveries or deduct members' loans without their consent. An Order issued by the *Kolkhozcentre* on 30 September 1931 embodies supplementary provisions relating to the methods of distributing profits. Thus the maximum amount of wheat which may be distributed to the best workers must always be greater than the amount set aside for members who have furnished a smaller number of working days. Members engaged in administrative work may in no case receive more cereals than members employed on manual labour who have effected the largest number of working days [1]. The amounts deducted in accordance with the Order of 12 July for the inalienable common fund and for other cash funds must be calculated on the basis of the estimated cash value of the total earnings of the *kolkhoze*, after deduction of the sums earmarked for the payment of taxes and debts.

Utilisation of labour. — The utilisation of labour in the *kolkhoze* still leaves much to be desired. Even in the most fertile areas, like the Northern Caucasus, only one-half of the undertakings use from 75 to 100 per cent. of the potential capacity of the available labour, while in 25 per cent. of the *kolkhoze* in that area barely 50 per cent. of the labour capacity is utilised. In order to improve matters the *Kolkhozecentre* issued an Order on 9 July 1931 prohibiting the managements of the collective farms from distributing work equally over all the available workers. In future the working capacity of members of the *kolkhoze*, men and women alike, must be fully utilised and their zeal stimulated by the introduction of piece rates, competition and bonuses. By such means it should be possible to liberate a certain amount of labour for employment elsewhere.

In order to stimulate peasants to seek industrial employment the Central Executive Committee of the Council of People's Commissaries of the U.S.S.R. published on 30 June 1931 an Order requiring the collective farms to conclude contracts for the supply of labour with the State industrial organisations, and offering facilities and advantages to peasants leaving the farms to work in State industry (including the timber cutting and lumber trades, the peat industry, fisheries, etc.), the transport services, the large State farms *(sovkhoze)*, State building works and co-operative societies.

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[1] The working days of the administrative staff are calculated on the basis of hours of work actually performed, and generally at a higher rate. For example, the work performed during one day by the president of the management committee may be considered as three days' work, that of the secretary as two days' work, etc. As the administrative staff work the whole year, their working days may amount to as much as 20 per cent. of the total number of working days, which is considered to be excessive (*Izvestia*, 15 Oct. 1931; *Socialisticeskaja Reconstrukcia Selskovo Khoziajstva*, 1931, No. 11, p. 24).

The Order states that the *kolkhoze* must do all in their power to assist their members to find industrial employment. In return they will become entitled to certain privileges. For example, industry is required to lend them financial assistance to improve their output; the amount of the subsidies granted will depend on the number of workers supplied. *Kolkhoze* which supply a large number of hands to industry will be provided in the first place with agricultural machinery and endowed with schools, day nurseries, etc. They will also benefit from certain concessions from the distributive co-operative societies, especially in connection with the establishment of communal dining rooms.

A list of all skilled workers (miners, carpenters, joiners, masons, etc.) must be in the productive plans drawn up by the *kolkhoze*. Those absolutely indispensable for the work of the farms may be retained, but all others must be found employment in industry. The *kolkhoze* must supply each worker with a certificate attesting that he is a member of a *kolkhoze*. The managements of the *kolkhoze* may not prevent their members from taking work elsewhere nor recall them before the expiry of their contract of employment, while facilities are given to such workers for the payment of their taxes. No deductions may be made from the wages of members of the collective farms who engage in work elsewhere,[1] and work must be found for them on their return to the *kolkhoze*. A part of the harvest equal to that received by other members and a share in the cash profits must be reserved for them.

In order to increase output and to free a part of the labour employed in the *kolkhoze* the mechanisation of agriculture has been speeded up. The proportion of agricultural work performed with the help of machinery, which was 11 per cent. in 1930, increased to 20 per cent. in 1931. In the *kolkhoze* mechanical processes are employed for 30 per cent. of the work, while in the *sovkhoze* about 90 per cent. of the work is done by machinery. The aggregate power of tractors employed has increased from 900,000 h.p. in 1930 to approximately 2 million h.p. in 1931. The *sovkhoze* own one-half of the available tractors, the other half being distributed over 1,400 special depôts[2]. These depôts plough the land owned by the *kolkhoze* in exchange for a part of the crops produced, this being one of the surest means at the disposal of the State of obtaining at cheap rates the grain grown by the collectivised farms.

The mechanisation of agriculture has also been rendered necessary by the scarcity of horses, the number of which has decreased by about 9 per cent. since the introduction of the collectivisation plan in 1929, for the peasants opposed to this plan have preferred

[1] Hitherto, such workers had to pay from 3 to 10 per cent. of their earnings to the funds of the *Kolkhoze*.

[2] According to the economic plans for 1932 the number of tractor depôts and the aggregate power of tractors will be doubled in comparison with 1931.

to kill their horses rather than allow them to be socialised. (The same thing has happened with large horned cattle, the number of which has fallen by 20 per cent. on account of mass slaughtering.)

It is obviously too soon to attempt to estimate the results of the agrarian policy of collectivisation pursued by the Soviet Government during the last two years. The numerical results are certainly impressive: 60 per cent. of the peasant farms have been collectivised; two-thirds of the arable land are held by the *kolkhoze* and *sovkhoze;* approximately 75 per cent. of the wheat used to supply the towns or exported is grown on socialised land. But, as has already been stated, the output of the soil has not yet been adequately developed, while the organisation of work in the *kolkhoze* leaves much to be desired, with the result that in reality there is a considerable waste of human energy. The next few years will show whether it is possible to overcome these defects or not. Another question of particular importance is that of stock raising. Great efforts are being made to replenish livestock and to increase the number of horses. But here again only the future will show what results can be achieved. As regards the 1931 harvest not even approximate figures have so far been published. It seems certain, however, that the cereal harvest has been inferior to that of the preceding year, the reasons for this being the drought which affected the Volga area during last summer, the defective organisation of the work, and perhaps also the passive resistance of the peasants brought into, or about to be brought into, the collectivisation system. It is significant that, despite official forecasts, the Government has experienced considerable difficulty in collecting the necessary quantity of grain in 1931. In many *kolkhoze* the managements have concentrated their attention on the accumulation of stocks of fodder, seeds and provisions before taking any steps to supply the Government with wheat in accordance with the agreements and contracts concluded with the State and the tractor depôts. The same tendency has also appeared in a number of *sovkhoze.* For these reasons the Government has been unable to complete its stock of grain, with the result that considerable difficulty has been experienced in supplying the towns and the army with provisions and in organising the grain trade. The Government has published several Orders under which directors of *sovkhoze* have been dismissed and the management staff of the *kolkhoze* reminded that their first duty is to supply the State with the quantity of grain stipulated in the contracts. Thereafter and not before may food funds and reserve stocks be accumulated. In spite of these Orders and the steps taken to punish offending officials and peasants, it has been found impossible to obtain all the necessary Government supplies, and the Soviet press concludes that many members of the *kolkhoze* still preserve the individualistic outlook of the peasant and show very little comprehension of the requirements of Bolshevik policy.

Tenure of Land

The Conference of East European agricultural States (Sofia, 1931) demanded that the accumulated burden of short-term agricultural debt in their countries should be converted into long-term debts, and called on the League of Nations to encourage a speedy ratification of the Convention setting up the International Mortage Bank at Geneva.

Austria. — Preliminary results of the 1930 agricultural census show very little change in the structure of the land-holding system since the last census in 1902; small-holding predominates, indeed there is some increase in the number of holdings running between 2 and 10 hectares; over 95 per cent. of the cultivated area is held in ownership as against less than 5 per cent. in tenancy.

France. — An estimate made by the Ministry of Agriculture on the value of agricultural property of all kinds shows a fall in the value of agricultural land and buildings since 1913 of 6,500 million francs at 1913 franc values on a total estimate for that year of over 70,000 million. Discussion is nearing completion on a Bill to give to local committees powers to bring rents into adjustment with the present agricultural situation; the Bill gives a three-years' validity to leases, and is thus an instalment in the reform, long asked for, giving tenants the protection of longer occupations. An Act designed to restrict the areas devoted to wine has been adopted, with a view to preventing the flooding of the market.

Germany. — An important Land Settlement Act of 31 March 1931 extends the application of land settlement schemes, paying special attention to the settlement on the land of unemployed agricultural wage-paid workers; this Act also provides a definite legal basis for the allocation of small suburban allotments and gardens, a subject on which there has been no legislation since the original Allotments Act of 1919. The allotments, which are to run from 600 to 5,000 square metres are to be allocated to urban unemployed, whose labour is to be used directly for the construction of small cheap dwellings; the purpose of the scheme is to contribute to the present self-support of the unemployed and thus to relieve the State from part of the cost of their maintenance; future part-time gainful employment outside the allotment is envisaged as soon as the industrial situation permits, or else enlargement of the holding to become a regular small-holding; an expenditure of 3,000 RM. per holding on building materials, etc., is foreseen. A Federal Commissioner has been appointed to supervise the execution of the Act.

Great Britain. — A Land Utilisation Act was adopted in July 1931; the Act confers power on the Government to provide various types of allotments and holdings for unemployed persons; the provisions for large-scale State experimental farms, to be run

with machine equipment on modern methods of economic organisation, were eliminated for financial reasons; the work of land valuation under the land tax proposals of 1930 has also been suspended on account of expense. In this country difficulty is being experienced in some districts in the collection of tithe payments on land.

Italy. — The drawing up of local collective agreements regulating the relations between landowners and their share-tenants has been under discussion for some time; a Commission has been appointed to draw up the text of a " share-tenants' charter " which should contain general principles suitable as a national basis in spite of great local variations.

Rumania. — A Bill now under discussion, for the conversion of all debts on land, on which interest, when the debt is to a private lender, now sometimes rises as high as 30 per cent. and even to a public creditor is between 8 or 9 and 13 per cent., would have the effect of annulling 25 per cent. of debts on properties up to 5 hectares and would convert all other debts to State loans at 8 per cent. for thirty years. An Act was adopted in 1931 regulating the formation of agricultural associations for purposes of carrying on modernised cultivation of properties to be constituted by the combination of areas held by individual cultivators of the same class; State loans at 6 per cent. will be available on approval of a plan of improvements.

Spain. — A Bill on agrarian reform was tabled in the Cortes on 28 August 1931. This Bill provides for the expropriation, in certain parts of the country, of large estates in excess of limits which are to vary with the type of land. An order of expropriation is laid down, bringing certain classes of property under expropriation immediately and reserving or protecting other properties, including communal properties, properties carrying animal stock and directly managed by their owners, and properties carrying agricultural industries. Large landowners in parts of the country not subject to expropriation are to be taxed so as to provide funds for the compensation of expropriated owners, but some of the cost of the reform will be shouldered by the State. Land held on certain seignorial tenures and land held by the Church is to be expropriated without compensation. Expropriated land is to be let on perpetual lease to peasant tenants, of whom 60,000 to 75,000 are to be put into possession during the course of the first year of the reform, and a number at least equal or larger in each subsequent year. Amendments to these proposals are now under consideration.

By a Decree of 19 May 1931 on collective tenancies associations of not less than twenty agricultural workers may lease farms in their own commune directly from owners who are willing to enter on such arrangements or through the public authorities, who are empowered to assign to them farms which are not being adequately

cultivated or farms on State or communal land; a collective form of exploitation must be pursued, and associations must be based on co-operative principles or aim at improving the conditions of the workers. Two other Decrees of 28 August and 23 September 1931 authorise the Government to declare abandoned formerly cultivated lands subject to compulsory cultivation orders; such lands may be assigned in usufruct to temporary cultivators to be returned to the owners after the harvest is reaped, without compensation. The associations of workers mentioned above are conceived as such temporary usufructaries, and arrangements are laid down to regulate their relations with the local authorities for this business.

Yugoslavia. — An Act applying agrarian reform to large properties was promulgated in 1931. The limits of properties which suffice to secure exemption from expropriation are 35 hectares of arable or 70 hectares of land in general, but in different districts much larger areas are permitted to be exempt; a basis is laid down for compensation.

Rationalisation of Agriculture

In Belgium, a committee on scientific management in agriculture was constituted in 1931 under the auspices of the National Committee of Scientific Management. In Scotland, the results of the first farm-accounting survey, covering 130 farms in 1928-1929, have been published. The cost of labour was found to constitute from 28 to 40 per cent. of total production costs, according to the type of farm.

Employment Situation and Population Movements

The International Commission of Agriculture (Prague, June 1931) addressed a request to the International Labour Office to investigate the comparability on an international basis of the census figures of agricultural populations; the bearing on agriculture of an item coming up for first discussion at the 1932 Session of the International Labour Conference, namely, the abolition of fee-charging employment agencies, was discussed by the Labour Questions Sub-Committee of this Commission.

Austria. — An Order of 26 September 1931 defines more closely what constitutes insurable occupation in order to qualify for unemployment benefits, and makes it necessary for the agricultural or forestry worker to show five years' employment out of the last ten in some industry other than agriculture or forestry if he wishes to qualify for full benefit. The number of recorded unemployed in agriculture and forestry is still small, namely 3,385 persons on 31 August 1931 (out of a national total of nearly 200,000).

France. — The influx of unemployed urban workers into the country-side has been noted; farmers are reluctant to engage them, but there is general difficulty in obtaining alternative employment; nevertheless, there is still great scarcity of women farm servants.

Germany. — The unemployment figures for 1931 have registered a very big increase in agricultural unemployment, both winter and summer, namely, in January 240,091 as against 172,242 in 1930 and in July 100,656 as against 55,128 in 1930; the winter figure is treble and the summer figure five times the corresponding figures in 1928; even at harvest time in 1931 trained agricultural workers could find no agricultural jobs. It is further stated that the tendency is to substitute seasonal for all-the-year-round employment contracts, with the consequence that in the western parts of the country the normal yearly system of engagement is disappearing, while it is being greatly affected in the east.

Great Britain (England and Wales). — According to a report of the Ministry of Labour, 25,000 farm workers, of whom more than half were young men under twenty-five years of age, left agriculture to enter some occupation insurable against unemployment. The National Union of Agricultural Workers has again requested the Government to extend unemployment insurance to agricultural workers.

Hungary. — Employment opportunities have been heavily reduced for some time owing to the general embarrassment of agriculture; the cash resources of the farmers are so limited that they endeavour to engage resident farm servants or share-produce workers rather than day workers; small farmers tend to avoid engaging hired help at all as far as possible; cultivators of dwarf holdings are in competition with the regular workers for such jobs as can be offered.

Italy. — The figures for 1931 have registered more agricultural unemployment than has yet been recorded either in winter or in summer, namely, in January 208,918 persons as against 145,342 in 1930, and even in June 58,027 as against 32,325 in 1930; there has been a continuous and rapid increase in these figures since 1925, when the January figure stood at 33,182 and the June figure at 5,633.

Spain. — A Decree of 18 July 1931 empowers rural local authorities to collect an additional 10 per cent. in taxation with a view to the starting of public works on behalf of the unemployed; the moneys collected are to be expended by local committees representing taxpayers, workers and local authorities; in this country the measures mentioned above under " Land Tenure " are also designed to remedy the permanent scarcity of rural employment in certain parts of the country.

Working Conditions in Agriculture

Methods of Fixing Working Conditions — Collective Bargaining

France. — The Fifteenth National Congress of French Agriculture, held at Lille on 6-8 November 1931, recommended the creation of an Agricultural Labour Section in the Ministry of Agriculture, and urged that no legislation affecting agricultural labour should be drafted without reference to the Chambers of Agriculture and agricultural organisations.

Italy. — A collective agreement was concluded towards the end of 1931 to regulate the working conditions of salaried employees on farms. Stipulations are laid down concerning the length of the contract, the probation period (normally one year), annual holidays, payment of salary during sickness, invalidity and accident arrangements, termination of contract, notice and compensation; minimum salaries are to be established, with due regard to profit-sharing clauses if desired, by negotiation between local organisations of employees and employers.

Mexico. — The Federal Labour Code, promulgated on 27 August 1931, includes a chapter on the agricultural labour contract. All services rendered on the farm of another imply a permanent contract if lasting at least three months and requiring residence on the farm, otherwise a temporary one. Stipulations are laid down on accommodation, free medical assistance, the weekly payment of wages, and, in some detail, on the workers' right to an allotment of land, to the use of the water, draught animals and implements of his employer, to supplies of wood and to pasture, hunting and fishing rights; the responsibility for compensation for accidents to wage-paid workers is to be shared in certain proportions between landlords and occupying tenants; three days' holiday in addition to the usual festivals are secured to workers, reasonable access allowed to the representatives of workers' or of political organisations.

Spain. — The important new Act of 6 October 1931 on contracts of employment covers contracts of employment in agriculture. The joint committees on agricultural labour set up under the Decree of 7 May 1931 (see above, " Structure of the Agricultural Industry ") are to act as arbitration bodies in individual or collective labour disputes; they are generally to supervise the application of labour legislation in agriculture.

Sweden. — The Chambers during July 1931 rejected the proposal to extend the amended Labour Protection Act to agricultural workers. A dispute between agricultural workers and employers which has lasted over two years was terminated. The resulting agreement mentions 45 öre per hour as a minimum wage, and, at the workers' request, lays down that free housing cannot constitute a part of wages.

Wages and Hours

At an important lecture delivered at the invitation of the European Conference on Rural Hygiene of the League of Nations (Geneva, 29 June to 7 July 1931) to heads of Schools of Hygiene in Europe by Professor Derlitzki, Director of the Pommritz Experimental Station in Scientific Organisation in Agriculture, the lecturer maintained the thesis that the long hours worked by farm women were not only exhausting but definitely injurious to health; the evils to be found among the rural population were due not so much to bad general hygienic conditions in the countryside as to arduous labour, long hours, and excessive efforts required during the rush seasons. At the Fifteenth International Congress of Agriculture (Prague, June 1931) several reports were submitted to the Women's Section dealing with the hours worked by farm women, wives or daughters of farmers; the length of the working day was shown to differ very much according to the type of farm, but often it was long and included anything from three to seven hours' field work in addition to two or three hours attending or watering animals, as well as all the household tasks and care of children.

Australia. — There has been a fall from an index of 194 in 1928 to 169 in 1931 (second quarter) in the average weekly wages paid to men in agriculture (pre-war = 100); by this fall, which is steeper than in industry, agriculture has been compelled to relinquish the near equality with industrial wages which it succeeded in establishing for a brief moment in 1928.

Austria. — Up to November 1931 it has been possible to avoid the lowering of the agricultural wage rates of the collective agreements, but cuts varying from 4 to 7 per cent. have had to be accepted by the forestry workers.

Czechoslovakia. — According to an estimate made by the agricultural trade unions, the reduction in agricultural wages in 1931 amounts to 5 per cent. Employers in Bohemia have demanded the abolition of all supplementary allowances and allowances in kind, but no agreement has been reached on this point.

Denmark. — Great reductions in wages, frequently amounting to as much as 150 crowns for the winter half-year, took place at the November hirings. The Agricultural Workers' Union had suggested 775 crowns as an average yearly remuneration figure, principally for farm servants, but it was known beforehand that some employers had envisaged a figure as low as 400 crowns.

Estonia. — The information in the possession of the International Labour Office refers to 1930 and shows that, as in so many countries, the year 1929 saw the turning point of agricultural wages. The decline has been over 6 per cent. for men's wages over the year, over 8 per cent. for men's summer wages.

Finland. — Reductions in wages were, by the autumn of 1931, still relatively unimportant, though some reductions up to 10 or 15 per cent. and a few up to 20 or 25 per cent., have been noted. Towards the end of the year the Committee of the Finnish Sawmill Owners' Agricultural Association formulated wage proposals, which will probably be influential; these recommend that the proportion of wages in kind should be increased so as to provide at least for the worker's primary necessities; that certain cash rates should be reduced; that farm servants paid in board and lodging should be engaged rather than day workers paid in cash, or, if these are engaged, that their wages should not exceed those of farm servants; that annual wages contracts should include a clause permitting of some wages adjustment during the year.

France. — Agricultural wages have tended to drop owing to the return of urban workers to the country-side; individual drops of between 30 and 40 per cent. by comparison with the previous year, both in men's and in women's wages, are mentioned, but no representative figures can be stated.

Germany. — Agricultural wages, in common with all other wages, have been governed by the Emergency Decree of 8 December 1931, and have therefore undergone a 10 to 15 per cent. reduction, bringing them back to the 1927 level.

Great Britain (England and Wales) .— Agricultural wages and hours remained very stable during 1928 and 1929, according to a report recently published by the Ministry of Agriculture. The average weekly wage was still 31s. 8d. for a 51½-hour week in summer and a 49½-hour week in winter. Actual average earnings were perhaps 2s. above minimum weekly rates. But during the winter of 1930 and during 1931 there was a marked downward tendency in working conditions; in many areas wages have been reduced or hours increased (i.e. overtime payments are fewer) or proposals have been made to this effect. In Scotland, where average agricultural wages are higher than in England and Wales, there have been reductions in some districts up to 3s. a week on wages varying from 36s. to 37s.

Hungary. — Daily wages both for men and for women have fallen steadily since 1928; they are now such as are insufficient in some districts, according to the statement of the National Chamber of Agriculture, to cover the primary needs of the worker and his family.

Italy. — The National Confederation of Trade Unions of Agricultural Workers has published a report on agricultural wages during the last ten years. The average daily wage is now 10.44 lire; this is a fall of 28.5 per cent. since 1926, when it was 14.34 lire. Reductions, which have been continuous, have been greatest in Lombardy and Emilia and have occasionally amounted to 50 per cent. The National Congress of Agricultural Workers (Milan,

27 to 30 September 1931) urged the substitution of share-farming arrangements instead of contracts of employment on daily rates.

Latvia. — Wages have dropped slightly since 1926 and 1927, but in 1930 began to go up again a little for three out of four of the principal groups of workers, in spite of the fall in prices. The average wage for day workers in that year was 3.24 lats for men and 2.39 lats for women. Further information has not yet been received.

New Zealand. — A new award of the Arbitration Court on wages in the sheep-shearing industry (which is the best paid agricultural occupation) was issued on 19 October 1931. In accordance with the principle of the sliding scale laid down in 1928, whereby wages were to be kept in relation to the price of wool, shearers' wages are now fixed at 21s. per 100 sheep shorn, which is a new drop from the rate of 25s. of last season, almost one-third less than the rate of 30s. laid down in 1928-1929. Drops in rates for assistant workers are equally severe. All wages, including agricultural, have undergone a 10 per cent. reduction; it is stated that the wages of general farm workers have, however, dropped not 10 per cent., but 25 per cent. in many cases.

South Africa. — It is stated in one quarter that the practice of remunerating native agricultural labour in stock instead of in cash " has received an extraordinary impetus "; the price at which such stock can be realised means a nominal devaluation of 60 per cent. in remuneration.

Spain. — A Decree of 1 July 1931, dealing with the eight-hour day, includes special stipulations for agriculture; in this industry the working day may be prolonged to twelve hours for important and urgent work by permission of joint local committees, but hours after the eight are to be paid 25 per cent. extra as overtime; the restricted working day is not to apply to resident farm servants, but measures are included to safeguard them from undue exploitation. In horticulture the eight-hour day may only be prolonged during three months of the year. Wages and general working conditions in agriculture are to be controlled by the joint local committees set up, as part of the organisation of agriculture, by the Decree of 7 May 1931 (see above).

Switzerland. — The Swiss Peasants' Union has published the results of a special enquiry into the working conditions of agricultural wage earners in 1929-1930. The average total remuneration in cash and in kind for permanent workers, men and women, is calculated as running from 10.60 to 5.57 francs per day according to the class of worker, comparable rates in industry running from 16.07 to 6.45 francs; the rise in the real wages index for daily workers, who are paid in cash only, is from 115 to 128, where pre-war rates = 100. The average working day, without meal times but including journey times, varies from ten hours in winter

to thirteen and a half in summer, with longer hours for those in charge of staff, and with two to nearly six hours of Sunday work.

Weekly Rest — Paid Holidays

In France, the Bill on paid holidays for workers, introduced as long ago as 1925, which passed its third reading in the Chamber of Deputies on 2 July 1931, covers agricultural workers, but in their case special conditions of application will be laid down by an Order proposed by the Ministers of Labour and Agriculture after consultation with the organisations concerned. In Switzerland, the new Federal Act on weekly rest for wage-paid workers, adopted on 26 September 1931, excludes agricultural workers. The report of the Swiss Peasants' Union already referred to states that from ten to twenty-four days' paid holiday are in practice allowed to agricultural workers.

Social Insurance

The International Commission of Agriculture (Prague, June 1931) adopted a resolution affirming the need for social insurance for agricultural workers and noting that in many countries the application to agriculture of social insurance systems suitable for industry had resulted in raising costs of production without benefiting the persons covered by insurance; the executive officers of the Commission were instructed to make a study of the question. The bearing on agriculture of an item coming up for first discussion at the 1932 Session of the International Labour Conference, namely, old-age, invalidity, and widows and orphans' insurance, was discussed by the Labour Questions Sub-Committee of this Commission.

In Hungary, insurance for compensation for industrial accidents in agriculture is extending and now covers practically all resident farm servants, but voluntary old-age insurance is falling among the agricultural population.

Standard of Living of Agricultural Workers and of Agricultural Populations

Accommodation and Rural Hygiene

The European Conference on Rural Hygiene of the League of Nations (Geneva, 29 June to 7 July 1931) adopted detailed recommendations on the housing of agricultural wage-paid workers; among the methods suggested to improve the prevailing bad housing of such workers was one for appropriate legislation to enforce certain standards as regards drainage, water supply, number of rooms per family and other elementary requirements; such legislation would need adequate inspection if it were to be made efficient. It was agreed that education and persuasion and

the building of model accommodation would also be useful, but would not in themselves be sufficient, owing to the weak position of the wage-paid worker in regard to the enforcement of housing standards. Reference was made to the 1921 Recommendation of the International Labour Organisation on living-in conditions of agricultural wage-paid workers. The Sixth Biennial Congress of the International Landworkers' Federation (Stockholm, 7 to 11 July 1931) adopted a resolution declaring that housing conditions for farm workers in all countries were deplorable and demanding that the accommodation of the worker should be made a question entirely independent of his employment contract and should not therefore be provided by the employer. In France, on the other hand, the general meeting of the Presidents of the French Chamber of Agriculture (6 March 1931) passed a resolution against depriving the employer of the right to evict a worker no longer in his employ from a service dwelling. In Great Britain, new legislation was adopted on 29 July 1931 to finance the building of 40,000 houses for agricultural workers. The English workers, in a deputation to the Government in December 1931, maintained their argument that the " tied " cottage should be wholly abolished. In Poland, an Act of 21 March 1931 gives an agricultural worker discharged from employment the right to temporary occupation of the dwelling allocated to him by his employer for another two months or the right to alternative accommodation.

Education and Leisure

The Second Conference of the International Federation of Agricultural Technicians (Prague, 7 June 1931) appointed a small committee to study suggestions for the interchange of young agricultural technicians between different countries and the institution of international prizes and medals for technical work in agriculture. The Czechoslovak Academy of Agriculture at a meeting of its foreign members (Prague, 5 June 1931) appointed a committee to study answers received to suggestions circulated by the Academy for the creation of a new body to encourage international interchange and co-operation in the field of scientific and economic advances in agriculture; overlapping with existing institutions is to be avoided.

The Sixth Biennial Congress of the International Landworkers' Federation (Stockholm, 7 to 11 July 1931) adopted a resolution which declared that the present changes in the agricultural industry made it essential not merely to defend existing standards of living of the rural population but to aim at better ones; the Federation maintained its demand that a larger share of agricultural income should go to wage-paid labour, and expressed its opinion that the maintenance of this demand would stimulate the needed reconstruction of agriculture. Objections were raised to current calculations of the remuneration earned per hour by wage-paid

workers and small peasant proprietors respectively, which created a false impression that the small peasants were even worse off than wage-paid labour. The Papal Encyclical *Quadragesimo Anno* of May 1931 makes reference to the extremely depressed condition of the immense army of hired rural workers, who have no hope of access to the land and who are likely to remain in their proletarian condition unless efficacious remedies are applied.

In Denmark, the agricultural crisis has, in a somewhat unexpected way, affected agricultural workers. It quite frequently happens that farm servants do not take out the whole cash wage to which they are entitled, but allow the farmer to keep the money for them. This money is lost in case of bankruptcy; the special protection which wages enjoy in preference to other creditors is not extended beyond the date on which wages have to be paid. A series of such cases where farm workers have lost their savings have been noted. Similar complaints have been made in Pomerania.

In Germany, the German Landworkers' Union has investigated the household budgets of 145 agricultural workers' families in 1929-1930. The average annual earnings per family were 2,417 RM., the average per principal worker varied from 1,080 RM. to 1,482 RM., the margin being necessarily made up by the earnings, in 111 cases out of the 145, of the married women and the children; only 1.4 per cent. of these earnings was expended on education and reading matter.

In Hungary, the Government has assisted the agricultural population to buy boots and clothing by arranging for certain manufacturers' supplies at restricted prices.

In South Africa, a new organisation for the betterment of rural life, the South African Women's Agricultural Union, was constituted in June 1931.

International Regulations[1]

Recommendation concerning the prevention of unemployment in agriculture (1921)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that the Employment Service of Canada established under the Dominion and provincial laws is available for agricultural as well as for other workers. A considerable body of Dominion and provincial legislation is in existence which provides for public instruction in agriculture. The Dominion Department of Immigration and Colonisation is co-operating in a plan for the co-ordination of Dominion, provincial and private land settlements. Various provincial Acts have been enacted to encourage farmers' co-operation. Acts concerning the issue of credit to farmers have been passed in Ontario, Manitoba, Alberta and British Columbia.

Recommendation concerning the protection, before and after childbirth, of women wage earners in agriculture (1921)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that there is no legislation on these subjects in existence in Canada.

[1] The information given here refers only to 1931. See the tables appended to this volume for the general situation in respect of the Conventions.

Recommendation concerning night work of women in agriculture (1921)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that there is no legislation on these subjects in existence in Canada.

Convention concerning the age for admission of children to employment in agriculture (1921)

Chile. — A report by the Factory Inspectorate of 28 August 1931 stated that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Denmark. — The Folketing discussed on 1 December 1931 a draft resolution for the ratification of the Convention. This draft resolution was referred to the competent committee.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Recommendation concerning night work of children and young persons in agriculture (1921)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that there is no specific legislation on this subject, but that the provincial laws which make school attendance compulsory have the effect of precluding the night employment of children of school age.

Recommendation concerning the development of technical agricultural education (1921)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that the general subject of education, including vocational education for agricultural workers, falls within provincial jurisdiction. All the provincial Governments are participating in the development of vocational agricultural education and in all the provinces there is legislation providing for its continuation. The Federal Government has also granted financial assistance towards agricultural education. Systems of education which are in existence are available to agricultural wage earners on the same conditions as to other persons engaged in agriculture.

Recommendation concerning living-in conditions of agricultural workers (1921)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has informed the Office that in New South Wales the Act concerning living-in conditions of agricultural workers of 1926 contains provisions on the subject.

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that no legislation on this subject exists in Canada.

Convention concerning the rights of association and combination of agricultural workers (1921)

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Greece. — A Bill for the ratification of the Convention is in preparation.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Convention concerning workmen's compensation in agriculture (1921)

Belgium. — An Act extending to all agricultural workers the benefits of accident insurance legislation came into force on 1 January 1932; a Bill for the ratification of the Convention is in preparation.

Colombia. — The Convention has been approved by the National Congress.

Spain. — Ratification was registered on 1 October 1931.

Uruguay. — The Conventions adopted by the Conference at its first three Sessions, which had already been approved by the Chamber of Deputies, have also been approved by the Senate, except however those concerning the employment of women. It will therefore be necessary to submit these Conventions again to the Chamber.

Recommendation concerning social insurance in agriculture (1921)

Canada. — The Dominion Government has informed the Office that no province in Canada has any law establishing a system of public insurance against sickness, invalidity, etc. apart from the various superannuation systems which exist in the Dominion and in the provinces for the benefit of public employees. The Old-Age Pensions Act provides the same benefits for agricultural workers as for other persons. This Act contemplates co-operative action by the provincial legislatures and British Columbia, Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, Ontario, New Brunswick and the Yukon have passed the necessary legislation, but the New Brunswick law has not yet been proclaimed to be in force.

Salaried Employees [1]

The Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees, which was set up by the Governing Body at its Forty-fifth Session in May 1929 to establish permanent contact with salaried employees' organisations and to carry out the necessary consultation with these organisations on all matters of special interest to them, held its first meeting on 14 and 15 April 1931.

After studying the tasks to be undertaken for improving the social position of salaried employees, the Committee decided to deal first with the problem of unemployment, which so seriously affects that class of worker.

It expressed the hope that the work undertaken in this field by the Office would be pursued with the greatest diligence, and, wishing to do all in its power to help on the solution of the grave problem of unemployment, it adopted a resolution which drew the attention of the Governing Body to three measures which, in addition to shortening hours of work, appeared to it particularly calculated to mitigate unemployment for salaried employees at an early date, namely:

(1) The development of national systems of free employment exchanges and international collaboration for the placing of salaried employees.
(2) The international adoption of a more liberal policy of organising the labour market so as to enable salaried

[1] Cf. *supra*, Chapter II: " Hours of Work of Salaried Employees ".

employees from one country to obtain situations in another country.

(3) The retraining of unemployed salaried employees with a view to their entering some other occupation.

In order to avoid an increase in unemployment among salaried employees, the Committee recommended in particular the extension of legal protection with regard to dismissal. The periods of notice should be extended and compensation for dismissal increased. These measures should be proportionate to the length of service, so that older salaried employees may be better able to meet the difficulties of finding fresh employment.

The Committee expressed the wish that the following points should be placed on the agenda of its next meeting: (1) the Sunday rest; (2) the regulation of hours of opening and closing of shops; (3) holidays with pay for salaried employees.

Attention was also drawn to the desirability of taking action for the institution and general extension of protective measures for apprentices and a request was made that the legal position of commercial travellers and representatives should be studied with a view to its future examination by the Committee.

With regard to clauses restricting freedom of employment (radius clauses) contained in contracts of employment, the Committee requested the Governing Body, until such time as such clauses were prohibited by international regulations, to draw the attention of Governments to the necessity of adopting protective measures in favour of salaried employees. Finally, the Committee urged the Office to take the necessary steps to hasten as much as possible the adoption of international regulations on inventors' rights for salaried employees.

These resolutions were considered by the Governing Body at its sittings of 18 April 1931 and 13 January 1932. It was decided to convene a special meeting of the Unemployment Committee to study the measures best calculated to reduce unemployment among salaried employees, by an investigation into hours of work, unemployment insurance, notice of dismissal, dismissal allowances, etc.

The resolutions relating to radius clauses and the protection of salaried employees' inventions have led to the opening of negotiations between the Advisory Committee on Salaried Employees and the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers, which have each studied these two questions, with a view to arriving at a single text for both Committees.

A further advisory meeting of representatives of civil servants' and public employees' organisations, which was attended by a number of well known persons belonging to the more important organisations, was held in May 1931 to study the demands put forward by the organisations and to draw up a programme of future studies.

The meeting adopted a resolution relating to holidays with pay and decided to carry out an enquiry into systems of discipline and statutory guarantees for public servants.

Professional Workers

The principal demands put forward by professional workers in the various countries have a common origin, namely, the general economic depression and the resultant unemployment. Throughout the year the attention of professional workers has been mainly concentrated on three important questions: the mitigation of the depression in the theatrical trades, the protection of architects' and engineers' professional titles, and the protection of performers' rights in the mechanical reproduction of sounds. A number of special measures, such as the elimination of amateur competition, the exclusion of aliens and the introduction of new methods of film production, have been advanced as likely remedies for the depression affecting the theatrical trades. The question of performers' rights is largely bound up with the depression, but its importance is wide enough to justify special investigations, especially in view of the fact that any solutions proposed must be of a permanent character.

Another question which has been discussed by professional workers is the patenting of medical discoveries, and this was the subject of a lively debate at the annual meeting of the British Medical Association. A somewhat similar question had already been discussed by the International Medical Association during the course of last year. It seems, however, that it is difficult to obtain unanimous agreement by the medical profession on this matter, as the traditions of some countries do not permit that an invention of public value should be patented for the sole benefit of the patentee.

Certain measures have at last been suggested to mitigate the overcrowding of the medical profession. For example, the French Parliament has discussed a Bill for the reorganisation of medical studies and the exercise of the profession, which contains restrictive clauses directed against aliens.

Unemployment and the Theatrical Depression

An acute depression, which extends alike to theatres, music-halls and orchestras, is at present affecting the theatrical trades in the majority of the western countries. The main causes are the economic crisis, which results in smaller audiences, and the financial difficulties surrounding many important industries, such as the film production trade. In addition, the continual extension of mechanical art and the improvement of mechanical technique tend to reduce

theatrical artistes' possibilities of employment. It frequently happens that these factors lead to a certain coincidence in the interests of the amusement caterers and the artistes, this being especially the case in the theatrical and music hall professions, which are forced to make common cause against the competition of the cinema trade.

It must, however, be said that the development of mechanical art has not been entirely negative for workers in the theatrical trades. An enquiry undertaken in the United States by the Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that the growth in the number of theatres equipped for sound films has led to a great increase in the number of operators, while broadcasting provides work for a large number of actors and musicians, who now derive all their earnings from it.

The remedies proposed to relieve the crisis are of two kinds—permanent remedies, such as the establishment of new methods of film production or theatrical organisation, and temporary remedies. Among the latter should be mentioned the proposals to restrict the employment of foreign artistes and the competition of amateur companies, and all proposals of a fiscal nature, such as the reduction of taxes in theatres or the introduction of new taxes on sound films.

In *France*, the Congress of the French Actors' Association has decided to continue its campaign against amateurs and has raised the question of the loss of employment which results from the post-synchronisation of sound films. The Association of Theatrical Performers has set up an organisation for the protection of the musical and theatrical arts from the abuses of mechanical music and to secure the maintenance of the greatest possible number of orchestras. The Artistes' Union, the Musicians' Association, the Association of Federated Trade Unions of the Paris area, the Association of Paris Theatrical Managers, the Federation of Theatrical Managers' Associations, the Society of Dramatic Authors and Composers, the General Confederation of Labour, and the Confederation of Professional Workers have decided to give their entire support to this movement, the first result of which has been the organisation of concerts and performances given entirely by unemployed artistes.

In *Germany* the intensity of the depression has led to large cuts in the salaries of actors in private and State theatres. In *Prussia* the executive measures and instructions issued by the Prussian Minister of Sciences, Arts and Education and the Minister of Finance on 30 September 1931, in execution of the Prussian Economies Ordinance of 12 September 1931, have made considerable reductions in the salaries of artistes employed by the State and municipal theatres. Film artistes and specialists, including actors, producers, camera men, scenario writers and art directors, have decided to embark on the production of films in order to provide work for their members, to provide a provident fund and to prove to the authorities that the conditions of labour in the studios demanded by the trade unions are perfectly compatible with production on a sound economic basis.

In *Greece* an Order issued by the Foreign Office in agreement with the Home Office regulates the conditions under which alien actors, chorus singers, singers and acrobats may enter and reside in Greece. The scope of the measure does not, however, extend to " artistes of world renown ".

In *Ireland* the Minister of Finance has asked the Dail to sanction certain measures to protect the musical profession against sound films. The measures include the imposition of a tax proportionate to the length of the film shown, the remission of the entertainment tax on all entertainments consisting mainly of the performances of artistes personally present, and the continuance of the entertainment tax on cinema performances. The Army Council has decided to issue an Order to prohibit military bandsmen from accepting civil engagements.

In *Italy* the National Federation of Fascist Trade Unions of the theatrical and cinema trades and the National Union of Orchestral Musicians have suggested as a likely remedy for the present depression that concert organisers should be obliged to engage musicians exclusively through the employment offices, so as to avoid unfair competition and sweating; that an official musicians' register should be established and that steps should be taken to combat the activities of orchestras composed of amateurs, salaried employees, military bandsmen, etc.

In *Poland* the Association of Theatrical Artistes has demanded the introduction of measures to prevent foreign artistes from accepting engagements in Polish theatres, and the reorganisation of the employment exchanges. The Association has urged the Minister of the Interior to order that all foreign artistes at present engaged in artistic productions in cafés, dance halls, music halls, etc., should be asked to leave Poland. The Governing Commission of the city of Warsaw has temporarily prohibited the admission of foreign artistes to Poland. The position of private and municipal theatres has become so difficult that the managers have proposed to reduce the salaries of their staff and to revise the conditions of their employment in certain respects. After some discussion a settlement has been reached which stipulates that if, after eight months' working, the theatre shows a loss of a specified amount, the manager shall be entitled either to reduce the salaries of his artistes to a level proportionate to the receipts, or to hand over the management of the theatre to the Artistes' Association, which in turn is required to hand it back to the manager after a period of four months.

In *Spain* the Ministry of Labour convened in July a national conference of the various branches of the theatrical trade, including entertainment lessees, musicians and composers. The meeting recommended the establishment of a national association of the musical profession, which would be empowered to take steps to organise the permanent staff of theatres, orchestras, ballets and in general all technical and artistic staff. The association would also be required to make suggestions to the Government for the improve-

ment of the social conditions of Spanish musicians and the reduction of unemployment. The conference also called for the introduction of measures to cope with the competition of foreign artistes and to improve the musical education of the people so that public taste would be directed towards " living " music.

Protection of Professional Titles

Architects and engineers are the two classes of professional workers in connection with which the question of the protection of professional titles is most generally discussed nowadays. Duly certificated members of these two professions have often to compete against persons like building contractors whose only qualification is a certain amount of practical experience but who, nevertheless, assume the title of architect or engineer. Various legislative measures have been introduced in a number of countries to meet this situation which is of undoubted concern for all professional associations.

In *Austria*, the National Committee of Professional Workers, at the request of the associations of architects, engineers and technical workers, has submitted to the Chancellor of the Confederation and the Minister of Commerce, a memorandum drawing the attention of the Government to the necessity of protecting architects' certificates and calling for measures to cope with the abuses committed, more especially, by master builders.

In *France*, the Congress of French Associations of Engineers has discussed the question of the protection of engineers' certificates which, it is stated, is nearing a legislative solution. The Committee specially appointed by the Department of Technical Education to deal with this matter has agreed upon a text of a Bill which gives almost entire satisfaction to the Confederation of Professional Workers and the engineers' associations. This Bill stipulates that persons styling themselves "certificated engineers" must add to this description the name of one of the certificates instituted by the State or recognised by it.

In *Germany*, the Federal Minister of Public Economy has promulgated an Order adopted by the Federal Council to regulate the use of the title of " master builder ". The German Architects' Association considers, however, that its members have suffered serious injury in their professional interests through the promulgation of this Order which protects an old-established term at their expense and in contradiction to the usage of the German language. The Association, therefore, calls for the prompt introduction of measures for the protection of the profession of architect and has decided to prepare a Bill on the subject.

In *Great Britain*, the Architects' Registration Act has been adopted by Parliament. The Act sets up a Register of Architects and a Discipline Committee empowered to supervise professional

integrity. It is thought that the Act will give greater impetus to architectural studies and improve the teaching of the profession.

In *Italy*, the Congress of the National Fascist Union of Engineers has demanded that only persons whose names are entered in the professional register should be authorised to practise the profession of engineer. Reference to the legislative provisions in force shows that this request may be interpreted as excluding all persons who have obtained their certificates abroad.

Performers' Rights in the Mechanical Reproduction of Sounds

The question of performers' rights in broadcasting and the mechanical reproduction of sounds continues to occupy the attention of the professional organisations concerned. While a large number of the national associations have adopted resolutions stressing the importance of this question, many are awaiting the result of the studies undertaken by the Advisory Committee on Professional Workers, before expressing any further opinion on the subject.

Performers' rights in film production is a new question of legal and practical importance which has arisen for actors and a number of other classes of artistes. There can be no doubt that scenario writers, producers, actors, art directors and decorators, and to some extent camera men, all take part in varying degrees in the production of a film. These persons, however, consider that they, and they alone, should logically be considered as the creators of the film. Hence the claim put forward by artistes for pecuniary and moral rights in film production, which, however, is formally contested by the film industry. During 1931 the National Congresses of Actors' Associations have not been asked to take a decision in this matter but the large number of articles which have appeared in the theatrical press shows how important the question really is. A memorandum received by the Office from the German Actors' Association calls for the extension of performers' rights to cinema films.

Native Labour

Under the heading " National Developments " the following pages contain a review of the Native labour situation in the various independent States, mandated territories and colonies in which this type of labour is found. International developments are described in a second section entitled " The International Situation ".

A. — National Developments

Australia. — The ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour by the Commonwealth was registered on 2 January 1932, and the Convention will apply in the Mandated

Territories of New Guinea and Nauru, as well as in the Territories of Papua and Norfolk Island.

As regards the *Mandated Territory of New Guinea*, the report submitted to the Permanent Mandates Commission in 1931 stated that certain provisions of the Native Labour Ordinance, notably those dealing with the payment of recruiting bonuses to Native chiefs and the employment of Natives otherwise than under long-term indenture, were under review, and a system of surprise visits of inspection to vessels carrying Native labourers had been instituted to ensure the proper treatment of labourers on repatriation.

In the *Territory of Papua*, the Native Regulations, 1931, consolidated a series of regulations dating back to 1922 which include, *inter alia*, provisions concerning compulsory labour for communal or general public purposes.

Belgium. — The economic crisis had severe repercussions on the *Belgian Congo*. The fall in the prices of raw materials greatly decreased Native resources. Disturbances took place in several districts in the Colony, in particular in the Kwango and Lake Leopold II areas. Among the causes to which these troubles have been attributed are an insufficient territorial occupation of the country, the return of unemployed Natives from the industrial centres bringing a spirit of indiscipline into traditional Native life, and also Native discontent at the decrease in profits received from the sale of products. The administration has endeavoured to combat the crisis by such measures as the lowering of transport rates and of the various taxes which burden production. A system of loans to settlers has been organised.

The important companies have endeavoured to reduce costs by combination and rationalisation. The Union Minière, on which the prosperity of the Katanga is largely dependent, has been obliged to reduce production from 130,000 to 85,000 tons. The normal activity of the gold mines has been maintained and efforts have even been made to increase output.

In the case of the European trading districts, especially those dealing with forest products, an increase in Native production is being favoured with the object of enabling the Natives to maintain their purchasing powers. The State has decided to take decisive action with regard to cotton, and the Colony is buying the last cotton harvest from the Natives of Uélé.

In regard to labour problems, the most important event of the year was the submission of the report of the delegation sent by the Native Labour Committee to Africa early in 1931, to examine in collaboration with the Native Protection Committee the measures necessary to prevent the rapid industrialisation of the Congo leading to harmful effects on the social life of the Natives. The most important conclusions reached in this report include the withdrawal of the transitory provisions allowing the administration to intervene to encourage recruiting for trustworthy private undertakings; the maintenance and perfection of the methods of calculating the

percentage of able-bodied adult men who may be recruited; a progressive application of the guarantees required in case of distant recruiting; the admission of compulsory cultivation for educative purposes only for a strictly limited period, and the establishment of a series of rigid guarantees in the case of such cultivation; the treatment of factors in depopulation resulting from a loosening of Native morality; the development of the material equipment of the Natives; and remedies for unemployment.

Orders were issued in the various Provinces in application of the new system contained in the Ordinance of 18 June 1930, amending and consolidating the provisions concerning the health and safety of workers. A Royal Order of 8 October 1930 established a Queen Elisabeth Fund for the medical assistance of Natives. This Fund will be used to meet epidemics, and by the means of travelling medical missions to impart to the Natives elementary notions of hygiene.

The Temporary Agricultural Assistance Fund, based on the Order of 16 July 1930, has been reorganised and transformed into a Temporary Agricultural Credit Fund by an Order of 9 July 1931.

In the *Mandated Territory of Ruanda-Urundi* orders have been issued by the Governor to put into effect the provisions in force in the Belgian Congo concerning contracts of employment, the acclimatisation of workers, health and safety, the notification of industrial accidents and the regulation of dangerous or unhealthy trades. The system of compulsory cultivation intended to prevent famine has been perfected by the administration. The Union Minière of the Upper Katanga is pursuing its policy of obtaining a stable labour force from Ruanda-Urundi. In particular it is endeavouring to recruit married workers and to settle whole families of workers in the neighbourhood of their employment.

British Empire. — 1931 was principally a year of definition of policies previously adopted. The letter of Mr. Ramsay MacDonald to Dr. Weizmann further explained the policy of Great Britain as the Mandatory Power for Palestine. The Joint Select Committee of the British Parliament on Closer Union in East Africa was largely concerned with putting an end to the political uncertainties previous announcements had created. In the case of the Mandated Territory of 'Iraq, the question of the termination of the mandate was further advanced. The decision of most interest to the Organisation—that of the ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour, registered with the Secretary-General on 3 June 1931, for application without modification to all dependencies which are not fully self-governing—was in accordance with the policy previously announced by Great Britain. In several of the territories the discussions at the 1930 Colonial Office Conference appear to have had their repercussions, particularly in the consideration of measures for the protection of women and children and in the initial examination of workmen's compensation schemes.

The disastrous economic situation is, however, exercising an

unfavourable influence on the development of measures for raising the standards of the Native worker. Although the East Africa Select Committee emphasises " the supreme importance to the State as a whole of efficient administration on the Native side " it is to be feared that financial exigencies will adversely affect Native administration. Moreover, at a time when the Governments are being compelled to reduce expenses, both Native and European production are experiencing difficulties, employment is less abundant and wages are being reduced.

A favourable factor to be noted is that unemployment in the European sense of the total loss of the capacity to maintain a livelihood has only affected a few highly industrialised areas. Generally, tribal lands form the Natives' system of unemployment insurance and, through the present discontents, the protection and development of Native agriculture can be seen to be a necessary safety valve for the fluctuations of colonial development.

In this connection, permanent value is likely to result from a Conference of Colonial Directors of Agriculture, held at the Colonial Office in July 1931, which adopted a resolution stressing the duties of agricultural departments for " the improvement of the preparation and disposal of agricultural products through co-operative organisations ". The progress in co-operation has indeed been one of the favourable signs in a period of difficulty, as is shown by the following information collected for the Agricultural Conference. In the Gold Coast trials in co-operative marketing have proved very successful; over 200 cocoa producers' societies are now in existence. In Uganda, a step towards co-operative marketing has been taken in connection with Native-grown tobacco and coffee. In Trinidad, agricultural co-operation exists in the form of credit and selling societies. Rapid progress is being made in Jamaica, particularly in the co-operative marketing of produce. In the Federated Malay States and Straits Settlements a Government Department of Co-operation has been formed, and progress has been made in organising agricultural credit and in the marketing of agricultural products.

Progress has also been made towards the abolition of " penal sanctions ", by a Gold Coast Ordinance cancelling provisions permitting criminal penalties for breach of contract and other labour offences. In this connection it is of interest to note that although penal sanctions are still in force in other British territories in Africa, the second characteristic of contract labour—the long period of initial engagement—is less marked both in West and East Africa. In Kenya, in 1929, 22,000 Natives were employed on contracts generally of from eight to twelve months, whereas the average number of Natives in employment was 160,000. In Tanganyika 21,000 labourers were engaged under contracts generally of 180 working days, this being little more than one-fifth of the Natives in employment. In Nyasaland the usual agreement is from month to month. On the Northern Rhodesian mines in 1930, contract workers engaged for an initial period of six months

only numbered 30 per cent. of the total labour force, although in fact the average service of the monthly workers was from nine to ten months. These figures, combined with the Gold Coast Ordinance, suggest that the British African labour systems no longer depend on long-term contracts with penal sanctions, and that the present time of restricted labour may be favourable for the organisation of a predominantly free labour supply.

The *British East African Dependencies* have received much attention in Great Britain owing to the discussions on the proposals for closer union between Kenya, Uganda and the Mandated Territory of Tanganyika. The report of the Select Committee of Parliament, published in November, negatives the scheme of closer union but recommends co-operation on economic and scientific matters. It contains a closely reasoned examination of Native policy, in which the doctrine of trusteeship is maintained as the basic principle, and is defined as implying not only the avoidance of direct injustice to the Natives as individuals but also a positive obligation to afford them as a race both time and opportunity to develop their capacities and play their part in the ultimate destiny of their countries.

Attention is drawn in the report to the benefits of European settlement, but at the same time it is held that its success cannot yet be considered definitely established. The Committee considered the evidence conclusive that no forced labour is employed by European settlers or for private enterprise, though it is occasionally used on Government work and also in the Native reserves for communal purposes. While not denying that such labour is almost invariably in the interests of the Natives themselves, the Committee concluded that the practice is no longer in accordance with the ideas of modern civilisation and should be discontinued, note being taken of the ratification by Great Britain of the Forced Labour Convention.

In the territories themselves economic stress, due to world conditions complicated by local locust ravages, has led to a comparative indifference towards all but day-to-day problems. While, however, financial difficulties have led the administrations in some cases to reorganise their social services, certain tendencies towards reform have perhaps been favoured by the decreased demand for labour. In particular, the growing practice of employing children has been limited by legislative action. In addition, some consideration appears to have been paid to the advisability emphasised at the 1930 Colonial Office Conference of evolving a system of workmen's compensation, by which the care of Natives injured in European employment would not be transferred to the Native communities from which their labour services have been obtained.

In *Kenya*, the Explosives Rules, 1931, contain a clause prohibiting the employment of children under sixteen years of age in danger buildings, except under adult supervision.

Certain measures have been adopted or prepared restricting the use of forced labour. In particular, an Ordinance to consolidate the law relating to collective punishment has repealed the provision by which in lieu of fine the Governor was empowered to order out labour. A Bill has also been introduced to repeal the Roads in Native Reserves Ordinances, which permitted the imposition of six days' forced labour a quarter on able-bodied men in the reserves.

Co-operation has been regulated by the Co-operative Societies (Registration) Ordinance, 1931.

A Mining Ordinance has been adopted of the same character as the Tanganyika and Uganda Ordinances of 1930. Compensation is payable for death or serious injury, unless the accident is due to the serious and wilful misconduct of the worker. In other employments, compensation is not granted as a right, but employers are stated to be almost always ready to consider any case with sympathy.

Wages of Native labour in European employment have generally fallen by 20 per cent. or more. In 1929 unskilled labourers on European farms received from 12*s.* to 14*s.* with food for thirty days' work. In 1931 cash wages for similar work appear to have been between 8*s.* and 12*s.*

In *Nyasaland* a Native labour census taken in August 1930 showed a total of 60,000 Natives in non-Native employment, a quarter of whom received less than 6*s.* a month in cash wages and the large majority of the remainder less than 20*s.* a month. The Government is of the opinion that the low wages paid are not conducive to efficiency on the part either of the employer or of the employed.

A new Employment of Natives Ordinance has been introduced, modelled on Tanganyika legislation. Compensation is provided for injuries caused to workers by the employer's negligence or defect in the plant used, and the Governor is enabled to make rules regulating the employment of children under sixteen.

An Ordinance has also been introduced to bring Nyasaland law and practice into harmony with the provisions of the Forced Labour Convention. Rules have been drafted concerning details not covered by the Ordinance (eight-hour day, weekly rest, extra payment for overtime, medical examination, inspection).

In the *Mandated Territory of Tanganyika* a Memorandum on the employment of Government labour was published in 1930. At the time of publication the Forced Labour Convention had not been adopted by the International Labour Conference. The instructions contained in the Memorandum for the limitation and eventual abolition of forced labour are, however, in agreement with the general provisions of the Convention and are based on the forced labour clause of the Mandate. "Compulsory labour", the Memorandum states, "is of all forms of labour the most wasteful and the least efficient, and its extended use is the greatest obstacle

to the development of a proper spirit of responsibility and industry . . . It is as essential for the future welfare of the people of this Territory as it is obligatory on the British Government . . . that compulsory labour should be a steadily diminishing factor and should finally disappear at the earliest possible moment." Provision is made in the Memorandum for an eight-hour day, weekly rest, double payment for overtime, medical inspection, workmen's compensation and periodical reports on working conditions.

The Mining (Safe Working) Regulations prohibit the employment of females and boys under fourteen in underground workings. The Employment of Children on Machinery Regulations, 1931, extend former prohibitions of child labour.

Statements in the 1930 report to the Council of the League concerning health conditions on certain estates showed the need for vigilant inspection, and it is most unfortunate that at this stage in the work of the newly formed Labour Department the necessity for administrative economies has been held to justify a restriction of the Department's activities. The Permanent Mandates Commission, at its November Session, expressed the hope that the excellent system of labour inspection established in Tanganyika would not thereby be prejudiced.

In *Uganda*, the Employment of Children Rules, 1931, prescribe a seven-hour day for children between twelve and fourteen in cotton-ginning factories and prohibit their employment on or near certain machinery. The Employment of Women Ordinance, 1931, prohibits the night work of women in industrial undertakings. Various Ordinances were also adopted to bring Uganda legislation into harmony with the provisions of the Forced Labour Convention.

In *Zanzibar*, a Decree of 1931 provides for the registration of trade unions and declares that the purposes of any trade union are not to be considered unlawful by reason merely that they are in restraint of trade.

In *Mauritius*, the Employment of Children Ordinance, 1931, prohibits the employment of children under thirteen in factories. A Workmen's Compensation Ordinance has also been adopted. Total temporary incapacity is generally compensated by a maximum of 50 per cent. of wages to a maximum amount of Rs. 30 a week and for a maximum period of twelve months. For permanent incapacity the maximum sum payable is half of three years' wages or Rs. 2,500, whichever is the less. In the event of fatal accidents dependants may receive two years' wages.

Although the general economic situation has affected the Rhodesias, in the first part of the year mining developments continued in *Northern Rhodesia*. As a result, the number of Natives in European employment continued to rise. In August 1931 80,000 Natives were estimated to be in employment, as compared with 76,000 in 1930, 61,000 in 1929 and 46,000 in 1928. At the present time the possibility of employment offered to such large

numbers appears a favourable factor in social progress. It means, however, in the words of a Government report, that "the young men have ceased to be peasants and have become labourers", and makes of particular importance the measures taken for the protection of labourers.

In 1931 Regulations were issued containing safeguards for the recruitment of labour, prescribing medical examination for employment on mines and works, a weekly rest and eight-hour shifts, and permitting the institution of deferred pay schemes. In four centres Native welfare associations have been formed, which with increased responsibilities may be able to help in the social construction of the country.

Southern Rhodesia, as a self-governing colony, is not included in the dependencies to which the Forced Labour Convention is to be applied by the British Government. The Convention has, however, been communicated to the Southern Rhodesian Government, and the Chief Native Commissioner has declared that it is definitely against the policy of the Government to employ or to sanction forced labour of any kind, except communal labour in case of public emergencies. The Prisons Act, 1931, however, permits convict labour to be hired out to private persons when its employment upon public works is not possible.

In *Bechuanaland* attention has been drawn to the position of subject tribes and to the system of compulsory labour in force, and the Government has appointed a Special Commissioner to report upon the status and general conditions of life of the Masarwa, one of the subject tribes.

The *British West African Dependencies* have perhaps been more hardly tried than the rest of British Africa by the economic crisis. While the system of Native production typical of these territories is in no way threatened, the Natives' confidence in their increasing prosperity through supplying the raw materials for European production has been shaken and attention is being paid to the encouragement of other than the single economic crops on which West African production has largely been based in the past.

Possibly the decreased demand and increased supply of labour accompanying the slump has been partly responsible for a decision of the *Gold Coast* Government, which, though but slightly affecting the practical position in the territory, may have important repercussions on Native labour policy elsewhere in Africa. In September 1931 a Bill was introduced and in October passed as the Master and Servant (Penal Provisions Repeal) Ordinance, 1931, cancelling provisions in the legislation permitting penal punishments for breach of contract and similar purely labour offences. The Government stated that the provisions in question had practically fallen into disuse and that the ordinary civil remedies were regarded as more suitable and fair. The importance of the measure is enhanced by the varied character of the Gold Coast labour supply. During the

year 1 April 1929 to 31 March 1930, for example, 136,224 persons passed through the Northern Territories in search of work, of whom 81,019 were French subjects. During the same period the average daily amount of labour employed on public works was 19,554, while 12,140 Africans were employed on the mines.

Another measure adopted in the Gold Coast during the year was the Co-operative Societies Ordinance, 1931.

In *Nigeria* an amendment to the Criminal Code has been introduced to increase the maximum period of imprisonment for slave dealing, child stealing and kindred offences from seven to fourteen years.

The only other West African law requiring mention is the *Sierra Leone* Minerals Amendment Order, 1930, which provides that rules may be issued restricting or prohibiting the employment of women or children in mining operations.

In *Cyprus* Law No. 12 of 16 May 1931, amending the 1900 Law relating to village roads, allows the inhabitants to choose between an annual maximum contribution of 6*s.* towards the works authorised in virtue of the law, and the total or partial commutation of this payment by participation in work within a distance of not more than 4 miles from the village. The rate of payment for such work may not be less than 1*s.* nor more than 2*s.* a day.

In the *Mandated Territory of Palestine* the policy of Great Britain as the Mandatory Power was further expounded in a letter, dated 13 February 1931, from the Premier, Mr. Ramsay MacDonald, to Dr. Weizmann, representing the Jewish Agency, which gave an "authoritative interpretation" of the Statement of Policy issued in October 1930. This letter repudiated any intention of crystallising conditions in Palestine at their present stage of development, and indicated certain measures proposed in regard to land development and the control of immigration. Steps were taken to give effect to the Mandatory Government's policy in regard to land development by the enactment in May, 1931, of a Protection of Cultivators Ordinance, designed to restrict evictions of tenants on transfers of land, and by the appointment, at the end of June, of a Director of Development.

The general depression, and particularly the fall in agricultural prices, affected economic conditions, and measures of relief by way of remission of tithes and the grant of loans for the purchase of seeds were found to be necessary. Jewish colonising and social activities were limited by shortage of funds. The compilation and publication of unemployment statistics, relating to Arabs as well as Jews, were undertaken in 1931; these statistics show a rapid increase in Arab unemployment, but the definition of unemployment adopted is exceptionally wide and is being discussed with a view to revision.

Immigration was severely restricted, the number of Jewish immigrants authorised under the "Labour Schedule" for the half-year April—September 1931 being only 500 and for the half-

year October 1931—March 1932 only 350. On the other hand, Arabs and Jews who had settled in Palestine in evasion of the Immigration Ordinance were accorded a period of grace in which to secure formal authorisation to remain in the country. A census taken on 19 November 1931 revealed a total population of 1,035,154, as compared with 775,182 at the 1922 Census.

No new labour legislation was enacted during the year, but a committee was set up to review existing legislation, in particular that providing for workmen's compensation. A committee to frame a scheme of unemployment insurance for its members was set up by the General Federation of Jewish Labour.

A notable development during the year was the adoption by the Union of Railway, Postal and Telegraph Workers in May of a system of internal organisation providing for Arab-Jewish parity. Co-operation between Arabs and Jews was also exemplified in an agitation against the payments of licence fees, culminating in a nine-day strike in November, by motor-owners and motor-drivers. The annual report submitted to the Permanent Mandates Commission stated that during 1930 there was a noticeable movement towards organisation among Arab workers.

For the *Mandated Territory of Iraq* the question of outstanding importance in 1931 has been that of the termination of the Mandate. The Permanent Mandates Commission, at its meeting in June, prepared a report for the Council of the League of Nations on the general conditions to be fulfilled in the case of the termination of a Mandate, and at its November session reported on the application of these general principles in the special case of 'Iraq.

No labour legislation has yet been enacted in 'Iraq, but on 19 May 1931, the 'Iraqi Council of Ministers resolved that a committee should be appointed to consider and report to the Minister of the Interior upon the extent to which existing International Labour Conventions, more especially those relating to the employment of women and children in industrial and commercial undertakings, could be adhered to, or generally followed, by the 'Iraqi Government. A delegation representing this committee visited the International Labour Office in September, and the British High Commissioner for 'Iraq, Sir Francis Humphrys, informed the Permanent Mandates Commission in November that the Government had " decided to accept in principle the suggestions made to its delegates by the International Labour Office and are preparing draft legislation embodying those suggestions for submission to Parliament ".

The fall in agricultural prices has seriously affected 'Iraq, and in May 1931 a law was enacted for the grant of advances to cultivators unable to finance their normal activities. The financial position of the country has been eased by revenue derived from the oil concession to the 'Iraq Petroleum Company, and the construction of a pipeline for oil and of a railway from 'Iraq to the Mediterranean, preparations for which began during the year, will probably stimulate considerably the industrial development of the country.

The new Constitution of *Ceylon* was made effective during 1931 by the election of the State Council and the setting-up of the various Ministries. Labour questions fall within the province of the Minister of Labour, Industry and Commmerce. A census taken in February 1931 returned a total population of 5,309, 404, an increase of 17.87 per cent. over 1921. The estate population was shown to have risen from 568, 850 in 1921 to 790,376 in 1931, an increase of 38.94 per cent.

Economic conditions in the island are reflected in the new rates of wages for Indian labourers on estates, rates which involve a reduction of about 20 per cent. A draft Ordinance published in October is intended to amend the Labour Ordinance of 1923 so as to provide for the recovery of fees by the Indian Immigration Fund from estates on the basis of the number of Indian labourers employed, whether immigrant or not, instead of on an acreage basis, and also for the extension of the responsibility of the Controller and Board of Indian Immigrant Labour to all Indian estate labour, immigrant and otherwise. A second draft Ordinance published in October is designed to facilitate the satisfaction of claims by labourers on the assets of estates. As regards trade disputes, an Industrial Disputes (Conciliation) Ordinance was enacted in March.

Throughout *British Malaya* a considerable decline in employment has taken place. The labour force on estates in the Federated Malay States, which was 258,780 at the end of 1929, fell to 170,625 by the end of 1930 and to 156,067 by 30 June 1931. Almost exclusively dependent for its labour supply on immigration, Malaya has been able partly to meet the situation thus created by restrictions on immigration and by the repatriation of the unemployed, during the first nine months of 1931 the excess of departures over arrivals being 161,634. In various employments, both where wage rates are unregulated and were minimum wage-fixing machinery has been established, wages have been reduced by about 20 per cent.

Apart from the emergency legislation necessitated by the economic situation, the more important labour laws passed in the year included a *North Borneo* Notice prohibiting the employment of children in industrial undertakings and a new *Sarawak* Order for the protection of *mui-tsai*. In the *Straits Settlements* the Workmen's Compensation Bill has been held up pending consideration of the report of the Indian Labour Commission. The similar enactment passed in the *Federated Malay States* has not been brought into force for the same reason.

An Ordinance, No. 34 of 1931, was issued in *Fiji* for the purpose of applying with some modifications the International Labour Conventions fixing the minimum age for admission of children to employment in industry and at sea and regulating the employment of women and young persons at night. The heavy fall in the prices of the principal products of the Colony, sugar and copra, has led to attempts to develop the cultivation of other crops. As a result of representations made to the Governor by Indian

cultivators regarding the hardships caused by indebtedness, the possibility of introducing a system of co-operative credit societies is under consideration.

In the *Gilbert and Ellice Islands* colony an Ordinance, No. 5 of 1931, was also issued applying the above-mentioned Conventions relating to women and children.

In the *British Solomon Islands* the importation or introduction of matches containing white or yellow phosphorus was prohibited by Proclamation, as from 1 March 1931. The Employment of Women, Young Persons and Children Regulation, 1931, gives effect to the four International Labour Conventions mentioned above.

In *Hong Kong* Notification No. 550 of 20 August 1931 strengthens the previous regulations on *mui-tsai* by providing for the inspection of such children. The inspection and control of conditions of employment will be carried out by officers nominated by the Governor. In regard to labour conditions in the Colony, wages have generally fallen as a consequence of the unfavourable commercial situation. The regulations concerning the night work of women have been further modified; night work is now prohibited between 9 p.m. and 7 a.m. for women and for young persons below eighteen years of age. The minimum age for the admission of children into factory employment has been raised from ten to twelve years.

Although the *British West Indian Dependencies* have been extremely badly hit by the crisis in the cane sugar industry, a number of new measures of labour legislation are reported. Unemployment resulting from the crisis has in some cases been tempered by the provision of employment on public works financed by the Colonial Development Fund.

In *British Guiana* Mining Regulations promulgated on 5 August 1931 contain sanitary regulations and prohibit the underground employment of women and boys under fourteen years of age. The employment of young persons under sixteen is limited to a maximum of forty hours in the week and seven in the day. The Regulations also prohibit the employment of persons on steam machinery for more than eight consecutive hours.

In *British Honduras* two Ordinances have been adopted, the first concerning the employment of women in industrial undertakings and the second the employment of young persons and children.

In *Trinidad and Tobago* Regulations of 29 January 1931 contain provisions concerning safety, in particular prohibiting the employment of women and young persons under sixteen on derrick floors during the time any well is being drilled or repaired.

Ethiopia. — On 15 July 1931 the Emperor issued a Decree to supplement the 1924 Regulations concerning the liberation of slaves.

The Decree repeals the previous provisions declaring that slaves of a deceased owner were to be freed at the latest seven years after their owner's death, and instead stipulates immediate emancipation for such slaves. In cases where slaves are accountable to the heirs for property or work entrusted to them, they may be held for one year before liberation. The sale or purchase of slaves is declared to be punishable as slave-raiding. The Decree concludes with the statement that the law will be progressively amended until slavery has completely disappeared.

France. — In the French colonial empire, the year 1931 marked the extreme limit yet reached by the economic crisis. As elsewhere, the crisis was both economic and financial. To meet it, various measures were pursued in the course of the year.

In the first place, the two Chambers adopted the loans for public works and services, mentioned in the 1930 Annual Review and providing for the raising of nearly 8,000,000,000 francs [1]. It is believed in French colonial circles that these loans will have an appreciably beneficial effect on the overseas possessions. With the commencement of employment large sums will be distributed in wages. The Natives will obtain fresh facilities for production, in particular as a result of the opening of new areas for cultivation. Thirdly, following new transport facilities, it will be possible to market products at decreased cost. Finally benefits will accrue by the development of health measures. This last may prove a factor of considerable importance. During the discussion in the Chamber, an amendment moved by Mr. Daladier was adopted, providing for a special credit of 300 million francs earmarked for the health protection of the Native races. This special credit, which with subsequent additions will amount to 477 millions, will enable the Minister for the Colonies to set up an inspectorate service for the control of medical conditions of employment and for the supervision of the progress of the population. It will also enable the most efficient use to be made of labour from the time of initial engagement to repatriation, taking account of labour conditions and the regulation of workmen's compensation. The measures of health protection thus provided will form a useful complement to the more administrative measures of control represented by the establishments of a colonial labour inspectorate, the Bill for which has been pending for the last two years [2].

Nevertheless, the influence of these loans on production can only make itself felt at a somewhat distant date. The French Government has therefore considered that action of a more immediate nature is necessary to meet the market stagnation in colonial products. While the local Governments have resorted to measures

[1] This sum includes the North African loans and also the loans for Somaliland, the French establishments in Oceania and the second Cameroons loan, voted by the Chamber but not yet adopted by the Senate.

[2] This Bill was approved by the Chamber in March 1931. It has not yet been voted by the Senate.

such as premiums on production, reduction of transport dues, reduction of export fees, advances to planters, the home country has supported and completed these measures by encouraging the entry into France of French colonial produce by various taxes on foreign produce, the revenue from which will be transferred to French producers through compensation funds. Various opinions have been expressed on these measures of protection. Both opponents and adversaries, however, of State action of this nature agree that it will be without effect if the producers do not complement it by energetic action aimed particularly at the reduction of sale costs by such measures as the standardisation and improvement of produce.

The Government has also had to take steps to meet the credit crisis which accompanied and aggravated the commercial crisis. For this purpose it has examined the possibility of establishing a financial corporation especially qualified to carry on credit operations in the colonies and able to grant long or medium term credits to various undertakings. With this object in view, a Bill will probably be introduced into Parliament at an early date. In the meantime the Government has encouraged credit facilities through the intermediary of existing institutions such as the National Credit Fund and the Agricultural Credit Fund.

In spite of these difficulties, the International Colonial Exhibition held in Paris in 1931 was a great sucess. A number of congresses were held in connection with it, offering the opportunity for the comparison of the various methods of colonial administration. A systematic prosecution of the work thus forwarded will enable the elements to be laid down of a colonial doctrine better adapted to present needs. Two essential principles emerged from the more important of these meetings. The first was the necessity of treating colonial questions resolutely as scientific questions, thus putting an end to the empirical, improvised methods of the past. The second, particularly emphasised at the congresses for the discussion of Native society and the improvement of Native agriculture, was the value which would result from assigning due importance to development by the Natives, in particular agricultural development.

Last year's *Annual Review* mentioned the promulgation of the Decree of 21 August 1930 for the regulation of compulsory labour for public purposes in the colonies. This Decree provides for the issue of detailed regulations by the Colonial Governors within a period of six months. It is probable that such regulations will shortly be issued and will complete the regulation of forced or compulsory labour on lines directly inspired by the Geneva discussions.

In *North Africa* the economic crisis, by lessening production in particular in extractive industries, has put an end to the labour shortage which was the marked feature of recent years. On the other hand, it does not appear to have retarded measures of workers' protection and has even encouraged new measures.

In *Algeria*, the financial delegations, in an attempt to do away with the unhealthy Native dwellings, have adopted a vast programme of housing reform for the construction of 4,000 villages containing 400,000 one- or two-roomed cottages. The total cost will be about 5,000,000,000 francs, which has been spread over fifty years at the rate of 100,000,000 francs a year. In addition, the French Government has prepared a Bill authorising the Southern territories of Algeria to raise a loan of 100,000,000 francs. This sum is to be spread over ten years and out of it 8,500,000 francs is provided for improvements in Native hygiene by the construction of hospitals and dispensaries and by measures against malaria.

In *Morocco* a Dahir of 18 December 1930 provides for weekly rest in industrial and commercial undertakings and offices. By a Dahir of 24 March 1931, the Dahir of 25 June 1927 concerning responsibility for industrial accidents has been extended, subject to certain modifications, to timber and cork undertakings. A Dahir of 9 May 1931 has extended to carriage painting the provisions of the Dahir of 13 July 1926 prohibiting the use of white lead.

In *Tunisia* the crisis was aggravated by prolonged drought, as a result of which agricultural production was hardly hit and the markets for Native crafts restricted. The fellahs of the centre and south and some of the artisan corporations have been granted Government advances and assistance in kind. Enquiries are being undertaken into the improvement of agricultural and artisan credit, as a measure directed against Native peasant and artisan poverty and the system of moneylending, which has further developed during the crisis. In February 1931 the Tunisian Government obtained the submission to the French Chamber of a Bill similar to that moved in 1924 for the establishment of arbitration boards in Tunisia.

In *French West Africa* the economic crisis was particularly severe in Senegal, the Ivory Coast and Dahomey, countries producing grounds nuts, palms, cacao and timber. The purchasing power of the Native population suffered terribly by the fall in the market prices of these products. The situation of the people was further aggravated by difficulties in purchasing foodstuffs in colonies which have concentrated principally on economic crops. As a result, private banks were compelled to suspend their operations in spite of initial help by the Bank of West Africa.

In a speech delivered at the opening of the Government Council for French West Africa on 14 December 1931, Governor-General Brévié outlined his conception of the possible programme of economic revival for the group of colonies under his charge.

In the first place, it is necessary to reduce the general budget and to adapt it to new conditions. In the second place, it is essential to increase the Native's power of production so as to preserve as far as possible his purchasing powers. Commercial interests should see that there is some correspondence between export and import prices, so

that the Native will not be discouraged from purchase. A serious effort should be made to extend the cultivation of food crops. In the future it would be of value to incorporate all colonial production in an enlarged French economic unit. The colonies should produce the products which the home country is at the moment obtaining from foreign countries.

Finally, the Governor-General in his speech insisted on the necessity of "increasing the value" of the Native.

During the year the administration has been constant in its efforts to organise Native production. Various local Orders were issued concerning agricultural credit, amending the rules of Native provident funds, and generally promoting production by agricultural education, the establishment of cotton plantations, the granting of premiums for the encouragement of Native farmers, etc.

In regard to labour legislation, mention may be made of the establishment of new arbitration committees, the prohibition of recruiting in certain districts and a Circular of 12 March 1931 providing workmen's compensation for workers called up as the second contingent of the Native levies. Finally, by an Order of 18 June 1931 the labour dues system was generally regulated throughout French West Africa. Provision is made for a reduction in the number of days of labour (maximum ten, instead of twelve), the general right of commutation and the further definition of the forms of service which may be required from the prestation labour.

In the *Mandated Territory of French Togoland* Natives have escaped the worst effects of the crisis owing to the development of the cultivation of foodstuffs effected through administrative encouragement. The emigration to the neighbouring British territories noted in previous years seems to have ceased. Natives are even returning, attracted by the success of the settlement villages and the progress of Togo cultivation, and affected by the particularly severe economic crisis in the neighbouring territories. The construction of the railway is being pursued in favourable conditions. The labour force at present consists of 1,800 men, chiefly volunteers. Prestation labour may now be said to have ceased in the Mandated Territory as a result of the generalisation of the practice of commuting the labour by money payments. Measures have been taken by the administration for the protection of workers engaged in the plucking of cotton and kapok.

The situation in *French Equatorial Africa* is still dominated by the question of the railway between the Congo and the Atlantic, the completion of which is expected by the spring of 1934. Labour conditions on the line continued to receive the attention of the administration. The employment of Asiatic labourers has given good results from the point of view of health, but difficulties have arisen as regards discipline which cast doubts on the ultimate success of the experiment. The question of the labour supply was treated in general instructions issued on 30 June 1931, and later,

on 4 November further instructions defined the purposes and organisation of the service for the victualling of Native labourers. The number of voluntary workers and of re-engagements on the railway line is gradually increasing. It is hoped that once the difficult range on Mayombé is crossed, it will be possible to complete the line without calling up new drafts of forced workers.

In regard to Native agriculture, a Decree of 24 April 1931 authorises the Governor-General to raise a loan of 20,000,000 francs for the establishment of a fund for the assistance of Native production. A Decree of 15-16 November 1931 authorises the creation of an agricultural credit fund. The Administration is also considering measures for the improvement of Native food supplies with a view to remedying under-population.

In the *Mandated Territory of the French Cameroons* the deficiency in the budget has been met out of reserves. Moreover, owing to the character of Native agriculture in this territory the people have been able to escape the worst effects of the crisis. The situation is encouraging the administration to continue its policy of developing a Native peasantry. A somewhat serious question for the future of the territory has been raised by the proposed construction of a new railway line prolonging the Central Railway towards the north. It will be necessary to recruit 5,000 Natives for the work. The administration hopes that the favourable climatic conditions in the highlands will make conditions of work easier and enable the difficulties encountered in the construction of the Central Railway to be avoided. The High Commissariat intends to resort as little as possible to the requisition of workers and to encourage voluntary engagements by a high wage policy. The arbitration committees did not prove as satisfactory as was expected and the administration has decided not to continue them.

The effects of the crisis were felt in *Madagascar* before other territories. During 1931 the crisis became more severe, particularly in the coffee industry. With the assistance of the banks, the administration organised medium term credits and it also hopes the situation will be improved as the result of public works undertaken as a result of the French loans.

In the *Annual Review* for 1930 mention was made of the important innovation resulting from the Order of 6 November 1930 for the voluntary recruiting of groups of workers to assist other labourers in the execution of public works (S.M.O.T.I.G.). The system seems to have given satisfactory results. An Order of 18 July 1931 regulates the movements of Native workers outside their home areas. Twenty-three arbitration committees were instituted during the year; technical education was reorganised; agricultural credit and co-operation continued to show improvement.

Indo-China, which up to 1930 succeeded in escaping the crisis, was severely affected in 1931. The situation is particularly serious

in the case of the cultivation of rice. The Minister of the Colonies intends to introduce in the near future a Bill which will place at the disposal of an Indo-China credit institution capital to be granted at reasonable rates of interest. The Minister has also accepted the general idea of the establishment in Cochin-China of a Rural Settlement Bureau, the functions of which will be to increase the number of small farmers by the grant of vacant land.

The disturbances which in 1931 were of some seriousness appear not to have been repeated during the past year. The administration is considering a general programme of reforms. In social matters circulars have been issued by the Governor-General recommending to the administrators a fuller policy of association with the Native population, in particular by an increase in direct contacts with the Natives. Social assistance has been developed by the co-operation of the public and private authorities. The salt régime has been modified and the alcohol régime will be modified in the near future. As regards labour matters, there may be noted for 1931 a slight modification to the Decree setting up in Indo-China conciliation boards for the settlement of individual disputes between employers and workers. In addition, an Order of 28 July provided for the appointment of a labour controller attached to the Indo-Chinese General Labour Inspectorate. Last year's *Review* noted the submission to the Council in October 1930 of two draft Decrees, one concerning collective labour disputes and the other regulating the employment of women and children and night work in Indo-China. These two drafts have been accepted by the Council and their texts have been communicated for information to the Chambers of Commerce and Agriculture. The Office has not learned whether they have been transformed into legislation. The same is true of the proposed legislation concerning workmen's compensation.

In *French Somaliland* a prestation system has been introduced. In *Syria* chief attention has been directed to the revision and adaptation of its new political statute. In *French Guiana* measures have been taken by the administration to develop the autonomous territory of Inini by the despatch of Indo-Chinese penal labour. In the *French West Indies* action has been taken to improve the equipment of the colonies. In *New Caledonia* two Orders of 31 May and one Order of 30 September 1931 were promulgated completing and amending the general regulations for the employment of Native labour.

Italy. — In 1931 the economic crisis appears to have had a twofold effect on the Italian colonies. In the first place it has made necessary a marked reduction in Government expenditure; in the second place it has encouraged increased activity on the part of the Italian authorities, especially in the treatment of agricultural problems.

In *Libya*, which is regarded as a colony of settlement, the Government is continuing to take an active part in encouraging the

settlement of families of Italian colonists by State contributions to development expenses, by agricultural credit facilities and by the distribution of plants through the Agricultural Office. In official circles a programme of increased settlement in Libya is being considered. Mr. Alessandro Lessona, Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, has spoken in favour of a system of military settlement, clearly based on the old Roman conception of colonisation. To develop further the settlement and development of Libya at a moderate cost Mr. Lessona has proposed to use the voluntary Fascist militia for the opening up of the country.

In *Italian East Africa* the authorities appear to have paid much attention to economic development, and in particular have endeavoured to standardise and find markets for the two important products of the colonies, cotton and bananas.

From the information received by the Office, it does not appear that the recent development of the Italian colonies has led to the employment of forced or compulsory labour. Indeed, the first Italian Congress of Colonial Studies, which met in Florence from 8 to 12 April and was attended by a large number of Italian colonial experts, pronounced clearly in favour of the Convention and two Recommendations adopted by the International Labour Conference. The legal section of the Congress unanimously approved a motion congratulating the Italian delegation to the Conference on its votes and confidently awaiting " action on the part of the central Government and the colonial Governments for the development of the policy maintained and approved by the Geneva meetings ". The same Congress held a long discussion on a resolution of more particular interest to Tripolitania and Cyrenaica. This resolution, which was adopted by a majority by the legal section, recommended a study of the possibility of gradually extending to the colony Italy's system of corporative organisation.

The following are the chief measures of a social nature adopted in 1931 in the various Italian colonies:

In *Tripolitania and Cyrenaica* a Royal Decree of 16 February 1931 has extended to the crews of vessels engaged in the sponge fishery the provisions of the Decree of 8 March 1914 authorising the Minister for the Colonies to fix at the beginning of each season compensation rates for divers injured in employment. As a result a Ministerial Decree of 25 April 1931 fixed the rates for the 1931 season.

In *Cyrenaica* the Vice-Governor, General Graziani, and the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonies, Mr. Lessona, in statements to the press, described the conditions of life and labour of the 80,000 nomads who have been settled in the coast district as a result of the recent pacification of the Djebel. Mr. Lessona explained that the Government has used this labour on public works in return for suitable payment, on the sinking of wells and on the transformation of the steppes into irrigated plots which

have been allotted to separate families. General Graziani drew attention to the habits of cleanliness acquired as a result of life in the concentration camps, to the medical attention supplied free of charge by medical officers and nurses, to the fact that the camps are supplied satisfactorily with foodstuffs to which the peoples are accustomed, and to the grants in cash and kind accorded by the Government to necessitous families.

Japan. — The Japanese population in the *Mandated Territory of the South Sea Islands* continues to increase, having reached 19,835 at the census of 1 October 1930 out of a total of 69,626, as compared with 3,671 in 1920. The native population has increased very slightly, being 49,695 in 1930 as compared with 48,798 in 1925 and 48,505 in 1920. The decline in the population of the island of Yap has not yet been arrested. The subsidised sugar industry, which employs only Japanese who are engaged in Japan, continues to develop, a second factory having commenced manufacture on the island of Tinian in 1930. The export of phosphate from the Angaur mines also continues to increase, but the copra export declined in value.

Liberia. — In January 1931 a Committee of the League Council was constituted to assist the Liberian Government in giving effect to the recommendations of the International Commission of Enquiry appointed by the Liberian Government to investigate allegations of slavery and forced labour in Liberia. Three experts were subsequently sent to Liberia at the Government's invitation to enquire into the financial, sanitary and administrative assistance which might be offered.

In the meantime, the Government has taken the following measures for remedying the abuses to which attention was drawn by the International Commission.

The ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour was registered with the Secretary-General on 1 May 1931.

By an Act dated 15 December 1930 the recruiting of contract labour for service beyond the frontier of the Republic is made illegal, except for service on merchant vessels. An Act of 19 December 1930 prohibits the taking, holding or giving in pawn of any person and prescribes the release of all persons held in pawn. Other Acts provide for the appointment of foreign Commissioners to submit recommendations on the welfare of the people and for the reorganisation of the administration of the Native territories.

Netherlands. — During 1931 the economic depression accentuated in the *Dutch East Indies.* The steady fall in the price of exports compelled all producers to limit production, with the result that hundreds of European employees lost their posts on estates and tens of thousands of Javanese workers were repatriated from the Outer Provinces. There was almost complete suspension of recruiting for these Provinces and for abroad. Wages were generally reduced.

The economic crisis directly prejudiced those East Indians who grow economic crops for the world market. In these circumstances the fact that nearly all the East Indian growers of economic crops are able to grow their own food supplies has been a favourable factor.

From investigations undertaken by the Batavia Labour Office it appears that whereas unemployment among Europeans has affected an alarming number of victims, it does not exist in the normal sense of the word among the Native communities even in the towns. All that can be said of conditions among them is that there has been a general lowering of standards of life characterised in particular by an increasing lack of cash in the villages and occasionally by the return to barter. However, so long as the food supplies are not threatened the situation does not afford such serious problems as those of unemployment in European countries.

The economic depression has also seriously affected public finance and has compelled the Government to adopt stringent measures of economy. Some of these measures will result in the slowing down of the abolition of labour dues known as " heerendiensten ". The Government has postponed the redemption of " particuliere landerijen ". It has also proved impossible to put into effect the proposals for the limitation of labour dues mentioned last year. During the year the Volksraad passed an Ordinance which is less radical in nature and merely abolishes such " heerendiensten ", as can be suppressed without increased expense.

The Volksraad also adopted a Bill authorising the ratification of the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour and this Bill has since been laid before the home Parliament. Although the home Parliament has not as yet to take a decision, the ratification of the Convention by the Netherlands appears certain. Moreover, the Ordinance mentioned above has anticipated any decision that may be taken by the Hague Parliament by providing for, in addition to its primary objects, the continuation of the reform of the " heerendiensten " system so as to bring it in accordance with the provisions of the Convention. The Netherlands Government is considering accompanying its ratification with two declarations in regard to the Dutch East Indies. One of these declarations will, for reasons of constitutional law, exclude Article 3 from the application in the Dutch East Indies, although the principle will be retained whereby the competent central authorities will in all cases assume responsibility for recourse to forced labour. The second declaration will state that the provisions of Article 4 of the Convention will not for the moment be applied to forced labour carried out by the tenants of " particuliere landerijen " for the benefit of the owners. Nevertheless, in spite of the financial difficulties which have resulted in the postponement of the return of the " particuliere landerijen " to the State by redemption or expropriation, the Government has announced that it is ready to seek means by which at least the imposition of forced labour on these lands can be immediately abolished.

In the case of contract labour important progress has been made, particularly in regard to penal sanctions. The Draft Coolie Ordinance, which provides that employers will be obliged to engage an increasing percentage of free labourers in relation to their total labour force, was adopted by the Volksraad, approved by the Governor-General and came into force on 1 July 1931. Another Ordinance, also mentioned last year, providing for the establishment of an Immigrant Labour Chamber at Medan (East Coast of Sumatra) has also been adopted and the Chamber began its activities on 1 January 1932. Another development was the decision in October 1931 of the tobacco firms with estates in Sumatra to abrogate the use of the penal sanctions provided by the law in the case of all workers employed on their estates. Soon afterwards this example was followed by the Deli Railway Company (East Coast of Sumatra). The action of the tobacco firms is all the more noteworthy as it was they in particular who contested the possibility of abolishing penal sanctions in the space of a few years.

Moreover, to avoid as far as possible the substitution of free for penal sanction workers by the new 1931 Coolie Ordinance lowering the health standards which the employers have reached to some extent as a result of the possibility of applying penal sanctions, an Ordinance has been drafted providing for the compulsory transfer to hospital of workers in certain circumstances.

Lastly, mention may be made of the completion of an enquiry onducted by the Batavia Labour Office into the Java batik industry This enquiry showed that many of the conditions of labour were very unsatisfactory. Certain recommendations of great interest were made by the labour inspector in charge.

In the case of *Dutch Guiana* the world economic crisis has aggravated the chronic depression from which the country has been suffering for the past years. As a result the Government has been compelled to come to the assistance of certain industries by granting credits and reducing taxes. In spite of these measures several undertakings have shut down or reduced production and the result has been that several thousands of workers have been thrown out of employment. Moreover, hundreds of workers have returned unemployed from Curaçao where they were working in the oil industry. To meet the situation the Government has opened an employment exchange, taken on several hundred of the unemployed on works of construction and established a relief committee, one of the duties of which is to assist unemployed who wish to try their fortune in gold prospecting to start into the interior of the country.

One unexpected result of the crisis is that it has favoured the transition to free labour. The coffee planters in particular have found in their endeavours to reduce costs that, as a result of its seasonal character, their work can be carried out at less expense by free than by penal sanction labour. They have put their conclusions into practice, being assisted by the fact that the colonisation

schemes for Javanese peasants inaugurated by the Government in 1930 have shown that it is possible to bring from Java free workers of a higher standard than the workers engaged under penal sanctions. The importation of penal sanction labour was completely suspended. On the other hand, free Javanese workers continued to be brought into the colony and will also be brought in during 1932.

New Zealand. — The system inaugurated by legislation in 1929 of granting advances of State funds to enable Maoris to make effective use of their lands was extended during 1931. Maoris are feeling the stress of economic pressure, due to their increase in numbers, the cessation of former opportunities of employment in pioneering work by white settlers, and the rise in their standard of living caused by the influence of white civilisation. They have therefore welcomed a system which assists them to acquire the knowledge required for engaging in agriculture on their own account and to obtain the necessary fencing material, manures and stock, and have eagerly contributed their own labour for the work of land development, so that schemes have been carried out at remarkably low cost.

The report to the League Council on the *Mandated Territory of Western Samoa* for the year ended 31 March 1931, stated that political unrest had steadily diminished. The number of Chinese labourers in the Territory on 1 April 1931 was 917, as compared with 953 a year previously. The demand for Chinese labour was diminishing somewhat, owing to general economic conditions, the cessation of operations on some rubber plantations, more efficient plantation management, and also through increasing employment of Samoans as they adapt themselves to plantation work.

Portugal. — The Portuguese colonies have been severely affected by the world crisis. In *Angola* the depression has been particularly acute. The fall in the prices of raw materials has discouraged the Africans from continuing their early efforts to grow economic crops. Moreover, by the postponement of the construction of new railway lines to Rhodesia and Saurimo, many thousands who would have been employed will be unable to find work. In addition, the reduction of the labour force on the diamond mines is expected.

The situation is no less serious in the islands of *San Tomé and Principé*, where the agricultural labour force is drawn from Angola and Mozambique. With the object of lightening the not inconsiderable expenses resulting from the compulsory repatriation of Africans at the end of their contract and in view of the difficulties repatriated workers would experience in finding work in their own countries as a result of the crisis, the Portuguese Government, by a Decree No. 19369 of 29 February 1931, has permitted the

prolongation of contracts expiring before 31 December 1931 subject to the agreement of employer and worker.

In *Mozambique* certain market garden and similar produce still finds profitable markets in the Transvaal, and in spite of the fall in prices the situation of the growers is not unfavourable. Nevertheless in this colony, as in *Portuguese Guinea*, the crisis has resulted in a marked discouragement of Native cultivation.

In the various Portuguese colonies there has been no important change in labour legislation during 1931. The 1928 Native Labour Code has been put into force. In Mozambique grants have been made to recruiting organisations so as to enable them to meet their expenses. Finally, the system of land concessions is in course of modification.

South Africa. — In the *Union of South Africa* general economic depression was partly compensated by the activity of the Rand gold-mining industry, the Native labour strength of which in February 1931 reached the record figure of 211,000, in spite of a decreased Portuguese East Africa supply.

In March 1931 the Government appointed a Commission to enquire into the economic and social conditions of Natives, this being the first Governmental enquiry into Native conditions on a large scale since 1904. Interesting evidence appears already to have been collected by the Commission, emphasising especially the drift of Natives to the towns in recent years.

A Workmen's Compensation Bill has been drafted. It proposes increased compensation for the mass of employed Natives, and endeavours by specially favourable provisions for Natives earning more than £160 a year to lessen the gap between European workers and those Native workers who are wholly dependent on their wage earning capacity and are approaching European standards of life.

The Native Service Contract Bill is still under consideration. It has been the subject of much criticism, *inter alia* because the taxing of owners of land on which are domiciled Natives who do not enter into contracts of employment would be practically equivalent to forcing such Natives to work for private employers. On the other hand, it has been explained that the Bill is advantageous to the Natives in that it makes contracts compulsory and thereby protects the farm Natives from the uncertainties of their present position.

The economic situation has not been favourable to Native trade unionism, and but little progress appears to have been made. On the other hand, the Joint Council movement has advanced. In a score of urban areas Councils have been formed of Europeans and Natives on an equal footing, for the study of the various social and economic problems affecting the two races.

Both world and local economic conditions have adversely affected the *Mandated Territory of South West Africa.* In the report of the

Union of South Africa to the Council of the League the year 1930 was described as tragic and the situation does not appear to have improved since. At the end of 1930 the total number of Natives in mining employment was 4,894, as compared with 8,102 at the end of 1929. On the other hand, improvement was marked in health conditions in mines, the general mining death rate of 28.12 per thousand being the lowest recorded during the past five years. In the copper and vanadium mines in the North, the rate was reduced from 82.40 to 39.63, largely as a result of improved transport for recruited workers, improved water facilities, the supply of cooked rations, improved sanitation, and the provision of light employment for workers during their first fortnight. An enquiry undertaken by the mining companies into the causes of respiratory diseases led to the conclusion that the susceptibility of Natives varies according to their territorial origin, and that the main factor in this susceptibility is the non-immunity of races new to the conditions of compound life.

B. — The International Situation

The predominant feature of 1931 in colonial territories was the world economic crisis. In its various forms it served to emphasise the necessity for a common policy on the part of the various States to meet common difficulties. It brought into prominence the responsibility assumed by colonial powers in encouraging the Native populations to engage in forms of production closely dependent on world economy. It is becoming increasingly difficult to admit that the administrations which have undertaken the task of directing Native economic life shall halt and refuse to save the peoples under their charge from the unfortunate results of systems imposed upon them. Their duty appears all the clearer as the Natives have no clear conception of the mechanism of economic crises. Certain disturbances which broke out in various territories in 1931 have been partly attributed to the discontent caused among the Natives by a sudden fall in their resources with no corresponding decrease in the cost of imported goods, and generally to defective social conditions.

It is true that a recognition of the need for measures of protection has had a general influence on the policy of colonial powers in the face of the crisis. If their first efforts have in most cases been directed to saving European undertakings, sometimes more directly threatened as a result of their higher costs of production, these measures have been followed by others intended more particularly to protect the Native producer.

The effect of the crisis on Native life has in many cases drawn attention to the necessity for new methods. One feature of importance is that the greater the industrial development of the territory, the greater has been the unfortunate effect of unemployment upon

the Natives. A Native who loses his employment in a factory undertaking is without resource, separated from his home district and deprived of the advantages which would be given him by the posession of agricultural resources. In such cases it would appear that one of the remedies to be sought may be found in the execution of important public works for the employment of the unemployed. Other considerations, however, such as those resulting from the position of the local budgets or psychological factors have in certain cases prevented the putting into effect of such a policy. It has proved easier to follow this programme in territories like the French colonies where the voting of important loans on the eve of the crisis have made available large resources for the commencement of important works. On the other hand in colonies like the Belgian Congo not only have new works been considered impossible but old works have been interrupted.

As a result of this situation the importance of developing Native economy through agriculture has received considerable support. Nevertheless, some understanding is necessary on the best means of such development. The colonies which have been most seriously affected by the crisis are those where economic crops have been too exclusively encouraged to the detriment of the cultivation of food crops. In colonies where the cultivation of economic and food crops has advanced side by side, the present difficulties have been met much more easily. Examples of this nature lead to the belief that the International Labour Conference acted prudently in following the Assembly of the League of Nations and refusing to authorise the principle of the compulsory cultivation of economic crops by an Article in the Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour. In countries like Belgium, where so far the policy of economic crops appears to have received unanimous support in colonial circles, doubts are now being felt. Mention has already been made of those suggested by the delegation of the Belgian Native Labour Committee on its return from Africa.

In addition to emphasing the value of a food crop policy based on family organisation, the economic crisis has drawn attention in the case of many colonial territories to the necessity of improving and rationalising production by the use of scientific methods. The time has passed when no matter what kind of raw material produced at any price would find its purchaser. The reduction in market demands has necessarily led to stringent price revisions. The colonial territories which are best resisting the crisis are those where the administration has long organised production on scientific lines. The other colonies will be compelled to adopt similar methods and in fact have already done so.

Finally, the crisis has proved the value of credit facilities and co-operative schemes in the organisation of Native production. In many cases the Native only needs reasonable credit to enable him to rise to the position of an independent producer. The French colonies are at the present moment showing great activity in placing such credits at the Natives' disposal principally by means

of Government action. In other colonies co-operative credit societies are being formed and certain experiments which have already been made give reason to believe that this method of assisting Native production has a great future.

In spite of differences in methods the same principles appear to be emerging as necessary in the efforts of the various colonial powers: the improvement of all elements in agricultural production, of the land by the use of machinery and manures; of the produce by the selection of seed; and of man himself by measures of health protection, by the settlement of free producers on their own land and by emancipation from usury through agricultural credit organised by co-operative societies or otherwise.

The community of problems to be solved appears more than ever to demand co-operation on the part of colonial powers. It is impossible to contest the progress which may result from scientific studies undertaken in common, from the mutual interchange of experience, and particularly from collaboration of an avowedly international character: agreements for the co-ordination of production and consumption, for the articulation of large scale public works in adjoining territories, etc. The necessity for such measures has not escaped the attention of competent authorities; the collaboration of colonial powers was one of the themes most frequently recurring in official pronouncements made during the International Colonial Exhibition and the congresses held during that great meeting gave experts from all countries the opportunity of defining and comparing their opinions. Inter-colonial co-operation in many instances appears to be the first stage towards international collaboration. Mention has already been made of the possibilities suggested for the British colonies by the Conference of Colonial Directors of Agriculture. In regard to French territories, the annual North African Conference now includes the heads of administration of all the important French possessions in Africa. Moreover, a Bill is to be introduced into the French Parliament for the establishment of a National Council of Overseas France, through which it is hoped to co-ordinate the methods followed in the various colonies.

At the same time, however, the wave of economic nationalism experienced in European countries cannot fail to affect their colonial policies. Colonial powers are endeavouring to form a close cycle of exchanges between their overseas territories and the home country, the former being the sole suppliers and customers of the latter, in the hope that by such exclusive economic systems each State will be able to live on its own under the shelter of customs barriers. The question may be asked whether the increasingly evident world economic interdependence will enable trust to be placed for long in such methods. Here it is only necessary to mention the problem in so far as it affects problems of Native labour. It is, however, clear that every effort for the protection of Native labour, which necessitates the support of a system of international undertakings, will be rendered difficult by an egotistical attitude on

the part of the States, causing them to withdraw within their own imperial frontiers.

It has been shown how, as a result of the economic crisis restricting the markets for colonial products, Native labour problems no longer occupy the foreground of consideration. Possibly in certain places the fall in the labour demand has rendered former methods of recruiting less rigorous. Nevertheless, it would appear premature to conclude that labour problems have now ceased to be of predominant importance. The review given above of progress during 1931 in the various territories would be sufficient to demonstrate the error of any such contention.

It may here be convenient to place the following table of measures adopted or under consideration in regard to the Convention and Recommendations concerning forced or compulsory labour. It will be seen that Australia, Denmark, the Irish Free State, Liberia, Great Britain and Sweden have officially ratified the Convention, that the ratification by the Netherlands is well in hand, and that an increasing number of other States are showing their appreciation of the importance of the Convention and Recommendations.

International Regulations

Convention concerning forced or compulsory labour, 1930

Australia. — Ratification registered on 2 January 1932. The provisions of the Convention apply without mtodification to the Territories of Papua and Norfolk Island and the Mandated Territories of New Guinea and Nauru.

Austria. — Submitted to the National Council. In the memorandum accompanying the text of the Convention the Austrian Government notes that the Convention does not directly affect Austria. It expresses the view however that its ratification should be taken into consideration for humanitarian reasons, especially in view of the fact that Austria has already ratified the Slavery Convention of 25 September 1926. The Government considers, however, that ratification by Austria should only take place after the principal colonial powers have ratified the Convention.

Brazil. — Submitted for examination to the competent services of the National Department of Labour.

Bulgaria. — Submitted to the Sobranje by Cabinet Order of 15 December 1931.

Canada. — The text of the Convention was laid before the Federal Parliament, together with an Order in Council dealing with the competence of the Parliament of Canada and of the Provincial Legislatures respectively in relation to the subject matter of the Convention. This Order in Council stated that the Minister of Justice was satisfied that the conditions relating to the use of forced or compulsory labour do not exist in Canada and that no legislative or other action, whether on the part of the Dominion or of the Provinces, is therefore required. The texts of the Order in Council and of the Convention have been transmitted to the Provincial Governments.

Chile. — A report of the Labour Inspectorate dated 28 August 1931 states that a Decree codifying labour legislation, which was promulgated on 28 May 1931 and came into force on 29 November 1931, contains the necessary provisions to give effect to the Conventions which have not yet been ratified by Chile.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate by a message of the Executive Power dated 23 February 1931.

Denmark. — Ratification registered on 11 February 1932.

Estonia. — On 3 November 1931 the Riigikogu decided to take note of the Convention.

Germany. — Submitted to the Cabinet of Ministers with a recommendation for ratification.

Great Britain. — Ratification registered on 3 June 1931. Subjoined to the instrument of ratification is a list of the British non-self-governing Colonies and Protectorates and of the Mandated Territories administered under British authority to which the Convention is to be applied without modification. In addition, with the consent of His Majesty's Government in Newfoundland, His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom has accepted the obligations of the Convention on behalf of Newfoundland. This information was registered with the Secretariat on 13 November 1931.

Hungary. — The Royal Government has pointed out that there is no forced labour of any kind in Hungary. Its intention is to take note of the Convention.

India. — On 3 and 5 October 1931 respectively the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted a resolution stating that the Convention could not be ratified until Article 2 was modified, but recommending the Government of India to take action on all other provisions of the Convention.

Irish Free State. — Ratification registered on 2 March 1931.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Japan. — Submitted to the Privy Council on 26 December 1931.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Cabinet of Ministers on 9 December 1931.

Liberia. — Ratification registered on 1 May 1931.

Netherlands. — A Bill authorising the Government to ratify the Convention was introduced into the Second Chamber of the States General on 15 December 1931. Section 2 of the Bill contains reservations as to the application of the Convention to the Dutch East Indies and the Government of the Netherlands proposes to make declarations in accordance with Article 26 of the Convention when the ratification is registered. The Batavia Volksraad, to which the Convention was submitted for advice, has declared in favour of ratification.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 14 July 1931 and to the Legislative Council on 22 July 1931.

Norway. — In a report submitted to the Storting on 13 February 1931 the Minister for Social Affairs stated that forced labour was not known in Norway and that the Convention therefore did not directly affect Norway and could be ratified without changes in legislation. The question of its ratification would be considered later by the Ministry either separately or possibly in connection with the question of the ratification of other Conventions.

Portugal. — Submitted to the competent department of the public administration on 6 January 1931.

South Africa. — Submitted to the competent authority on 14 April 1931.

Spain. — Submitted to the Council of Labour.

Sweden. — Ratification registered on 22 December 1931.

Switzerland. — Submitted to the Federal Assembly by the Federal Council in a report dated 31 March 1931. In this report the Federal Council states that the problem of forced labour does not exist in Switzerland. Nevertheless, for humanitarian reasons, Switzerland should interest itself in the question, in particular as it adhered to the Slavery Convention of 25 September 1926. The Federal Council therefore suggests that a similar policy should be adopted with regard to the present Convention. The proper procedure, however, would appear to be to wait until the Convention has been ratified by the prin-

cipal colonial powers. The Federal Council will consequently introduce a motion for ratification at a later date. This report was approved by the Council of States on 10 June 1931 and by the National Council on 18 June 1931.

Venezuela. — Submitted to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the legislative authority on 23 December 1931.

Recommendation concerning indirect compulsion to labour

Recommendation concerning the regulation of forced or compulsory labour (1930)

Communications to the Secretary-General of the League of Nations

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has accepted these Recommendations and will apply them to the Territories of Papua and Norfolk Island and the Mandated Territories of New Guinea and Nauru (27 November 1931).

Great Britain. — His Majesty's Government has accepted these Recommendations (1 June 1931).

Irish Free State. — The Recommendations were brought before Parliament on 17 December 1930 (12 January 1931).

Sweden. — The Recommendations were brought before the Riksdag on 14 January 1931 (9 June 1931).

Uruguay. — The Recommendations have been submitted to the competent authorities. The questions contained in them being of no practical importance to Uruguay, it has not been considered necessary to adopt any measures (11 March 1931).

Other Information

Austria. — Submitted to the National Council. The memorandum accompanying the text of the Recommendations states that they do not affect Austria.

Brazil. — Submitted to the technical services of the administration.

Bulgaria. — Submitted to the Sobranje by Cabinet Order of 15 December 1931.

Canada. — Submitted to the Federal Parliament, together with Order in Council on the respective competences of the Federal Parliament and of the Provincial Legislatures. Also transmitted to the Provincial Governments.

Cuba. — Submitted to the Senate by a message of the Executive Power dated 23 February 1931.

India. — On 3 and 5 October 1931 respectively the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State adopted a resolution recommending the Governor-General in Council to take steps to put the Recommendations into effect as soon as possible.

Italy. — Submitted to Parliament on 1 April 1931.

Japan. — On 23 December 1931 the Cabinet decided to approve the Recommendations.

Latvia. — Submitted to the Cabinet of Ministers on 9 December 1931.

Netherlands. — Submitted to the Second Chamber of the States General on 15 December 1931.

New Zealand. — Submitted to the Chamber of Representatives on 14 July 1931 and to the Legislative Council on 22 July 1931.

Norway. — Submitted to the Storting on 13 February 1931.

South Africa. — Submitted to the competent authority on 14 April 1931.

Sweden. — Submitted on 14 January 1931 to the Riksdag in a report of the Minister of Social Affairs. This report states that the Recommendations do not concern Sweden and that no measures are therefore required.

Switzerland. — Submitted to the Federal Assembly by report of the Federal Council dated 31 March 1931. The report states that the Recommendations do not concern Switzerland.

Yugoslavia. — Submitted to the legislative authority on 23 December 1931.

As was suggested in last year's *Annual Review* the time seems near when the International Labour Organisation will have to approach other aspects of the problem of the protection of Native workers. It will be remembered that the question of long term contract labour has already been the subject of preliminary studies by the Office and the Committee of Experts on Native Labour. Last year's *Review* emphasised the value that would result from the laying down of an authoritative international policy in this question. It would for example help in drawing up the programme of reforms for Liberia, where recent developments have increased the desirability of prompt action to this end. Moreover, the Office is inevitably drawn towards such studies by various measures adopted last year by colonial powers, a summary of which has been given in the preceding pages: The Gold Coast Ordinance repealing penal sanctions; the increasingly infrequent use of long term contracts in Kenya, Tanganyika, Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia, and similar progress in New Guinea and Papua; the new Coolie Ordinance in the Dutch East Indies and the abolition of penal sanctions on tobacco estates; the tendency of undertakings in the Belgian Congo to rely more on short term contracts without penal sanctions. All these are signs pointing in the same direction and suggesting that the long term penal sanction contract is a system of the past, usually justified now only by the difficulty of changing without sufficient transition to a system more in harmony with Native interests. It may therefore be hoped that as soon as the International Labour Office, with the aid of its Committee of Experts, has completed its documentary studies, the Conference will be able without difficulty to lay down basic principles on contract labour to which the colonial powers can adhere.

A close study of the evolution of colonial thought appears to justify the conclusion that the questions which will have the best chance of successful solution if treated at Geneva are becoming more and more numerous. In practically all colonial States the need is becoming clear of revising "colonial values" by examining them from a point of view to which so far sufficient importance has not been given: that of the Natives themselves. The extension of local representative councils, the progress of cultivation for and by the Native, the development of education and justice, the policy of Native administration, the close study of Native laws and customs, are all indications of the fact that hardly any problems are being discussed by societies and administrations which are not attempts to interpret the same design of restoring the Native to what should be his essential position in colonial life. In this programme of revision it is believed that the International Labour Organisation has its part to play. It should be its duty to hold

equal the scales of justice between economic pressure, multiple and varied in present difficulties, and the legitimate requirements of social protection. One single example of this may be given in conclusion of this part of the *Review*.

It may be known that in various quarters the idea has recently been fostered that the systematic development of Africa through European collaboration may in various ways contribute towards a solution of the world economic crisis. The picture has been sketched of a Europe working to equip Africa, of European industries galvanised by an immense demand for their output, of a Europe then flinging upon the Black Continent, once awake to the call of production, some of the surplus population suffering within the national frontiers. In such a sketch there appear some features deserving of attention. Large-scale public works are one of the remedies for unemployment on which there is most general agreement among the States. The League of Nations, in collaboration with the International Labour Office, prepares and co-ordinates the Government proposals to this effect. Yet at the same time nothing could be more dangerous than an application of such a policy in Africa unless it were accompanied by the precautions essential to it. Probably the major part of the evils from which the Africans are suffering are due to an excessive haste in their economic development, and the question may be asked whether a programme of large-scale public works would not involve more dangers than advantages for these peoples in the immediate future. In any case there are clearly certain guarantees which must accompany any such programme, so that the errors of the past may, if possible, be avoided. For instance, the first efforts must clearly be directed towards the protection of African health, the improvement of labour legislation, the development of Native agriculture, the universal use of free labour, in short towards the substitution of a truly scientific policy for the haphazard methods which have so far prevailed.

Enough has been said to illustrate the natural part which falls to the lot of the International Labour Organisation in the difficult task of conciliating the two tendencies mentioned. Concerned on the one hand with the campaign against unemployment and on the other with the protection of the Native peoples, the International Labour Office has the necessary sources of information and means of action to treat both sides of the problem of the development of Africa. To reach the necessary harmony in this range of problems seems impossible unless use is made of its information and of the means of action at its disposal. Such are the considerations which are influencing the Office's ideas in this connection. They confirm its knowledge of its duties in regard to Native welfare and its will to perform these duties faithfully and effectively.

CHAPTER VII

THE WORKERS' LIVING CONDITIONS

Workers' General Education and Vocational Training

As regards the general education and vocational training of the workers, national and international activity in 1931 was largely aimed at combating the effects of the economic depression.

Young persons are very hard hit by unemployment, and efforts are therefore made to protect them as far as possible from the dangers of inaction by establishing a system of vocational training to keep their efficiency and potential productive power up to the mark, and in some cases retrain them for employment in occupations less severely affected by the depression.

National Activities

It has been the object of some States to extend vocational training, of others to maintain the skill and efficiency of young persons already fit for employment but kept idle by the depression, of yet others to economise by restricting vocational education in certain ways.

Argentina. — Psychotechnical research and vocational guidance have made rapid progress in Buenos Aires, and the special office established there has received numerous requests for examinations from all over the country. It was consulted 2,036 times during the year 1930-1931, as against 28 times in 1925.

Austria. — It has been possible to maintain the standard of vocational training despite the depression, and neither the work done by the vocational guidance offices nor the assistance rendered to unemployed young persons has diminished. Thanks to the generosity of the sickness insurance funds, there has been a great increase in the protection and aid accorded to apprentices of both sexes, and thousands of boys and girls have enjoyed a holiday or a period of convalescence in the country. The *Austrian Federation of Trade Unions*, taking its stand on the resolution of the International Labour Conference (1930) on workers' education and the protection of young persons, drew up a programme which could in its opinion, be applied internationally. This has been submitted

to the International Labour Office; it comprises certain remarks with particular application to Austria, and includes the following suggestions: compulsory education until the age of admission to employment; reform of continuation schools; statutory holidays of a fixed length for young persons under 18 years of age; special protective measures for unemployed young persons; organisation and extension of vocational guidance; supervision of apprenticeship by representatives of the workers.

Belgium. — Despite the depression, vocational guidance made some progress during the year. The Ministry of Industry, Labour and Social Welfare made enquiries into the organisation of State-aided technical schools with the object of better co-ordinating vocational and primary education. At the beginning of the year the Superior Technical Educational Council organised another " teachers' week " with the object of perfecting the special training of technical school teachers. The daily press has shown a growing interest in vocational training and the problems it raises, and makes a feature of the growth of the technical schools, particularly in Greater Brussels. A national centre for the study of domestic economy was set up to encourage the development of rational instruction in that science. At the beginning of December the Belgian Labour Party held a special meeting devoted to technical instruction, the principal items on the agenda being the organisation of such instruction, compulsory continuation schools, supervision of vocational training and State aid for technical schools. A special committee was set up to continue the study of these questions with the aid of members of the teachers' central organisation.

In December the Belgian Psychotechnical Association was founded in Brussels, under the presidency of Mr. Sollier. Its objects are the scientific investigation of the subject and the co-ordination of all Belgian research on the human factor in industry.

Canada. — On 26 May 1931 the Department of Justice introduced a Bill in Parliament to promote vocational education, and in particular to grant an annual subsidy of £750,000 for fifteen years for the purpose.

Chile. — At the beginning of the year the metal workers' unions established an Industrial Technical School at Santiago for workers in their industry. In December a College of Arts and Crafts was set up in Valparaiso; instruction is given in three stages—the apprenticeship school, the senior technical school, and the foremen's school. A fourth stage, the senior engineering school, may possibly be added. The College also organises evening technical classes.

Colombia. — On 3 September 1931 the House of Representatives passed the first reading of a Bill to create a Vocational Guidance

Section at the Ministry of Industry and a Vocational Guidance and Scientific Management Office.

Denmark. — The Ministry of Social Affairs has prepared a Bill [1] to regulate apprenticeship in all industrial occupations and handicrafts. It deals also with horticulture and certain salaried occupations.

France. — With the assistance of the competent Department of State, the French Association for the Advancement of Technical Education has associated itself with the International Congress on Technical Education, and has also extended its activities by setting up local branches. In February the Superior Technical Educational Council adopted a motion in favour of raising the minimum school leaving age to fourteen years.

At its Twenty-first Congress, held in September, the General Confederation of Labour adopted a comprehensive programme for the re-organisation of general and vocational education. In the opinion of the authors of this programme, the two stages ought to follow directly one on the other and form an organic whole. The programme also lays the foundations of a system of vocational guidance. A special report, submitted by the General Confederation of Labour to the International Congress on Technical Education, deals with this form of education and proposes that it be made compulsory. On 29 November the Confederation's Education Committee adopted a similar report.

At the National Educational Cinema Congress (Paris, 26-30 September), the question of vocational guidance through films was the principal question discussed. The Congress decided to examine the methods of using such films at its next session.

Germany. — At the beginning of the year, the Prussian Minister of Public Education issued two Orders authorising the provisional raising of the school age of children prevented by the depression from finding employment as apprentices. On 15 October the Federal Minister of Labour addressed a circular to the German States containing further instructions on the organisation of supplementary vocational training for unemployed young persons, which had been started successfully during the preceding years.

On the other hand, the Prussian Minister of Industry and Commerce issued a Decree dated 25 September 1931 providing, for reasons of economy, for restrictions in the number of compulsory supplementary vocational training courses and in other branches of vocational education (reduction in weekly time tables, abolition of the obligation to attend courses for certain classes of apprentices, prohibition of the opening of new vocational schools, etc.). These measures were decided on in agreement with the German Municipal Association, which has also drawn up a similar programme of economies. Large numbers of occupational, social and educa-

[1] Introduced in the Rigsdag on 13 January 1932.

tional bodies, and in particular the trade unions, are opposed to the execution of these plans. Provisional or even permanent raising of the school age, which is considered in some quarters as likely to benefit vocational education, is opposed by the trade unions unless it leads to the direct co-ordination of primary and vocational instruction, which they regard as all-important for the future of popular education.

Great Britain. — On 18 February 1931, the House of Lords rejected the Bill to raise the school age, the expenses entailed not being in its opinion justifiable in view of the depression. On the other hand, the public authorities, aided by private initiative, have been very active all through the year in providing educational facilities of different kinds for the young unemployed at schools and other teaching centres.

Greece. — The Ministry of National Economy has introduced a Bill in the Chamber of Deputies concerning vocational education in commerce, industry and handicrafts and compulsory continuation education for apprentices, and providing for the establishment of a model vocational school at Athens.

Italy. — The competent authorities have continued the reorganisation of vocational education. On 12 February 1931 the Ministry of National Education introduced a Bill in the Chamber to standardise the numerous types of technical secondary schools and to group them in four distinct categories. The Bill also provides for the establishment of suitable workshops at the schools, to enable the pupils to have practical training.

Japan. — At the suggestion of the Education Department, a National Committee on Vocational Guidance, composed of experts on that subject and vocational training, has been set up. Its principal object is to study and extend vocational guidance, to set up offices for the purpose, and to train qualified advisers for young persons. The first general meeting of the Committee was held on 20 October 1931, when the principles of the plan of action to be followed were laid down.

Mexico. — The Ministry of Public Education has undertaken a reorganisation of the technical, industrial and commercial schools, on the strength of a report submitted by a special committee. Mechanical and electrical engineers, supervisory staff and foremen in the same professions,and workers specialising in the construction and running of motor-cars, and the working of iron and other metals, will be trained in these schools. During the first year the students will be given theoretical instruction in general science, and will not begin to specialise until the second year.

Poland. — On 10 and 22 October 1931 the Sejm and Senate passed two Bills to combat unemployment. The second amends the Act of 2 July 1924 concerning the work of women and young persons, and, among other things, prohibits the employment of

young persons without pay and the charging of a fee by the employer for their training. The new Act came into force on 7 November 1931.

Switzerland. — The authorities of the Canton of Vaud have decided on the introduction of vocational instruction by wireless, and those of the Canton of Neuchâtel have given fresh consideration to the suggestion of raising the school age for the scholastic year 1932-1933 for those pupils who would otherwise have left at the beginning of 1932 without having found regular employment. The Swiss Association for Vocational Guidance and the Protection of Apprentices has reorganised its central secretariat. It continues to encourage all efforts made by the Cantons to improve vocational guidance and education.

U.S.A. — Steps have been taken by certain of the States to prevent unemployed young persons from losing their skill and efficiency. Forty-three States passed measures tending to extend vocational training, and the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, which met in Washington in December 1930, adopted a number of resolutions submitted by the Committee on Vocational Guidance. These constitute a programme to be applied during the year 1931-1932 so far as conditions permit.

U.S.S.R. — The year 1931 saw the first anniversary of the introduction of compulsory general education. The schools had 13,500,000 pupils, and the Government estimates that this figure will increase by 4,000,000 before the end of 1933. In view of the " polytechnical " nature of instruction in the Soviet Union, this growth is of the greatest importance for the training of skilled labour. The schools, which are often of the nature of workshops, introduce the children to a trade at a very early stage. The Central Council on Vocational Guidance, set up in 1930, was able to widely extend its organising activity during 1931. Vocational education now has its own unified statutes, drawn up in accordance with the Central Council's motto: " Each man's work must suit his health, strength and skill." It is intended to build a large cinema studio at Moscow for the immediate and exclusive production of a number of technical educational films. In the meanwhile the best European and American films on the subject will be shown.

International Activity

The International Congress on Technical Education was held in Paris from 24 to 27 September 1931, and was attended by about 1,300 delegates representing 31 European and oversea countries. Collaboration between all factors of importance in the promotion of vocational guidance, and between the State and employers' and workers' associations in the development of vocational training, the recruiting and training of staff for technical instruction in

accordance with the requirements of the various occupations, the training of sales and publicity staff and of engineers, and the use of the cinema and the technical press for technical instruction, were among the subjects discussed at length at the Congress, which passed a number of resolutions and decided, by a special motion, to establish an International Technical Education Office. The last-named scheme was submitted to the Governing Body of the International Labour Office and examined for the first time at its Session in October 1931. The Governing Body and the Office itself are in communication with the authors of the scheme, who form a provisional executive, for the purpose of making a thorough study of the question.

The Seventh International Psychotechnical Conference met in Moscow from 8 to 13 September 1931, some 600 delegates attending. The principles of psychotechnical theory and practice were among the subjects considered.

The International Federation of Teachers' Associations held its annual Congress in Stockholm from 13 to 18 August 1931. It unanimously adopted the following resolution relating to continuation schools and the training of young persons:

" The National Associations of Teachers affiliated to the International Federation, claiming to represent enlightened public opinion in the different countries and desiring to collaborate nationally and internationally in the achievement of a plan of popular education suited to contemporary life, urges that all children destined from an early age to apprenticeship and employment in agriculture, industry or commerce shall receive:

(1) compulsory supplementary education for the first years of adolescence, designed to provide both general culture and vocational training;

(2) compulsory continuation courses for later adolescence, designed to maintain and develop general, intellectual, moral, civic and vocational culture and to teach theoretical and practical principles of an indispensable kind. The latter courses should also be open to adults. "

The International Association for Child Protection held its Congress at Lisbon in October, and devoted part of its time to questions of pre-apprenticeship and vocational training.

At a session held in Brussels on 15 February 1931 the first Permanent Education Commission of the International Union of League of Nations Societies examined the question of raising the school age to 14 years, which it regarded as a minimum, other international organisations being of the opinion that the age should, for pedagogical, social and economic reasons, be raised to 15.

The Young Socialists' International, which met in a holiday camp at Täunich (Germany) from 13 to 20 September, discussed means of combating the effects of unemployment among young persons. The Executive Committee recommended the following measures: reduction of daily hours of work (a 40-hour week

inclusive of time spent at compulsory supplementary vocational courses), organisation of courses and work for unemployed young persons, compulsory paid holidays fixed by law, and raising of the school age.

The International Union of Workers in the Food and Drink Trades, at a Congress held at Prague in June, examined the possibility and means of extending international exchanges of young workers so as to enable them to perfect themselves in their trade.

The International Society for Commercial Education arranged its Thirteenth International Conference in Vienna from 6 to 18 July 1931. The educational course was attended by 150 persons, and dealt with economic, social, financial, and commercial questions, with particular reference to the existing depression. The Society also began preparations for its next Conference, which will be held in London in 1932.

Behind all this national and international activity is the ever-growing conviction that vocational training and the preparation of the young by education for productive labour are indispensable to economic reorganisation and therefore to social peace.

Utilisation of Workers' Spare Time

Present conditions throw questions relating to the utilisation of the workers' spare time into quite a new light. Economic and financial difficulties have hampered public authorities, associations and private individuals, and have led in many cases to the restriction of activity. On the other hand, it is felt to be more necessary than ever to make an effort on behalf of the wholly and partially unemployed. It is true that this is a consideration of perhaps only temporary importance, resting on the more or less political need of finding the unemployed some sort of occupation. But this is not all, for there is now a growing feeling in favour of the reduction of hours of work, and this will make it necessary to arrange for the utilisation of the additional spare time at the end of the working day, if its length is reduced, or at the week-end if, as is very possible, the weekly rest is considerably to exceed one day in duration. The trend of public opinion on this subject seems to justify the conviction that spare time must become an integral, and not merely a subsidiary, factor in the life of the worker.

National Activities

France. — The Spare Time Committee has extended its activity in several ways. The Congress of the General Confederation of Labour adopted the workers' education programme drawn up by its Education Committee.

Germany. — The workers' educational organisations have done a great deal on behalf of the unemployed, the courses organised for unemployed officials at Gera during the winter of 1930-1931 being an instance. On the other hand, subsidies to sports bodies have been reduced in accordance with the Emergency Decrees on economy, which has meant a considerable drop in the amounts spent by the local authorities on physical training, etc. Halls and sports grounds, hitherto put gratis at the disposal of workers' physical training associations, must now be rented. A number of communal swimming schools have been closed. On the other hand, sports grounds have been laid down under the scheme for voluntary labour service. In order to facilitate a recovery in building activity and to cope with the threatening unemployment situation, an Order of 6 October 1931, supplemented by special instructions, provides for the development of colonies on the outskirts of towns. Unemployed workers may thus cultivate a plot of land of sufficient size to produce a part of their immediate requirements.

Rumania. — The Congress of the General Confederation of Trade Unions (Bucarest, January 1931) took cognisance of a report on the organisation of workers' education and sports, and ratified the decision of the Central Committee concerning the establishment of a workers' sports and education institute.

U.S.A. — The National Recreation Association kept its 25th anniversary during the year. The results of its activity will be specially featured at the Recreation Congress to be held at Los Angeles during the Olympic Games.

U.S.S.R. — A scheme for the reorganisation of workers' supplementary education has been drafted to complete the work done during the two preceding years on behalf of compulsory education and in particular of "technical propaganda". This scheme, submitted in the spring of 1931 by the Commissary for Labour of the R.S.F.S.R., aims at training skilled and semi-skilled workers, improving the technical skill of adult workers, and raising the level of general political education both of adults and of new recruits to industry. It provides for three stages of supplementary education corresponding to the various degress of general education and skill. The direction and financing of this new scheme will be in the hands of the economic organisations, while the inspection and the decisions as to methods will fall to the public education authorities.

International Activity

The Third Congress of the International Allotments Office was held in Brussels on 7-8 November 1931, delegates from fourteen countries being present. A resolution was adopted expressing the opinion that the cultivation of allotments of some 300 to 1,000

square metres might provide the unemployed worker not only with a valuable moral tonic but also with appreciable material benefits, and that the organisation of workers' gardens, the leasing out of allotments, and the distribution of fertilisers, seeds and plant cuttings constituted one of the best forms of assistance that the public authorities could provide for unemployed workers. The Congress requested the Governing Body of the International Labour Office to enter the question of the development of allotments on the Agenda of the International Labour Conference in the near future, as a means of securing a better utilisation of the workers' spare time.

The Second Workers' Olympiad, organised by the International Socialist Federation for Physical Culture and Workers' Athletics, met at Vienna in the summer, preceded in February by a winter sports meeting at Mürzzuschlag, attended by 80,000 people from twenty-one countries. The summer meeting was watched by 60,000 persons at the Vienna Stadium, lent free of charge by the municipality of Vienna.

The Conference of the International Association for Adult Education, held in August, devoted a large part of its time to problems connected with the education of the unemployed.

The Congress of the International Federation of Teachers' Associations, held at Stockholm from 13 to 18 August, had the question of continuation schools and the training of young persons on its agenda. Reference is made elsewhere to the resolution adopted at this meeting. [1]

The Popular College of the Northern Countries, at Geneva, opened its first course in April 1931. Most of the 34 students were workers in industry or agriculture and salaried employees.

In October an attempt was made to establish an international body for the study of questions relating to workers' education. Representatives of the movement in Austria, Denmark, Germany, the Netherlands, Poland, Sweden, and Switzerland met to discuss the possibility of entertaining closer relations between the centres of workers' education in the different countries. This preparatory meeting was to be followed by a Conference to establish an international secretariat, which would maintain relations between the national centres, collect data, publish information, and hold international meetings on workers' education.

The International Committee for People's Theatres, which has existed since 1926 and unites amateur associations from a dozen countries, met in Paris on 14 July. The Committee keeps its supporters informed, by means of a bulletin and circulars, of events likely to interest them. It also attempts to co-ordinate their activity, and has therefore decided to start a campaign to secure the adoption in all countries of legislation on theatres that will take groups of amateurs into account and encourage their activities.

[1] Cf. *supra*: "Workers' General Education and Vocational Training".

A rival organisation, the Proletarian Theatre International, was founded in Moscow during 1931.

International Regulation [1]

Recommendation concerning the development of facilities for the utilisation of workers' spare time (1924)

Australia. — The Commonwealth Government has informed the Office that in New South Wales the Forty-four Hours' Week Act allows the workers greater leisure. Under a 1928 amendment to the National Savings Banks Act the workers can obtain advances of 90 per cent. for the purchase of their own houses.

Canada. — The Dominion Minister of Labour has informed the Office that the following provisions give effect among other matters to the Recommendation: the Fair Wages Policy of the Government of Canada; various provincial laws establishing minimum wages and limiting hours of labour; the Canada Temperance Act; various provincial liquor laws; the provisions of the Criminal Code designed to prevent the spread of venereal disease and to suppress gambling; the Housing Policy of the Government of Canada; the Technical Education Act of Canada, and provincial technical education laws.

Housing

Building Policy and the Depression

There has been a general falling off in building, less marked in the house-building branch of the industry than in others, and particularly noticeable in the countries most severely affected by the depression. The tendency has been aggravated by the fact that public utility undertakings, States and municipalities have been compelled by financial difficulties to reduce the large housing subsidies they had accorded during the preceding years, though they still attempt to satisfy the most urgent requirements.

Belgium. — Building activity received fresh impetus from the authorisation given to the National Cheap Housing Society to issue a new loan of 300 million francs. On the whole, the volume of building for housing purposes has been comparatively satisfactory, increasing slightly since the end of 1930 and markedly since March 1931. The number of applications for building permits in the four large cities (Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent and Liége), which fell from 13,000 in 1929 to 11,000 in 1930, has recovered during the last year to rather more than 1,000 per month.

Chile. — The Act of 12 March 1931 provides for the establishment of a National Cheap Housing Committee to improve the working of the Act of March 1925.

Denmark. — House-building in Copenhagen and the suburbs shows a steady increase. 6,400 dwellings were under construction in July 1929, 7,700 in July 1930, and 9,400 in July 1931.

[1] The information given here refers only to 1931.

France. — Although realisation of the Loucheur scheme is by no means complete, it has been seriously suggested that the necessary credits for 1932 should be reduced. An appeal to employers to help to improve the housing of their staffs is apparently under consideration, and the Superior Labour Council has adopted a resolution to that effect.

Germany. — In pursuance of the Finance Order of December 1930, the Federal Government issued three Decrees in June, October and December 1931, containing new regulations which have on the whole the effect of limiting the development of house-building. On the other hand, they take the twin needs of the moment as far as possible into account—the reduction of unemployment in the building trade and the provision of cheap dwellings. Attempts are being made to attain this last object both by the construction of new buildings and by the subdivision of superfluous large dwellings.

The number of applications for building permits fell from 167,000 in 1930 to 80,000 in 1931. The number of buildings begun was 162,000 in 1930 and 70,000 in 1931, while buildings completed totalled 187,000 in 1930 and 150,000 in 1931. The figures for dwellings show a similar decrease, the number of dwellings completed being 120,000 in 1931 as compared with 143,000 in 1929 and 162,000 in 1930.

Great Britain. — Although the rate of construction has not yet noticeably diminished, there is constant uneasiness in interested quarters concerning the effect which the economy measures contemplated by the Government will have on building; and in particular all direct or indirect attempts to reduce the minimum standard for subsidised dwellings are meeting with resistance. The Town-Planning Conference gave this point its attention in November 1931, and insisted on the maintenance of the minimum of 760 square feet for dwellings built with State aid.

The number of dwellings completed between October 1930 and September 1931 was greater than during the corresponding period in 1929-1930. The number of State-subsidised dwellings increased from 50,000 to 60,000, and that of non-subsidised dwellings roughly from 110,000 to 133,000. On the other hand the number of State-aided housing schemes fell from 17,000 to 14,000.

U.S.A. — Building is on the decrease. Housing statistics for 1931 show, it is true, a slight increase as compared with 1930 in the number of families finding new dwellings, but this is apparently only a temporary improvement, for during the first quarter of 1931 the number of house-building permits fell by 9 per cent. and the number of building estimates by 9.9 per cent. The falling off in the case of hotels is so great (92.4 per cent.) that it almost amounts to a standstill in construction. In any case, house building activity is far below the average for the years 1922-1929.

Town-Planning Policy

Opinion in the different countries is moving slowly but steadily towards belief in rational town planning.

France. — There has been a considerable development of public opinion on the subject of Greater Paris.

Germany. — Despite economic and financial difficulties, the Decrees issued in 1931 and already referred to provide for the development of garden suburbs, as well as for a return to the land proper, as means of giving occupation to the unemployed. At the end of the year a Federal Bill on town planning was under consideration.

Italy. — The Rome town-planning scheme was given official approval during the year. Plans of the same sort for other cities are at an advanced stage.

U.S.A. — Several events show the great importance now being attached to the rational planning of urban districts. One is the foundation of the Construction League in September 1931, with the object of improving building. A conference convoked by the President at the White House at the beginning of December was able, thanks to the work of its numerous committees, to throw much light not only on the present position of town planning but also on its potentialities.

U.S.S.R. — There has been no regular town-planning development recently. The " Socialist cities ", which are part of the Five-Year Plan, have hardly begun to raise their walls above the ground. Even where important urban districts have been formed (for instance, Magnitogorsk in the Urals, where there are 190,000 inhabitants, or at Kouznetskstroi, which has nearly 140,000, after an existence of a few months only), speed has been the principal consideration and most of the work done has taken the form of temporary construction, such as the mass erection of standardised wooden houses. A special effort to develop Leningrad is, however, to be made in 1932.

International Activity

During 1931 the congresses of most of the great international housing associations met in Berlin during the German and International Building Exhibition.

The Thirteenth Congress of the International Housing and Town-Planning Association (London) was held from 1 to 5 June, simultaneously with that of the International Housing Association (Frankfort). The two principal subjects dealt with by the London Federation were slum clearance and the problem of traffic in connection with town and regional planning. The Frankfort Congress examined general housing problems, stressed the need

for public authorities to promote cheap house-building, and discussed practical and technical methods of building low-priced dwellings.

The International Organisation for Modern Architecture also met at Berlin, chiefly with the object of planning the Congress it is to hold at Moscow in 1932, when the reorganisation of existing towns and the " functionalist " city will be among the subjects discussed.

The Berlin International Housing Exhibition gave an idea of what had been done in Germany in the sphere of house building, particularly of workers' dwellings, and an opportunity of comparing these efforts with those made in other countries.

The Co-operative Movement

The year 1931 was marked by the establishment of the International Committee for Inter-Co-operative Relations. This event may be connected on the one hand with some of the proceedings of the International Economic Conference in 1927, and on the other with certain basic principles of the co-operative movement and its attitude towards official international institutions.

When the International Economic Conference examined as a whole the questions of improvement of the living conditions of agricultural workers, technical and economic progress in agriculture and better organisation of the marketing of agricultural products, it felt from the first that they were bound up with the problem of inter-co-operative relations, particularly those between agricultural and distributive co-operative societies, a problem it placed among the greater problems of economic rationalisation and general prosperity. It drew the attention of the League of Nations to the question of inter-co-operative relations in a special resolution which, among other expressions of opinion, recommended the creation of an institution capable of aiding and inspiring the efforts to be made in the different directions suggested by it. The resolution concluded as follows: " These efforts of agricultural and consumers' co-operative organisations should be encouraged and furthered by the creation of a committee representing national and international co-operative organisations of agriculturists and of consumers—a committee which should be entrusted with the establishment of a programme of research and documentation, as well as with the task of elucidating the lessons taught by past experience, with a view to bringing about new achievements ".

This recommendation was bound to interest and encourage agricultural and distributive co-operative societies, for it gave expression to a double need felt by both—that of creating a body to serve as the link which they regarded as essential between the co-operative movement and international institutions, and that of establishing and developing moral and economic relations between the two types of societies themselves.

The latter need has always been to the fore in the International Co-operative Alliance, and the subject has been raised with remarkable persistence ever since 1920 at each of that body's own congresses and at a large number of the national congresses of its affiliated federations. Besides the agricultural organisations, the discussions and resolutions of national and international congresses, the press and literature have borne and still bear witness to the same need.

There was thus a consensus of opinion on the subject, and the common aspirations were recognised and defined in a series of unofficial conversations which have taken place since 1929 between certain competent persons belonging to the International Co-operative Alliance and the International Commission of Agriculture, and which led, on 9 February 1931, to the creation of the International Committee on Inter-Co-operative Relations, whose composition, objects and activities correspond exactly with those of the committee contemplated by the International Economic Conference.

It has fourteen members, half appointed by the International Co-operative Alliance and half by the International Commission of Agriculture. It may also comprise deputy members similarly appointed.

Its objects are "to promote the development of moral and economic relationships between agricultural co-operative societies and distributive co-operative societies", and further "to act as a liaison body between the co-operative movement as a whole and international institutions, in particular the Economic Organisation of the League of Nations, the International Labour Office, and the International Institute of Agriculture".

The Director of the International Labour Office was unanimously requested to occupy the post of independent Chairman of this Committee.

As soon as it was constituted, the Committee decided to invite regularly to its meetings representatives of the institutions with which it was hoped to establish relations, a representative of the International Co-operative Wholesale Society and possibly also a representative of a similar international agricultural co-operative organisation.

The Committee cannot, of course, act except through its constituent bodies, which put at its disposal their authority and the machinery linking them up with their members.

One of the first steps it took was to recommend the formation of national mixed committees in the countries where agricultural and distributive co-operative societies have not yet formed such committees or joined in a federation. These national mixed committees, modelled *mutatis mutandis* on the International Committee, may help to prepare for and extend its activity.

The research and documentation undertaken by this Committee in the two sessions it held during the year dealt principally with the different types of inter-co-operative relationship either already

in existence or proposed, and in particular with certain mixed undertakings run jointly by a central agricultural marketing society and a central organisation of distributive societies. It paid special attention to three products in large demand which play an important part in the international market: dairy produce, wheat, and eggs.

One joint body was regarded by the Committee as especially typical and worthy of national and international study and imitation. This was the agency set up in 1921 by the English Co-operative Wholesale Society and the New Zealand Producers' Co-operative Marketing Association, for the marketing of New Zealand dairy produce in Great Britain.

As regards wheat, flour and bread, the Committee has had occasion to study a scheme for the creation of a joint organisation as a connecting link between the corn producers' societies and those of the consumers of bread, which would take the form of a bakery where the producers have their own mill but the consumers have no bakery, or a mill where the consumers have a bakery but neither party possesses a mill.

Further, the Committee made the necessary arrangements to follow with the closest attention the evolution of the wheat problem in its international commercial aspect, and with special regard to present and future endeavours to find a solution.

The question of the organisation of the egg trade has also been treated by the Committee in two series of national monographs and an international study. The former deal with organisation in certain of the chief egg-importing and egg-exporting countries respectively. At the same time the Committee decided to study the problem in the international sphere without delay, by investigating the volume and the main currents of the international egg trade, and collecting data for the compilation of statistics on the quantity of eggs required by the co-operative wholesale societies and the quantity offered by the agricultural co-operative societies. The data thus collected will be examined at the next session of the Committee, probably in May 1932, and will facilitate a study of the means of bringing the two parties into touch and so directly satisfying the complementary needs thus determined.

The work of the International Committee on Inter-Co-operative Relations, animated by a wholehearted mutual desire for collaboration between the organisations represented, has shown what contribution the agricultural and distributive co-operative societies, working in the closest possibly harmony, can make to the work of economic reconstruction by a better adjustment of supply and demand, a more efficient organisation of a stable market and the elimination of certain causes of waste in the distribution of agricultural products, which would be to the advantage of the community as a whole.

CHAPTER VIII

THE WORKERS' GENERAL RIGHTS

Right of Combination in Trade Unions

The importance of the trade union movement—and hence the imperative necessity for the international recognition of freedom of association—has never been so obvious as in the present age of intense depression [1]. A proof of this is found in the fact that, despite the spread of the depression and the growth of unemployment, the membership of the employers' and workers' industrial associations has not only been maintained but has even risen in certain countries. This fact also proves that both the workers and the employers have greater confidence than ever before in the methods and technique of organisation.

The workers have come to understand that the solution of such vital problems as the rationing of available employment by rearrangement of the hours of work, and the establishment of a minimum living wage based not merely on the cost of production but also on the cost of living, can never be found in the chaos of individual competition but only in the orderliness of collective organisation.

The public authorities have also come to the conclusion that these questions cannot be settled without the co-operation of the social forces concentrated in the workers' and employers' associations. The desire to give the associations the necessary power to carry out their duties has led the authorities to adapt legislative and legal machinery to the social and economic functions of the trade associations.

In this chapter, attention is drawn to the attempts made by the legislative authorities to adapt existing law and practice to trade union requirements in respect of freedom of association and combination, workers' participation in management, the individual contract of service, collective agreements, conciliation and arbitration, and workers' participation in the social and economic life of the State.

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[1] At its session in January 1932, the Governing Body of the International Labour Office decided to appoint a Committee of three members (one from each of the Government, employers' and workers' groups) to study the question of freedom of association.

The main steps taken in regard to freedom of association and the outstanding phases of its legislative evolution are first briefly reviewed.

Bolivia. — A Bill has been tabled in the National Congress to sanction the right of all persons exercising the same trade or profession to combine in industrial associations for the defence of their common interests. This right is not subject to any previous authorisation of the Government. Associations are divided into industrial associations and occupational associations; both are entitled to acquire and own property, set up information offices, labour exchanges and social welfare institutions, conclude collective agreements and appoint representatives to all economic and social institutions at present in existence or set up in the future.

Brazil. — The Legislative Decree of 19 March 1931 regulates in detail the establishment and working of occupational organisations in Brazil. The Decree applies alike to associations of employers, salaried employees and manual and professional workers, with the exception of civil servants, artists, authors or journalists connected with theatrical or advertising undertakings.

The representatives of the associations and their federations will be consulted by the Federal Government as technical advisers in the study of questions affecting their occupational interests. They are entitled to offer advice to the Ministry of Labour on all matters connected with the regulation of hours of work, wages (especially the fixing of minimum wages), and industrial safety and hygiene. In addition to their advisory functions, the associations are authorised to co-operate with the Government in the application of legislation relating to industrial disputes through the medium of joint conciliation and arbitration boards, to conclude collective agreements in accordance with legislation to be promulgated on this subject, and to enter into agreements with other associations for the defence of their respective interests.

Freedom of association and combination is guaranteed by a number of protective measures. For example, no employer may dismiss, suspend or reduce to a lower grade a worker or employee on the ground that he is a member of a trade union or because of his work for the union. A breach of this provision renders the employer liable to pay the worker or employee concerned an indemnity equal to six months' pay. If the worker has been suspended, the indemnity will be equal to double wages in respect of the whole period of suspension. In the case of workers or employees engaged for life, the indemnity will be equal to five years' pay in the event of dismissal, or three years' pay in the event of suspension.

Similarly, persons acting as trade union officials or delegates to the Ministry of Labour or the pension funds may not be dismissed by their employers on account of these activities.

The provisions of the Decree thus show that the Government considers that industrial associations have an important part to

play in the national organisation of employment. At the same time, however, neither the employers' nor the workers' associations may become affiliated to international organisations without first obtaining the approval of the Ministry of Labour.

According to a statement made by the Ministry of Labour, the Trade Union Act will shortly be completed by legislation on collective agreements and conciliation and arbitration.

Canada (Quebec). — An Act to amend the Professional Syndicates Act, assented to on 4 April 1931, greatly increases the powers of the trade unions in Quebec.

Section 6 of the Act as amended by the addition of sub-paragraph 10, empowers the trade unions to exercise before any court of law all the rights of their members with regard to acts indirectly or directly prejudicial to the collective interest of the profession which they represent.

Section 14, as amended by the addition of section 14*a*, states that the trade union rates fixed by collective agreement are to apply to all members of the trade unions concerned, even when such persons are not party to the agreement and notwithstanding any renunciation thereof agreed upon by them, whether express or implied.

Finally, under the new section 19 the groups who may appear before the courts and who are parties to the collective labour agreement may exercise all rights of action arising out of such agreement in favour of each of their members, without having to establish a transfer of claim by the person interested, provided that the latter has been advised and has not declared that he was opposed thereto. The person interested may intervene at any time in the proceedings taken by the group.

Whenever an action arising out of the collective labour agreement is brought by a person or by a group, the other groups with authority to appear before the courts, whose members are bound by the agreement, may intervene at any time in the proceedings taken, on the grounds of the collective interest which the result of the litigation may have for their members.

Chile. — A Legislative Decree of 13 May 1931 incorporates in a consolidated text the essential provisions of the Acts of 29 December 1924 and 16 November 1928 relating to trade associations. These texts have already been analysed in the *Reports of the Director* for 1925 and 1930.

Colombia. — On 28 August 1931 the Chamber of Representatives passed, on first reading, a Bill to authorise wage earners in industry and agriculture to combine in trade unions. The Bill is intended to complete the Trade Union Act of 23 June 1931.

Finland. — The City Court of Helsingfors decided on 17 August 1931 to dissolve the Finnish Confederation of Trade Unions, the work of which had been suspended on account of its Communist

tendencies, as already recorded in the *Annual Review* for 1930. This decision affects over 1,000 trade unions.

Mexico. — An analysis of the new Federal Labour Code, was given in the *Report of the Director* for 1930 when the Code was still in its first stages of Parliamentary procedure. While most of the main principles relating to occupational organisation are maintained, a number of important amendments have been introduced in the original text.

The Code recognises the right of employers and workers to combine in associations without the previous permission of the authorities. Workers' trade unions must have at least twenty members and employers' associations at least three members. In order to be legally constituted, associations must be registered by the Conciliation and Arbitration Board or the Department of Labour. To this end, they must submit to the authorities a copy of the record of their constituent assembly, their rules and regulations, a record of the meeting which elected the managing committee, and the names of the members of this committee. Once these regulations have been complied with, the authorities may not refuse registration, the grant of which confers legal personality on the association. Registration invests the trade associations with wide powers—offset by equivalent responsibilities—in the organisation of collective labour relations, notably as regards collective agreements and the settlement of collective disputes.

Only a workers' union (not any indiscriminate group of workers) —where there are several rival unions which cannot agree, only the largest union—may conclude collective agreements. The provisions of such agreements apply to all persons working in the undertaking concerned, even those not party to the agreement. Similarly, a collective agreement concluded by two-thirds of the organised employers and workers in a given branch of industry and in a given district may, at the request of the majority of the persons concerned, be made legally binding by the authorities for all employers and workers in the branch of industry and district in question. The Code allows the " closed shop " clause, under which the employer undertakes to employ only union labour; but such a clause in no way affects the established rights of non-unionists already employed by the undertaking when the agreement was signed. The right of the workers' unions to conclude a collective agreement obliges the employer to recognise such agreements. Therefore, every employer who employs union labour must, according to the Code, conclude a collective agreement with the trade union concerned, should the latter demand it. In order to ensure the observance of a collective agreement, a trade association party to it may take action in its own name, with a view to enforcing the agreement or to obtaining damages, against other associations party to the agreement, or against the members of such associations, or against its own members, or against any person bound by the collective agreement.

In brief, the regulation of conditions of employment by way of collective agreement is entrusted solely to the trade associations. This is also true of the settlement of industrial disputes. The Code maintains the distinction between legal and illegal strikes, already referred to in the *Report of the Director* for 1930. A strike is deemed to be legal: (1) if its aim is to obtain the enforcement, amendment or renewal of a collective agreement or to support a strike declared for such purposes; (2) if it has been declared by a majority of the workers concerned; (3) if, within six days in the case of private undertakings and ten days in that of public undertakings (transport, electricity, water, gas, hospitals, foodstuffs of primary necessity), no effect has been given to the workers' demands. A copy of such demands must be deposited with the Conciliation and Arbitration Board. When these conditions are fulfilled a " state of strike " is declared and the following consequences ensue: the legal strike is placed under the protection of the authorities, which take steps to make it effective and general. Throughout the duration of the dispute, neither the employer nor his representatives may conclude a new collective agreement with the strikers or with other workers. The strikers' representatives are, however, required to see to the maintenance of the undertakings, and the employer must admit the number of workers required to carry on work the suspension of which would seriously compromise the subsequent resumption of work or the safety and existence of the undertaking. Again, a legal strike merely suspends and does not terminate the contract of employment. It therefore does not cancel the rights and obligations arising out of the contract, and it follows that the employer must continue to pay wages for the duration of the strike. The strike must, however, be confined to a simple suspension of work. Any person guilty of acts of violence against persons or property is liable to civil and penal penalties.

If, on the other hand, the aim of the strike is not one of those mentioned above, if it is not declared by a majority of the workers concerned, or if due notice has not been given, the Conciliation and Arbitration Board must declare it to be illegal. In such cases, the Board takes necessary measures to protect non-strikers and gives the strikers twenty-four hours in which to resume work. An illegal strike terminates the contract of employment, frees the employer from all contractual obligations, and makes the strikers liable to civil and penal prosecution.

A lock-out is deemed to be lawful only when over-production necessitates a cessation of work with a view to maintaining prices at remunerative rates, provided, however, that it is approved by the Conciliation and Arbitration Board. When work is resumed either partially or wholly, the employer must re-engage the workers who were in his employment when the lock-out was declared. During a lock-out declared in conformity with the Code, the employer is not required to pay wages or indemnities to his workers.

The Code makes comprehensive provision for the prevention and settlement of collective labour disputes (see below: " Conciliation and Arbitration ").

This brief survey suggests that the system of occupational organisation set up by the Mexican Labour Code is one of the most thorough and satisfactory attempts ever made to adapt the machinery of the law to the economic and social functions of trade associations.

Paraguay. — A Decree of 12 March 1931 contains new regulations relating to freedom of association and assembly. Trade unions constituted in accordance with the provisions of the Decree are deemed to be corporate bodies.

Spain. — During the year the Government has given a powerful impetus to the movement of occupational organisation. Like Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles and a number of other national Constitutions and charters, (Austria, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Italy, Mexico, etc.), the new Political Constitution, promulgated on 10 December 1931, contains a whole series of clauses of a social character which to some extent determine the Government's programme of labour legislation.

It is sufficient here to mention the provisions which refer directly to occupational organisation. Article 38 guarantees the right of peaceful assembly for all Spaniards; Article 39 sanctions freedom of association for all lawful purposes; Article 46 provides, among other things, for legislation to regulate the economic and legal relations between the various factors of production, profit-sharing, and workers' participation in the management of undertakings.

In application of these provisions two Acts have already been promulgated, while two others are in preparation. The measures promulgated are the Act of 21 November 1931, which regulates contractual relations between wage earners and employers (cf. below, " Collective Agreements " and " The Individual Contract of Service "), and the Act of 27 November 1931, which establishes a conciliation and arbitration procedure, methods for fixing minimum living conditions, and labour courts to deal with dismissals and the payment of wages (see under " Conciliation and Arbitration "). Attention must also be drawn to the Workers' Control Bill, at present before the Cortes, which proposes to invest the workers' and employees' committees with wide powers of social and economic collaboration in the undertakings (see below, " Profit Sharing and Workers' Co-partnership ") and to the Trade Union Bill by which, according to a declaration of the Minister of Labour, it is intended to associate organised labour with the social and economic administration of the State.

United States. — The American Federation of Labor has given its approval to a new Anti-Injunction Bill which will shortly be submitted to Congress.

A similar Bill was discussed by the Senate in 1929 and 1930 (see *Report of the Director*, 1930), which was ultimately rejected

by the Judicial Commission of the Senate on the ground that it was contrary to the fundamental rights of " liberty ", " property " and " equality before the law ", as defined by the Fifth and Fourteenth Amendments to the Constitution and as interpreted by the Supreme Court, which is the authority competent to decide whether a law is unconstitutional or not.

The new Bill, while maintaining the essential provisions of the previous Bill, is based on a " declaration of police power " which tends to invalidate the argument that the Bill is unconstitutional and therefore calls for mention here. The declaration states that the present centralisation of industry and labour enables a number of employers to impose working conditions on large masses of the wage earners. The courts, however, have recognised that the employer has certain property rights in the contracts so imposed, and have upheld these rights by means of injunctions. Furthermore, the courts have extended their protection of these rights to " yellow dog contracts ", which make the contract of employment or continuation of service subject to the condition that the worker does not or will not belong to a specified trade union. Now, adds the declaration, the recognition of such rights by means of injunctions gives rise to a state of involuntary servitude contrary to the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution, which states:

" Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime whereof the parties shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

" Congress shall have the power to enforce this Article by appropriate legislation."

In order to remedy this state of affairs, continues the declaration, the Congress decides that:

" Every human being has, under the Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution, an inalienable right to the disposal of his labor free from interference, restraint or coercion by or on behalf of employers of labor, including the right to associate with other human beings for the protection and advancement of their common interests as workers, and in such association to negotiate through representatives of their own choosing concerning the terms of employment and conditions of labor, and to take concerted action for their own interests in labor disputes."

This reference to the Thirteenth Amendment of the Constitution, which was adopted in 1865, that is to say, at the close of the War of Secession, and which was directed solely against the Slavery States of the South, can only be explained by the desire to refute, by means of an Article of the Constitution itself, the argument that the Bill is unconstitutional.

It is necessary to stress this new phase of the legal struggle between capital and organised labour in the United States. Stripped of legal arguments, the real issue is the right of the workers' unions

to intervene in the organisation of the labour market to the same extent as the employers' associations are entitled to do in the commodity market. It is not surprising that the American Federation of Labor should state that it considers injunction relief legislation as the major part of its legislative programme.

The State of Wisconsin adopted in July 1931 a Labour Code which corresponds closely to the Bill sponsored by the American Federation of Labor. The new Code declares that any agreement by which a worker undertakes, as one of the conditions of his employment, not to join a particular union is illegal and shall not be enforced by the courts. Strikes, trade union membership, the payment of trade union contributions, the advertising of strikes, peaceful assembly, and peaceful picketing are declared legal, and no court may issue an injunction prohibiting any of these acts. In labour disputes an injunction may be issued only after a hearing at which witnesses from both sides give evidence under oath, and notice of injunction proceedings must be given. Temporary injunctions may be issued only for a period of five days and are not renewable. Persons charged with contempt of court for violation of an injunction are entitled to admission to bail, adequate defence, trial by jury, and trial by a judge other than the one who issued the injunction. Punishment is limited to a fine not exceeding 25 dollars, or imprisonment for ten days, or both.

If the Supreme Court does not decide that the Code is unconstitutional, it is probable that the example of Wisconsin will be followed shortly by the Congress of the United States.

Venezuela. — The new Constitution of Venezuela (Article 15, paragraph 9), dated 7 July 1931, guarantees freedom of association and assembly.

Yugoslavia. — An Act promulgated in September 1931 in virtue of Article 117 of the new Constitution regulates freedom of association and assembly. This Act, which is of a general character, authorises the right to combine in trade unions within the meaning of the Act. In prohibits the foundation of associations which by their name or object are contrary to law and order or public morals. Permission to set up an association is granted by the administrative authorities.

Zanzibar. — The Decree of 18 March 1931 legalises trade unions in Zanzibar. The Decree declares that trade unions will no longer be considered as unlawful organisations and that collective agreements will no longer be rendered void or cancelled by reason merely that they are in restraint of trade.

Profit-Sharing and Workers' Participation in Management

(a) *Profit-sharing and workers' co-partnership.* — The economic depression has naturally undermined the very foundations of all profit-sharing and workers' co-partnership schemes.

France. — A draft resolution has been submitted to the Chamber of Deputies requesting the Government to prepare a Bill for the immediate introduction of workers' participation in the management of state undertakings. So far, however, this proposal has not been discussed.

Great Britain. — In this country, which is the only one to publish annual statistics, a great decline is to be noted for 1930 in comparison with the previous year. The number of profit-sharing schemes in existence fell from 647 to 329 and the number of workers covered from 229,000 to 205,000, while the total amount of profits distributed decreased from £1,916,000 in 1929 to £1,877,400 in 1930, figures which appear somewhat derisory when compared with the number of undertakings and wage earners and the general business turnover.

During a previous session a Bill was submitted to the House of Commons for the introduction of compulsory profit-sharing schemes for employees in sheltered undertakings (that is, undertakings which at that time were entitled to protective tariffs), but no legislative effect was given to the proposal.

Sweden. — When the question of renewing the monopoly rights of the Swedish Tobacco Monopoly Company came before Parliament in 1930, the Government reserved the right to invite a number of employers' and workers' organisations, including the Chambers of Commerce, the Federation of Swedish Industries, the Tobacco Workers' Union and the Co-operative Union to subscribe a specified amount of preference shares entitling the holders to appoint half the members of the Board of Directors. The main idea underlying the inclusion of the workers' organisations in the scheme is said to be not so much profit-sharing as participation in management for the workers.

(b) *Works councils.* — While a distinct setback is to be noted with regard to profit-sharing and workers' participation in management, the idea of workers' participation in internal administration has made definite progress. This is only natural, for profit-sharing schemes can flourish only in times of prosperity, whereas works councils, the fundamental aim of which is to supervise the enforcement of social legislation and trade regulations, are particularly useful in times of depression.

Estonia. — The Act of 28 July 1931 relating to works councils is based largely on the German Works Councils Act as regards the organisation and working of such bodies.

Under the Act a works delegate will be appointed in all industrial and commercial establishments employing twenty-five or more wage earners, and a works council in all undertakings employing more than a hundred persons. Councils (or delegates) are appointed for one year by direct secret ballot. All workers who are eighteen years of age or over are entitled to vote, while all workers of at least twenty-four years of age, who have been employed for six months in the undertaking or for two years in their trade, are eligible for election.

The working expenses of the councils are defrayed by the employers, who are also required to place suitable premises at their disposal. All members of the council are entitled to an extra weekly wage equal to eight or twelve working hours.

The councils are required to co-operate in the rationalisation of the undertaking; to co-operate in the settlement of individual or collective labour disputes; to establish, in agreement with the employer, works regulations, piece rates, etc.; to supervise the enforcement of protective labour legislation, social insurance laws, etc.; and to represent labour in the social institutions of the undertaking.

The employer is required to put at the disposal of the works council all the books and documents referring to contracts of employment which he is required by law to keep. He must also submit to the council a quarterly report on the general working of the undertaking and his labour requirements. When it is necessary to engage or discharge a large number of workers, the employer must inform the works council with the least possible delay.

A number of penalties are provided to ensure the application of the Act. For example, an employer who obstructs the election of a works council is liable to a fine; the same penalty is imposed on employers who fail to supply the council with information concerning contracts or the working of the undertaking or who do not provide it with suitable premises.

Finally, a wage earner who divulges manufacturing secrets is liable to a fine and even imprisonment.

Germany. — The Legislative Decree of 19 September 1931 relating to share companies and credit institutions has strengthened, if only indirectly, the part played by works councils in economic supervision.

Hitherto the works councils have found it extremely difficult to carry out their economic functions on account of the legal position of share companies.

The stricter measures laid down in the new Decree with regard to the publicity to be given to balance-sheets, profit and loss accounts and reserve funds, undoubtedly strengthen the powers of the worker members on the boards of management of such undertakings. These measures define more clearly the subject-matter of the report which the employer is required to make on the general working of the undertaking, increase the right of supervision over the managerial and accounting departments of the

different branches of the undertaking, and reinforce the right of initiative of every member of the board.

As a result of these far-reaching modifications in the rules of share companies—of which lack of space precludes a detailed analysis—the works councils will in future be able to carry out their economic duties under much more favourable conditions than hitherto.

Great Britain. — At a recent session a Works Councils Bill was introduced in the House of Commons. This Bill, which rests in abeyance, but will undoubtedly be taken up again in one form or another, is based on a type of organisation somewhat different from that adopted in other countries. Whereas, for example, the Austrian, Czechoslovak and German laws on works councils regulate minutely the constitution, working and duties of the councils, the British Bill merely lays down the principles to be established by law and leaves to the parties concerned, and more especially to the employers, the duty of applying them or rather of adapting them to the requirements of the different undertakings. A brief description of the main provisions of the Bill is given below.

A works council will be set up in every concern or undertaking carried on in a place which is a factory or workshop within the meaning of the Factories and Workshops Act, provided that fifty or more persons are normally employed therein. The responsibility for constituting a works council will rest on the employer.

The Minister of Labour will prepare draft schemes appropriate to the requirements of the different branches of industry. In this work he will be assisted by a Works Councils Advisory Committee, composed of members of the general council of the Trade Union Congress, the National Confederation of Employers' Organisations, and the Association of Joint Industrial Councils and Interim Reconstruction Committees, and such other persons as he may appoint. One year before the entry into operation of the Act, the Minister of Labour will notify the proprietors of concerns and undertakings to which the Act applies of their obligations under the Act and will submit to them draft schemes appropriate to their requirements. The employer will be required within a period of six months to notify the Minister of his acceptance of one of these schemes or to submit a scheme of his own. If the scheme submitted meets the requirements of the Act, the Minister will give it his approval. If no satisfactory scheme is submitted within a reasonable time, the Minister will himself devise a scheme for the undertaking concerned.

Such is the method adopted for the organisation of works councils. It remains, however, to be seen how the scheme is to work and what powers are to be vested in the councils. Here again the Bill merely lays down guiding principles and leaves their application to the parties concerned. Only when these parties cannot agree will the Minister of Labour impose the necessary regulations.

Every draft scheme devised by the Minister or sanctioned

by him must contain provisions relating to the constitution, working and duties of the councils.

The constitutional rules of the councils must guarantee the effective representation of the several grades of persons participating in the undertaking, whether as managers, in supervisory, administrative or technical capacities, as foremen, or as wage earners. All persons aged eighteen years or over who are included in these grades may take part in the election of the members of the council for their grade.

The regulations for the working of the councils must make provision for the regular meeting of the councils at intervals which must be sufficiently frequent for the adequate discharge of their duties. The secretaries and other officials of employers' and workers' associations will be authorised to attend the meetings of the works councils in a consultative capacity. The employers will be required to compensate the worker members of the councils for any loss of wages incurred by their participation in the activities of the councils.

According to the Bill, the works councils will be entitled: (1) to draw up works rules in accordance with the model regulations established by the Minister of Labour; (2) to discuss with the employer matters of general interest to the undertaking; (3) to take cognisance of the report on the commercial and financial position of the undertaking.

The establishment of works rules is obviously an essential duty of the works councils. In this connection it should be noted that the meaning given to works rules in the British Bill is much wider than that of the workshop regulations. In point of fact these rules cover hours of work, overtime, the period of notice of dismissal, methods of calculating wages, the payment of wages, holidays, absence due to sickness, protection against dismissal for a moral or disciplinary offence, protection against dismissal for inefficiency, protection against dismissal on the ground of shortage of work and arrangements for short time and for personnel being " laid off ". The establishment of works rules is compulsory. Where no agreement can be reached on this subject between the employer and the works council, the Minister himself will impose the necessary rules.

The periodical discussion between the employer and the works council—the second prerogative of the councils—will deal among other things with works organisation; conditions of employment; meals, canteen; the organisation of short time; the methods of selection of personnel, apprenticeship and training; welfare and organised recreation; the engagement and dismissal of staff; holidays; profit-sharing and co-partnership schemes; pension and benevolent schemes, sickness, unemployment, etc.; continuation schools; trading prospects, plans of development, changes of policy; in brief, all general questions which affect the wage earners of the undertaking.

Finally, the employer is required to submit to the works council or to one of its committees, at least once a year, a general statement

relative to the commercial and financial position of the undertaking. The Minister of Labour will consult with the President of the Board of Trade as to the form of this report. It is therefore not a question in this case of direct economic supervision by the councils, but rather of their right to be informed of the working of the undertakings.

The prerogatives conferred by the Bill on the wage earners of the undertaking and on the members of the works council are guaranteed by a number of penalties. The dismissal or victimisation of a wage earner in consequence of his participation in the election of members, or of his participation in the activities of a works council will be held to constitute an actionable wrong. If any employer refuses or neglects to comply with any of the requirements of the Act or the regulations made thereunder, he will be liable to a fine not exceeding £20.

Netherlands. — The Industrial Councils Bill submitted by the Government to Parliament on 26 November 1931 is based not so much on the requirements of the undertakings as on those of industry as a whole. This extension in the scope of the system obviously necessitates a different technical organisation.

The right to set up or dissolve an industrial council is vested in the Minister of Labour, who also fixes the territorial and trade competence of the Council and appoints its members, but—and this provision distinguishes the institution from a simple advisory organ of the Government—the members of the Council must be chosen in equal numbers from among members of the central employers' and workers' trade associations of the industry concerned. In this respect the industrial councils of the Netherlands resemble the British industrial councils.

According to the Bill, the Councils will have a threefold function: as instruments of collaboration, as consultative and executive bodies, and as conciliation and arbitration boards.

In the field of collaboration, the councils will be called upon to establish conditions of labour, especially in the form of collective agreements; to draw up regulations relating to apprenticeship and vocational education; to combat unemployment and mitigate its effects; to set up works councils in the branch of industry with which they deal; and to discuss technical and social questions in so far as they are likely to affect the position of the wage earners in the industry concerned.

In their capacity as advisers to the central, provincial and municipal authorities, Government committees, the labour inspectorate and the central health insurance funds, the councils will be entitled, either on their own initiative or at the request of the authorities, to give an opinion on all matters connected with the administration and enforcement of social legislation. As conciliation and arbitration authorities, they act as referees in disputes arising out of the application of collective agreements when provision is made for their intervention, and as conciliators in all other disputes

which arise or threaten to arise in the industry with which they are concerned. In order to meet the new powers granted to the councils, the laws relating to factories, invalidity, accidents, hours of work and conciliation and arbitration will undergo the necessary amendment.

The cost of the councils will be borne by the trade associations which nominate their members. The Government will, however, grant a subsidy varying from 500 to 2,000 florins.

Spain. — Quite other is the Spanish Bill which provides for the appointment of councils of workers and salaried employees in all industrial and commercial undertakings which employ at least fifty wage earners. While the British Bill lays the responsibility for taking the initiative in constituting works councils on the employer, the system adopted in Spain leaves it to the trade unions, which are required to supervise the appointment, the organisation, and the activities of the councils. Only trade union members in the undertaking concerned may elect delegates to the councils, and only workers who have belonged to a trade union for at least two years may stand as candidates. It is the trade union duly registered in the list of associations drawn up by the Ministry of Labour which convenes the electors affiliated to a trade union or an occupational association, the same body being required to communicate the results of the election and the names of the council to the management. The electors may dissolve the council at any time provided that this decision is taken by a majority at a meeting specially convened for the purpose by the trade union concerned. The trade union also controls the activity of the councils, which are required to provide it with a quarterly report dealing with all breaches of contract and infringements of labour legislation brought to their notice. Once the trade union has been notified it must request the employer or the employers' association concerned to rectify matters. If a complaint is not attended to, the case is submitted to the labour inspectorate for necessary action.

These provisions would seem to show that the essential purpose of the councils is to secure the continuation of trade union activities in the undertakings themselves.

The Bill invests the works councils with numerous and important functions which range from social supervision to social, technical and economic collaboration. As supervisory organs the councils will be required to watch over the enforcement of social legislation (referring to hygiene, safety, hours of work, employment of women and children, etc.) and to secure the application of trade regulations (arbitration awards, collective agreements, contracts of employment etc.). In their capacity as social advisers, the councils are empowered to co-operate with the employer in drawing up workshop regulations, service regulations and disciplinary rules for the undertaking, to participate in the engagement and the dismissal of staff, and to co-operate in the organisation and working of the

social institutions of the undertaking. As technical advisers they are authorised to propose improvements in the organisation of undertakings and the technical methods in use. In the economic sphere they are entitled to be present in an advisory capacity, but with no right to vote, at meetings of the board of directors and other management bodies, to examine balance sheets and accounts, to demand information on the working of the undertaking, and to study the relations between production and wages.

The Bill on works councils forms part of a group of social laws which the present Spanish Parliament has been asked to adopt as supplementary to the Constitution.

Collective Agreements

As already stated in the *Report of the Director* and in the *Annual Review*, 1930, the recognition of collective agreements has made remarkable progress during recent years. It is indeed interesting to observe that the general depression has left untouched the principle of the collective regulation of conditions of labour. Much discussion has, of course, centred around this subject, especially in Germany, which is particularly affected by the depression; but in spite of certain difficulties, the collective agreement continues to subsist and even to gain ground, as is proved by the new legislative measures adopted in Mexico, Spain and Yugoslavia.

Chile. — The Labour Code of 13 May 1931 contains several new provisions which did not appear in the legislation which it has consolidated.

The Code lays down that a collective agreement is binding for all employees who sign it personally or through the medium of their accredited representatives and for all wage earners belonging to legally constituted trade unions representing them at the conclusion of the agreement.

As was previously the case, the terms of the collective agreement are deemed to be compulsory clauses and an integral part of all individual contracts of employment concluded while the collective agreement is in force. The consolidated legislation also reproduces the provisions whereby a trade union party to a collective agreement is responsible for the observance of the contractual liabilities by its members. The trade union is also entitled to exercise all the rights conferred by the collective agreement on individual workers. A new feature is the rule which requires trade unions, whose assets must be adequate security for their liabilities, to form a special reserve fund for this purpose. Their dissolution does not affect the rights and liabilities of their members, and even when they are dissolved their funds remain pledged.

Germany. — In last year's *Annual Review* the hope was expressed that the preparatory work undertaken with a view to finding a

general solution of the various problems connected with collective agreements would shortly lead to the preparation of a Bill dealing with this matter. Unfortunately, with the spread of the economic depression, the urgent necessity of finding solutions for more every-day questions has led to the abandonment of these projects.

In former periods of depression, and under a relatively liberal system, a reduction of prices and wages, although entailing much individual sacrifice, was effected more or less automatically. Nowadays, however, the complicated economic and social system which has grown up mainly during the course of the last ten years, seems bound to militate against any rapid fall in prices and wages. It is therefore not astonishing that in employers' circles the alleged rigidity of collective agreements has been blamed more vehemently than ever for preventing any reduction in costs and consequently in market prices. On the other hand, the view put forward by the workers' trade unions in defence of collective agreements is that the employers are responsible for maintaining artificial prices by the conclusion of trade agreements. Throughout the year controversy has raged round this subject.

It is not without interest to study the attitude of the Government towards this question. Generally speaking, the authorities have maintained, and even confirmed, the principles of the existing system, confining themselves to modifying the existing agreements by the issue of emergency decrees to reduce wages to the desired level. The earlier Government measures dealt solely with public institutions and undertakings. With regard to private undertakings, the conciliation and arbitration boards were left to make the necessary adjustments, failing agreement between the parties concerned. The first Legislative Decree issued on 1 December 1930, which involved a reduction in civil servants' salaries, also empowered public authorities and undertakings to terminate, irrespective of all conditions established by law or contract, all individual and collective labour agreements by 31 January 1931, so as to allow similar reductions in the wages of all persons engaged by contract. The Government went still further by the promulgation of the Decrees of 5 June and 6 October 1931. In this case the wages of public employees were assimilated to those of civil servants and reduced accordingly by a simple Order of the Government. In the case of workers in public concerns and undertakings who were paid at day rates, it was decided that the collective agreements in force could be terminated. When the parties concerned could not arrive at a new agreement, the old agreement was to be prolonged at reduced rates of wages. Persons whose wages were fixed by a collective agreement which extended also to workers occupied in private undertakings were, however, excluded, and assimilated to private employees. Further, wage earners employed in the same undertaking and coming partly within the scope of the Legislative Decree and partly within that of a collective agreement concluded for a private undertaking, could be put on the same footing. Finally, by a Decree of 24 August 1931 the Governments

of the States were authorised, in order to balance their budgets, to take the necessary steps to reduce salaries irrespective of contracts of employment in force. Nevertheless, no direct interference with collective agreements was mentioned.

The growth of the depression led the Government to extend its action to private undertakings. In order to reduce hours of work, the Decree of 5 June 1931 had introduced the possibility of modifying collective agreements for private undertakings. Further the possibility of reducing the salaries of certain classes of private employees, notwithstanding their acquired rights, was provided for by the Decree of 6 October 1931. These regulations, however, affected only a very limited number of persons, namely, private employees with a salary of over 15,000 marks a year.

Before deciding to issue any further regulations, the Government desired to have the opinion of an *ad hoc* economic advisory committee including representatives of the various branches of industry and the trade unions.

On the advice of this Committee it promulgated on 8 December 1931 a fourth Legislative Decree, which, for the first time, made provision for the modification of collective agreements affecting all classes of workers and employees. This was accompanied by a number of measures for the systematic reduction of the cost of living, including reductions in the prices of raw materials such as coal, iron, nitrogen and potash, the lowering of freight rates, prices of foodstuffs and prices fixed by cartel conventions and the lowering of rents and rates of interest. A Price Commissioner was appointed to supervise the reduction of retail prices. In the reduction of wages which was to take place simultaneously with the application of the above measures a distinction was made between wage earners employed by private undertakings and those occupied in public concerns or establishments. In the first case, wages had to be reduced by 1 January 1932 to the level of 10 January 1927. Where the actual rates were more than 10 per cent. higher than in 1927 a reduction of 10 per cent. was to be made, but where wages had not been reduced since 1 July 1931 the cut was 15 per cent. The same reductions were applied in coal and potash mines. If the parties could not come to an understanding concerning the terms of the new collective agreements or if other difficulties arose, they were to appeal to the competent arbitration authorities, who were invested with wide powers, including the right to modify agreements (for details, see below under "Conciliation and Arbitration").

The wages of public employees were reduced by the same amount as those of civil servants, namely 9 per cent., and those of workers employed by the public authorities by 10 per cent.

In order to ensure that the introduction of these measures would not be followed by disturbances, the Decree provided for the suspension of all collective agreements until 30 April 1932, and even until 30 December 1932 if such extension were deemed

necessary by the arbitration authorities. It was hoped that before this date a more elastic system of collective agreements would be established as a result of suggestions put forward by the Economic Committee.

These measures are certainly drastic, especially for the workers whose wages are reduced not only to the 1927 level, but in reality, as has been pointed out by the trade unions, to that of 1925, because in most cases wages were raised after the inflation only from 1928 onward. Their effect will be felt even more on account of the fact that the hours of many workers and salaried employees have been considerably curtailed. In spite, however, of the interference with collective agreements which they authorise, all these regulations have a collective basis. Not only do they presuppose the existence of the actual system of collective agreements, but they even attempt to confirm it by linking it up to a sort of economic organisation. It is true that this vast experiment has been forced on the country by its exceptional economic situation, but the fact remains that the solutions tried have not been on the lines of a return to economic individualism but tend to confirm and extend the collective principle.

Mexico. — The new Mexican Labour Code (Second Part: Contract of Employment) devotes a whole chapter to collective agreements. For the purposes of the Code a collective agreement is deemed to mean an agreement concluded between one or more industrial associations of workers and one or more employers or associations of employers for the purpose of establishing conditions of labour. On the workers' side, the right to conclude collective agreements is thus reserved for the trade union. For the employer, the Code lays down that the conclusion of a collective agreement is not merely a right but is obligatory when a union grouping the workers whom he employs demands it.

Every collective agreement must be concluded in writing and a copy filed with the competent authorities. The provisions of the collective agreement extend to all persons employed in the undertaking, even if they are not members of the trade union which concluded the agreement. Persons in managerial posts or occupying positions of trust may, however, be exempted from the collective agreement. A special provision of the Code recognises the validity of the clause by which the employer binds himself not to admit to employment any persons who are not members of a trade union. This clause, and any other which establishes privileges in favour of members of a trade union, may not be applied to the detriment of workers who are not members of the contracting trade union and were already employed by the undertaking at the time when the contract was concluded. Thus, although the employer may refuse to engage non-union workers, he may not discharge them simply on that account once they have been signed on.

The collective agreement, which applies, as has been seen, to all workers of an undertaking, whether or not they are affiliated

to the contracting trade union, may even be extended to all employers and workers of a given branch of industry in a specified district. According to the Code, a collective agreement may be declared binding. The conditions laid down by the law in this connection are as follows: the agreement must have been concluded by two-thirds of the employers and workers belonging to the industrial associations of the branch of industry in the given district; the application must come from the majority of the above-mentioned persons and any objections by a party concerned must be submitted within fifteen days of the publication of the application, otherwise all such objections must be held to be invalid by the Minister of Labour, who, prior to taking a decision, is required to hear the applicants and the representatives of the signatories to the collective agreement. Once these conditions have been fulfilled, the Federal Executive issues a Decree declaring the agreement binding.

The Code embodies detailed provisions for the revision and the termination of collective agreements. An agreement may be subjected to complete or partial revision every two years at the request of any of the contracting parties. When the request is lodged by a workers' trade union, the applicants must represent at last 51 per cent. of the members of the contracting union. When the request emanates from the employers, at least 50 per cent. of the workers covered by the agreement must be in the applicants' employment. An application for revision must be lodged not less than sixty days before the expiry of the agreement; on the failure of the parties to come to an agreement during this period, the matter is referred to the competent conciliation and arbitration board for decision.

Revision of a binding agreement may be made at the request of the same majority of persons who may demand that the agreement be declared binding three months before the time it expires or at any other time when economic conditions justify such a step. Failure of the parties to agree terminates the period of operation of a binding collective agreement.

The procedure for terminating a collective agreement is similar to that employed in the case of individual contracts of employment, this being due, probably, to the conviction of the authorities that a collective agreement concluded for a single undertaking is likely to be the commonest form of contract. For this reason different regulations govern the termination of a binding agreement applying to a whole branch of industry. A voluntary collective agreement may be terminated by mutual consent of the parties, on termination of the work for which it was concluded, on the exhaustion of the substance being extracted in a mining industry, or on cessation of business. In the latter instance the Code makes provision for the payment of compensation to the workers.

When an agreement is declared binding, the Federal Executive must, when issuing the necessary Decree, fix the period of operation, which may not exceed two years. It may be prolonged for further equal periods, unless the majority of the workers or the

employers express a desire to terminate the operation of the agreement.

Failure to comply with the provisions of voluntary or binding collective agreements gives the right to bring actions for damages. A strike or lock-out recognised as lawful by the Code is not deemed to constitute a breach of contract. As previously stated (cf. " Right of Combination in Trade Unions "), a strike is deemed to be legal if its aim is to obtain the conclusion, enforcement or revision of a collective agreement or to support any other lawful strike.

Spain. — The corporative system of mixed and joint committees which has been in force since 1926 has been maintained by the Republican Government, which has even endeavoured to complete and extend it. The " labour standards " established by the joint committees for the regulation of conditions of labour are used in this connection instead of collective agreements. As, however, corporative bodies do not yet exist in all districts and in all branches of industry, the Spanish Government, conscious of the social importance of the collective regulation of working conditions, has been obliged to make use of collective agreements in districts where labour standards have not been established.

The Decree of 1 July 1931 relating to hours of work therefore invests the joint committees with wide powers and makes them competent to sanction collective agreements concluded in accordance with the procedure laid down in an appendix to the Decree.

According to the Decree, collective agreements may be concluded in each branch of industry by the representatives of the industrial associations, where such exist. Where there are no special industrial associations, but only general associations of employers and workers belonging to the same branch of industry, an agreement may be endorsed by the majority of a general assembly of the members of associations in the branch of industry concerned. Where there exists a general or special association of employers, but not of the workers, or in the opposite case, an agreement may be concluded by the representatives of the association (subject always to a majority vote when the association is of a general character) and the representatives of the majority of the other party, which at a meeting specially convened for the purpose has declared in favour of the conclusion of an agreement. Finally, in districts where there are neither employers' nor workers' associations, the employers and workers of the branch of industry concerned may conclude an agreement when the majority of both parties so desire.

These provisions, which are introduced more particularly with a view to the enforcement of the Decree on hours of work, are completed by more general regulations embodied in the Act of 21 November 1931 relating to contracts of employment.

For the purpose of the Act a collective agreement is deemed to be any agreement concluded between one or more legally recognised employers' associations and one or more legally recognised workers' associations, with a view to the establishment

of regulations governing contracts of employment concluded either individually or collectively by the employers and the workers in a given district for the branch of industry, undertaking, or trade to which they belong.

In the absence of such agreement, a collective agreement is taken to be an agreement concluded, in the presence of a delegate of the Ministry of Labour, between the representatives of employers and workers nominated at a public meeting, organised with the help of the authorities, by the employers and workers belonging to the same branch of industry or trade in a given locality or district.

The Act establishes a complex structure of rules. At the apex is the Act itself, supported by the " labour standards " which in turn are based on collective agreements, the foundation of the whole system being the individual contract of employment.

As a result, clauses of contracts of employment which are less favourable to the workers than those of a collective agreement, and clauses of collective agreements less favourable than the labour standards adopted by the mixed or joint committees, are deemed to be null and void, while these standards themselves must not be contrary to the law and the labour legislation in force.

Collective agreements are concluded for a period of not less than two years. During this period they may not be amended as a result of a strike or lock-out unless by special permission of the Minister of Labour. In no case may a strike or lock-out organised during the period of operation of the collective agreement result in the obligation to observe conditions of labour other than those laid down by the collective agreement in force. A breach of a collective agreement may give rise to proceedings for damages.

Collective agreements must be drawn up in writing and a copy forwarded to the Ministry of Labour and the competent provincial authority for approval and registration.

Yugoslavia. — Section 209 of the Industrial Code of 5 November 1931 contains rules for the conclusion of collective labour agreements. A collective agreement is defined as an agreement concluded in writing between the employer or the employers' organisation of a given branch of industry or of several allied branches of industry representing the employer, and the workers' trade union representing the workers, with a view to regulating conditions of employment and the rights and obligations of both parties.

Thus, so far as the workers are concerned, the right to conclude a collective agreement is confined to the trade unions. The compulsory industrial or commercial corporations set up by the Code have no legal capacity to conclude collective agreements.

The Code stipulates that collective agreements are to apply to all persons employed in the undertaking or undertakings for which the agreement is concluded. If in a given undertaking

certain classes of workers are covered by a more favourable agreement, the latter will continue to apply to the staff of the undertaking concerned.

Conciliation and Arbitration

As far as conciliation and arbitration are concerned, 1931 must be regarded as a year of change. Acts of fundamental importance on the subject were passed in several countries, and in others the administration of existing measures has shown features of great interest. This is not surprising, for it is just in periods of crisis and depression that systems for the adjustment of disputes are thoroughly tested. Their task consists principally in preventing the general tendency towards a decline in condition of employment, and more especially in wages, from leading to labour conflicts, which may have fatal results both for the parties directly concerned and for the general economic system, already hard-hit by the depression.

In countries which have conciliation machinery only, and no enforcement of decisions, the competent institutions have to concentrate on bringing the opposing parties to an agreement by discussion and compromise; while in the countries where compulsory arbitration exists in one or another of its various forms, the State is obliged to an increasing extent to regulate conditions of employment by this means.

Australia. — Since the important amendments to the Federal Conciliation and Arbitration Act which were mentioned in the *Annual Review*, 1930, neither this Act nor the State Acts on the subject appear to have been amended to any considerable degree.

The economic situation has, however, put the conciliation and arbitration system to a severe test. There has always been opposition to the existing legislation on conciliation, and this has apparently increased with the depression. Radical amendments are therefore possible in the near future.

As far as can be judged from the incomplete data at present at the disposal of the International Labour Office, an indirect attack is being made on the administration of the conciliation system. Under the pressure of the economic situation, employers have frequently attempted to secure the reversal of still valid awards and the reduction of wages which date in part from the period of prosperity.

In several of the Australian States these efforts appear to have been successful; in fact, the various Financial Emergency Acts which have been put into force authorise arbitration courts, if requested, to revise even those awards whose validity has not yet

expired, and if necessary to reduce wages and salaries in conformity with the principles laid down in the Acts themselves [1].

Ceylon. — On 20 March 1931, the Legislative Council passed the Industrial Disputes (Conciliation) Ordinance. It provides that the Governor may appoint a Commission to conduct an enquiry into any matter relating to trade, which is defined as including industry and agriculture. In the case of existing or apprehended trade disputes, the Controller of Labour, a Government official, may appoint Conciliation Boards and may refer a dispute to a Board whether the parties to the dispute consent or not. The Boards are to be composed of a president, and representatives in equal numbers of the parties to the dispute. If a settlement is arrived at and signed by representatives of the parties, it is binding on the parties. Penalties are provided for strikes in contravention of such settlements.

Czechoslovakia. — The new Labour Courts Act [2] instructs these Courts to undertake, besides their own juridical functions, the conciliation of collective disputes, and provides that " any collective dispute which arises between one or more employers or one or more occupational organisations of employers on the one hand, and one or more occupational organisations of workers on the other, may, at the request of one of the parties, be submitted to the competent Court . . . so that the latter may adjust such dispute by means of conciliation ". An agreement made through this procedure binds the parties for a period of six months, unless some other period is stipulated, and the employment relationships between the members of the organisations parties to the agreement are governed by it.

As there is at present no legislation on collective agreements in Czechoslovakia, this is a provision of great importance. It is the first step towards the statutory recognition of such agreements and their inviolable nature.

Finland. — The Government has long been examining the possibility of amending the Act of 21 March 1925 respecting conciliation in collective labour disputes. A Committee formed to undertake the preliminary work, with the Secretary General of the Ministry for Social Affairs as chairman, has drafted a Bill radically amending the Act. Its basic idea is considerably to extend the powers of the official conciliator, who may in certain cases and for a limited period forbid cessation of work. The Bill will be submitted to Parliament.

France. — The Bill on compulsory conference, which was passed by the Chamber of Deputies on 15 June 1929, is still before the Senate.

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[1] Cf. below, New Zealand.
[2] See below, " Administration of Labour Law ", Czechoslovakia.

Germany. — It is true that the German conciliation institutions have remained firm in the belief that their task is simply to assist parties to disputes in the restoration of satisfactory relations between them; but, as is natural at such a time, the compulsory intervention of the State has played a most important part in all industrial disputes which have attained any importance.

The *Annual Review*, 1930, mentioned the Legislative Decree of 9 January 1931, which had just been promulgated. It was the object of this Decree to ensure that in cases of exceptional importance awards should be given if there was no possibility of the parties coming to an agreement, and to permit the Minister of Labour to declare such awards binding and so to regulate the conditions of employment under dispute. The validity of this Decree expired on 31 July 1931, but, in order to settle the first considerable conflict which occurred after that date in the Ruhr mines, the Government was compelled on 27 September 1931 to promulgate a new Legislative Decree identical with that of 9 January and valid until 10 October 1931; and it may be presumed that it will take a similar step whenever it considers it necessary to do so. The Decree of 30 September 1931 should also be mentioned here, for it contains an important provision in virtue of which the Federal Minister of Labour, when declaring an award binding in accordance with the Decree of 27 September, may alter its period of validity without the consent of the parties. All the other legislation in force on the subject provides that an award cannot be altered, in declaring it binding, without the consent of the parties, and that if such consent is not forthcoming it may be declared binding in its original form or not at all. As the Decree of 30 September applies only to awards given under the Decree of 27 September, and as the latter is no longer valid, the new Decree is not at the moment in force. Though it was no doubt promulgated only in view of the above-mentioned conflict in the Ruhr mining area, an identical measure will probably be enforced as soon as the need is felt. The two Decrees show that last year it was regarded as necessary, in a case of exceptional importance and in the general interest, for the State to be able to intervene more fully and effectively than is provided for in the original Conciliation Order of 30 October 1923.

Further, a fourth Legislative Decree, issued on 8 December 1931 to ensure economic and financial equilibrium and internal peace, contains provisions on labour law which lay new and onerous tasks on the shoulders of the conciliation authorities and the Federal Minister of Labour. In cases where the parties to a dispute on wages cannot agree in writing, because of differences of opinion or for other reasons, on the reduction of salaries and wages prescribed by the Order [1], the conciliation authorities are required by the Decree to fix such salaries and wages compulsorily at their 1927 level, and with this object in view they may even modify

[1] Cf. above, " Collective Agreements ", Germany.

the terms of covering agreements when, in their opinion, the latter influence the regulation of salaries or wages. If the validity of wage agreements (with the reduction provided for) has been prolonged until 30 April 1932 by a general regulation, the conciliation authorities may further prolong such validity until 30 September 1932.

It is not to be wondered at that there is opposition from the employers to the extended powers given by this legislation to the Federal Minister of Labour, who may now declare conciliation decisions binding, and to the conciliators, who may compulsorily fix conditions of employment and prolong the validity of wage agreements. The objections to the compulsion exercised by the State in this respect have been vehement.

The system and its application were criticised with particular intensity when the above-mentioned Ruhr mining dispute was settled. Wages had been reduced in virtue of an award which was declared binding under the Legislative Decree of 9 January 1931. When the validity of this Decree had expired, and the trade unions had given notice to terminate the agreement concerning overtime, new proceedings were opened. It was not until the two Legislative Decrees mentioned above had been applied that these proceedings led to the regulation of wages and hours of work. Awards which were declared binding maintained hours at their old level, reduced wages by 7 per cent., and released underground workers and those who employed them from the obligation to pay unemployment insurance contributions.

Among the many important and interesting cases which arose during the year, mention may be made of the wage conflict of November 1931 in the Berlin metal industry, for it is of exceptional moment. The conciliation proceedings led to an award which included a provisional refusal to reduce wages, for the following reasons:

> If undertakings, and in particular those working for export, are to remain capable of competition, the cost of production in the Berlin metal industry must be considerably reduced. But it is contrary to social justice to permit such a reduction to fall always and solely on wages. Further, wages cannot be fixed without taking account of the workers' vital needs. Labour loses its social purpose if remuneration for it does not at least cover the worker's indispensable needs.
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> Until the cost of living has been considerably reduced by means of a fall in the price of food, or, if this is impossible for reasons of agricultural policy, in rents and the charges of municipal undertakings (gas, water, electricity, transport), the remuneration of wage earners cannot be further diminished. The first step must be a reduction in the cost of transport between the worker's home and his place of work, for the present position, in which a skilled worker must spend 6 per cent., an unskilled worker 8-12 per cent. and a young worker 15 per cent. of his net earnings in this way, cannot be permanently tolerated. The proposed maintenance of the wage agreement now in force is provisional only.
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> The necessary measures for the reduction of the other items in the cost of production and for the diminution of the cost of living must be taken without delay. If not, it will soon be necessary to make the painful choice between a further large limitation of production and a reduction of wages below the minimum necessary for existence.

In view of the nature of the German conciliation system, such statements cannot be unreservedly regarded as of decisive importance; but it is worthy of note that in such a significant instance the relation between wages and prices has been emphasised and a certain necessary standard of life for employed workers recognised[1]. The new Legislative Decree of 8 December 1931, which provides for reductions in prices as well as in salaries and wages, has given a certain degree of official support to the idea of their interrelationship.

A glance at the general development of the conciliation system in Germany, both as regards legislation and administration, during the past year shows that State intervention has been reinforced. It is true that this intervention has usually tended towards a reduction of salaries and wages, as was to be expected in view of the economic situation, but it has nevertheless also prevented an excessive decline in conditions of employment.

Italy. — The Labour Courts *(Magistratura del Lavoro)*, which were instituted by the Act of 3 April 1926 concerning the legal regulation of collective relations in connection with employment, dealt, after a long spell of inactivity, with a number of important cases during the past year. Mention must first of all be made of a dispute concerning wage rates which arose between the rice-field owners of Northern Italy and the workers employed by them. While most collective disputes are settled by direct negotiation between the parties concerned, or if necessary through the intervention of the Ministry of Corporations, such procedure had failed in the case in question because of the great divergence between the proposals of the parties. The award made by the Labour Court prescribed a reduction of wages by 24 per cent., the workers having proposed 20 per cent. and the employers 35 per cent. In its statement, the Court laid stress on the great economic importance of the decision for the 200,000 workers directly involved, and the exemplary attitude of the associations concerned despite the gravity of the dispute.

Mexico. — The new Labour Code puts on a fresh footing the procedure of conciliation and arbitration in the settlement of collective disputes arising out of conflicting interests, and no distinction is made between individual and collective disputes arising out of the interpretation of existing regulations on the one hand, and collective disputes arising out of conflicting interests on the other. The latter are first dealt with, like the former, by the conciliation procedure, and come before the same authorities (the Federal Conciliation Boards). If such conciliation is unsuccessful the special provisions relating to disputes of an economic character come into force, and the conciliation boards are thereby given wide coercive powers.

[1] Cf. *The Annual Review*, 1930 (pp. 487-488), for information on the dispute in the North-Western metal industry.

The principal features of the regulations are as follows. The board must first of all " take steps to ensure that matters remain in the state in which they were before the conflict arose, and shall recommend that resort be had neither to a strike nor to a lock-out, or that work be resumed if either a strike or a lock-out has been declared ". The Act does not lay down explicitly whether the board may use coercion to this end.

After hearing the parties, the board orders an enquiry to be carried out by three experts whom it appoints, and who are assisted by a committee composed of equal numbers of employers' and workers' representatives. The experts have the utmost latitude in obtaining the information which they need, and are required to draw up within thirty days a report setting forth the results obtained and their proposals for a settlement. Detailed regulations are prescribed for the subsequent procedure, and in particular for any objections made by the parties to the report, so that a rapid decision is assured. If the parties make no objection, the board issues its decision, which has the same juridical effect as an award.

If the parties raise objections to the findings of the experts, an examination takes place if necessary before the board itself.

In urgent cases the board may, on application by one of the parties, issue provisional instructions covering such important matters as the closing of the undertaking, the readjustment of contracts, etc. The Code appears to indicate that it was even the legislators' intention to permit the board to issue definite authorisations of this nature. Such powers would indeed accord with the idea of active intervention by the State in relations between different social groups which is often expressed in the Code. Special regulations for the fixing of minimum wage rates complete the general conciliation procedure.

New Zealand. — The Budget Act of 1931 provides for the reduction of the salaries and pensions of civil servants and of wages. To this end, the Conciliation Boards have been given the right to revise valid awards in respect of the basic figures by which wage rates are fixed. According to the press, the Finance Minister has declared that the awards now in force are in part a serious hindrance to the free flow of labour and that the present economic situation requires great elasticity. He is of the opinion that amendment of the legislation on the subject is necessary and could be undertaken on the basis of the proposals made by the Industrial Conference of 1928, which dealt chiefly with compulsory and voluntary arbitration.

The employers seem to be aiming at the elimination of the provisions which require all disputes not settled by conciliation to be brought before the Arbitration Court. If they succeed, compulsory arbitration will in practice have been abolished.

Norway. — From April to September Norway was the scene of large-scale strikes and lock-outs, which affected from 80,000 to 90,000 workers and entailed a loss of ten million working days.

These were caused by the gradual growth of differences of opinion concerning the reduction of wages in certain industries—transport, paper and printing, for instance. The fact that they were only settled with the greatest difficulty after several vain attempts has given rise to fresh discussions on the existing conciliation regulations, and the re-establishment of compulsory arbitration, which is no longer operative since the expiry on 1 August 1929 of the Act of 5 May 1927, is called for from several quarters.

Although this proposed radical change has not been effected, the Conciliation Act has been amended on various subsidiary points. The Conciliation Councils, formerly provided for and composed of two State Conciliators and two assessors nominated at the suggestion of the employers and workers, have been abolished. The State Conciliators now only act as sole conciliators. This amendment was no doubt introduced because it had become difficult to secure the willing co-operation of employers' and workers' assessors on the Conciliation Councils.

Spain. — On 27 November 1931 the Cortes passed an Act on joint trade boards for conciliation and arbitration, which is an advance on the system of joint committees previously in force. It provides for several types of joint boards, covering industrial employment, large farming undertakings, agricultural production and agricultural industries respectively. The boards are public bodies regulating trade conditions and acting as conciliation and arbitration institutions in disputes. They consist of the local representative of the Ministry of Labour and from four to six employers' and workers' representatives. The procedure by which the latter are to be elected is laid down in detail, the elections being carried out by the industrial associations.

Among the more important functions of the boards, as prescribed by the Act, are the fixing of general conditions of employment, wages, the minimum period of validity of contracts, the regulation of holidays and hours of work, the settlement of disputes arising out of contracts if the sum therein involved is under 2,500 pesetas, the avoidance of disputes between capital and labour by attempts to establish agreements, and the supervision of the enforcement of social legislation.

As far as procedure is concerned, the president may only vote if, after two votes have been taken, no majority is obtained. In certain cases appeals to the Minister of Labour or to the local representative of the Ministry against decisions of the boards are allowed.

Collective disputes must be submitted to the boards for conciliation before recourse is had to strikes or lock-outs. In the case of disputes in certain undertakings of public utility, time-limits are fixed, varying with the importance of the undertaking, during which no strike or lock-out may be declared. Contravention of this provision may be punished with a fine or imprisonment.

Sweden. — The Act of 28 May 1928, which governs conciliation in labour disputes, has been supplemented on an important point

by the Act of 12 June 1931. While previously the State Conciliator could only call the parties together in the case of a labour dispute which had led or which threatened to lead to a strike or lock-out of importance, he may now do so in any dispute at the request of either party, provided that if the request is made by an organisation on behalf of the workers, such organisation must include at least half of the workers affected by the dispute. This amendment is expected to be of importance chiefly as encouraging the negotiation of collective agreements by salaried employees and other groups of workers without strong organisations. Moreover, it introduced into conciliation and arbitration procedure a measure of coercion to which Swedisb law had previously been a stranger and is therefore of added interest through the principle involved.

United States. — The new Federal Prevailing Rate Law of 3 March 1931 gives further powers to the United States Conciliation Service, a federal authority founded in 1913. It provides that the wages paid for the construction of public buildings belonging to the Union or in the district of Columbia may not be lower than the normal rates received for work of the same nature in the states, cities, villages, etc., where such public buildings are erected. The Conciliation Service is competent to decide what is the normal rate. The Secretary of the Department of Labor, judging by several decisions which have already been made, declares that he hopes the application of the Act will have satisfactory effects on the industry of the whole country.

APPENDIX

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES (STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS)

(a) *Number of Disputes* (in units); (b) *Number of Workers Involved* (000's omitted); (c) *Number of Working Days Lost* (000's omitted)

Years	Union of South Africa			Canada			United States			Argentine : Buenos Aires		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	—	—	—	87	28.9	1,193.3	1,301	(428.4)[1]	.	86	14.0	.
1926	3	0.8	0.9	77	23.8	266.6	1,035	(329.6)[1]	.	62	15.4	.
1927	12	5.2	9.1	74	22.3	152.6	734	349.4	37,799.4	56	36.9	.
1928	10	5.7	10.5	98	17.6	224.2	629	357.1	31,556.9	137	74.0	.
1929	10	3.0	—	90	12.9	152.1	903	230.5	9,975.2	116	53.1	.
1930	—	—	—	67	13.8	91.8	653	158.1	2,730.4	—	—	.
1931	—	—	—	88	10.7	204.2	* 830	* 276.4	* 6,054.8	—	—	

Years	Uruguay			India			Japan			Palestine		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	11	0.3	10.6	134	270.4	12,578.1	293	40.1	361.2	61	.	33.3
1926	5	0.6	12.0	128	186.8	1,097.5	495	67.2	722.3	21	.	8.9
1927	13	4.7	—	129	131.7	2,020.0	384	46.7	791.6	20	0.6	13.5
1928	3	0.3	—	203	506.9	31,647.4	393	43.3	323.8	22	0.9	4.4
1929	31	2.0	—	141	531.0	12,165.7	571	77.3	678.7	45	0.7	8.8
1930	8	1.4	—	148	196.3	2,261.7	906	81.3	1,085.1	22	0.4	9.2
1931	—	—	—	166	203.0	2,408.1	* 2,146	* 141.7	—	31		6.8

Years	Germany			Austria			Belgium			Denmark		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	1,766	777.9	17,113.9	325	66.9	1,166.8	112	82.0	.	48	102.3	4,138.0
1926	383	104.7	1,325.3	204	21.9	297.7	140	77.4	.	32	1.1	23.0
1927	871	503.2	6,043.7	216	35.3	686.6	186	39.9	1,658.8	17	2.9	119.0
1928	763	780.4	20,288.2	266	38.3	658.9	192	74.7	2,254.4	11	0.5	11.0
1929	441	234.5	4,489.9	226	30.4	388.3	168	60.6	799.1	37	1.0	41.3
1930	366	225.0	3,936.0	88	7.2	49.4	93	64.7	781.6	42	5.3	144.0
1931	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	* 16	* 3.7	* 246.0

Years	Spain			Estonia			Finland			France		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	164	60.1	839.9	16	0.9	2.5	38	2.9	113.0	936	266.0	2,046.6
1926	93	21.9	247.2	14	0.7	1.2	72	10.2	386.4	1,678	366.1	4,072.2
1927	107	70.6	1,311.9	5	0.2	3.1	79	13.4	1,528.2	404	112.6	1,046.0
1928	87	70.0	771.2	5	1.1	49.3	71	27.2	502.2	823	210.5	6,376.7
1929	96	55.6	33.1	16	1.9	6.4	26	2.4	74.9	1,254	220.9	—
1930	* 465	—	—	7	0.2	0.3	11	1.7	12.1	1,219	314.3	—
1931	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

(See footnotes on p. 502.)

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES (STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS) *(continued)*

Years	Hungary			Irish Free State			Italy [2]			Latvia		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	.	.	.	86	6.9	293.8	(618)	(308.2)	.	.	3.2	24.6
1926	56	9.6	52.0	57	3.5	85.3	.	.	.	.	5.1	64.0
1927	84	24.8	294.9	53	2.3	64.0	169	187.4	.	.	5.3	60.3
1928	31	10.3	131.2	52	2.2	54.3	77	3.0	.	.	13.4	62.3
1929	63	15.1	149.2	53	4.5	101.4	83	3.3	.	.	26.5	45.8
1930	35	5.8	79.6	83	3.4	77.4	82	2.9	.	.	1.5	12.1
1931	—	—	—	* 61	* 5.4	*310.5	—	—	.	.	2.9	14.3

Years	Norway			Netherlands			Poland			Rumania		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	84	13.8	666.7	262	(31.7) [1]	(760.9) [1]	538	149.6	1,322.1	73	20.0	209.9
1926	113	51.5	2,204.4	212	(9.1) [1]	(220.2) [1]	590	145.5	1,422.5	88	20.4	326.1
1927	96	22.5	1,374.1	230	12.2	201.5	618	235.8	2,483.2	51	6.5	58.3
1928	63	8.0	363.8	205	13.6	634.5	769	354.0	2,787.8	57	10.8	109.7
1929	73	4.8	196.7	226	17.2	889.9	499	220.6	1,066.2	127	27.2	411.6
1930	94	4.7	240.5	212	9.8	229.3	319	50.4	329.0	—	—	—
1931	—	—	—	* 208	*24.6	*693.0	—	—	—	—	—	—

Years	United Kingdom			Sweden			Switzerland			Czechoslovakia		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	603	441	7,950	239	145.8	2,560	.	.	.	267	107.1	1,614.1
1926	323	2,734	162,230	206	52.9	1,711	.	.	.	163	46.2	681.7
1927	308	108	1,170	189	9.5	400	26	2.1	34.2	208	166.2	1,380.7
1928	302	124	1,390	201	71.5	4,835	45	5.5	98.0	282	99.4	1,698.7
1929	431	533	8,290	180	12.7	667	39	4.7	99.6	230	60.3	724.6
1930	422	307	4,400	261	20.8	1,021	31	6.4	265.7	159	28.1	391.6
1931	* 419	* 490	* 6,980	—	—	—	25	4.7	74.0	—	—	—

Years	Yugoslavia			Australia			New Zealand		
	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost	Disputes	Workers	Days lost
1925	.	7.5	110.6	499	176.7	1,128.6	83	9.9	74.6
1926	.	11.0	157.5	360	113.0	1,310.3	59	6.3	47.8
1927	.	7.6	239.2	441	200.8	1,713.6	38	4.5	12.5
1928	.	5.6	117.5	287	96.4	777.3	39	9.3	22.0
1929	.	2.2	12.9	259	105.4	4,671.5	47	7.2	25.9
1930	.	4.9	48.5	* 183	* 54.2	1,511.2	45	5.5	31.7
1931	—	—	—	—	—	—	24	6.4	48.5

[1] Incomplete data. * Provisional figures. · Information not existent. — Figures not yet published.
[2] The figures given from 1927 onwards are not comparable with those of preceding years.
N. B. — For further details, cf. *International Labour Review* for September 1930, March 1931 and June 1932.

The Individual Contract of Service

The principal events of 1931 in this sphere were the passing of a number of Acts of wide scope devoted wholly or essentially to a thorough regulation of the question of contracts of service. They are fresh evidence of a tendency, whose development has been visible for some time past, towards the codification of regulations governing contracts of service. There is no need to review all the legislation on the subject since 1900, when Belgium passed the first Act on contracts of service; it will suffice to mention some of the numerous Acts and Bills which have appeared since the end of the war:

> 1919: The Luxemburg Act on contracts of service of salaried employees; 1920-1928: Austrian legislation on salaried employees; 1922: Belgian Act on contracts of service of salaried employees, Finnish Acts on contracts of service; 1923: German Bill on contracts of service; 1924: Italian legislation on contracts of service of salaried employees; 1928: Polish Order relating to contracts of service of manual and professional workers; 1929: Rumanian Act on contracts of service. Moreover, several States are now preparing legislation on the subject.

As protective labour legislation has put bounds to individual liberty, and as trade union action has roused the worker to a realisation of his personality, the need for an exact definition of the rights and obligations of employers and workers in their relations one with another has inevitably made itself felt. Experience has shown that it is not sufficient to rely on custom and usage, existing legal principles or Acts framed to meet certain situations, scattered, fragmentary and too often, contradictory as they are. The need for a new system of labour law and for a unification of the regulations governing contracts of service has become imperative.

The economic depression may hold up this development for a moment, but it may also hasten it on. Moreover, it reveals the urgent nature of certain problems—for instance, the necessity of guaranteeing the right to the payment of wages in the case of financial difficulties in an undertaking, and the introduction of notice of dismissal, the protection of workers against unjustified dismissal, the payment of compensation for dismissal and other questions related to the stability of employment. The depression has made the international character of these problems all the more obvious.

Chile. — A Decree of 13 May co-ordinates labour legislation and brings it into a single text, the first book of which is devoted to contracts of service. The authors of the Decree have not only reproduced the existing Acts—in particular those on contracts of service of 1924-1925—but they also attempt to establish a

system, to clarify doubtful points, to adjust certain measures better to economic and social needs and to fill up gaps. The part which deals with contracts of service is divided into several headings: general provisions covering all contracts of service, workers' contracts, general conditions of life and labour in industrial undertakings, salaried employees' contracts, etc. There is no need to comment here on all the provisions of the Code, particularly as many of them are taken over from previous Acts; but certain points of interest, and above all a number of new provisions, should be noted. The first heading contains definitions of employers', workers' and salaried employees' contracts of service, which are of great value for purposes of international comparison. Further, under the heading " workers' contracts ", the regulations relating to the guarantee of wages are worthy of special attention. The Code accepts the principle that the wages of men and women should be equal for equal work; in industries where a minimum wage is fixed, lower rates may not be contracted for, and if the worker is paid less than the minimum rate he is entitled to claim the difference. The minimum wage lies between two-thirds and three-quarters of the normal current rate paid for the same type of work to workers of the same category in the same district.

Special chapters are devoted to home-work and domestic servants' contracts.

The section on general conditions of life and labour in industrial undertakings deals specially with the establishment of works regulations by the general labour inspectorate. Fines may only be imposed in certain limited circumstances, and the resulting sums must be utilised for the good of the workers in the undertaking.

The most important subjects which come under the heading " salaried employees' contracts " are the regulation of wages and of dismissal. On the former point, the payment of wages and commissions, remuneration for overtime, profit-sharing and bonuses are dealt with. Contracts may not be terminated without notice of at least one month. After employment for a year, salaried employees are entitled to an indemnity equal to one month's salary for each complete year's service.

France. — An Act passed on 4 March 1931 inserts a new section 44 (*a*) in the First Book of the Labour Code (Part III, Chapter 2), according to which every worker must receive, along with his wages, a statement indicating the gross total, any deductions, and the net total. This does not apply if, at the request of the worker concerned, his wages are paid earlier than at the habitual date by reason of the cancellation of his contract.

Germany. — The reduction of sickness insurance benefits as a result of the depression has caused the legislative authorities to amend in certain respects the provisions governing contracts of service. Up to the present, the right to remuneration during sickness has been regulated by stipulations which the parties to contracts of service were competent to modify and which were of little impor-

tance, since the workers were entitled, in case of sickness, to cash benefits from their insurance institution. But after the passing of the Order of 26 July 1930, by which the right to such benefit was withdrawn if the insured person received remuneration during sickness, the State was obliged to guarantee the right to such remuneration by Statute. Such a provision could in practice apply to salaried employees only, since workers are employed on contracts which may be terminated at short notice. The Legislative Decrees of 1 December 1930 and 5 June 1931 therefore added to ection 63 of the Commercial Code (in respect of commercial employees), section 133 (*c*) of the Industrial Code (for industrial employees) and section 616 of the Civil Code (for employees not falling under either of the former Codes) provisions according to which the employee's right to his salary in case of sickness cannot be affected by any contractual stipulation.

The Commercial and Industrial Codes guarantee this right in case of sickness not exceeding six weeks in duration. The corresponding section of the Civil Code provides for a " relatively insignificant " period. In order more exactly to define this term, which is capable of various interpretations, an interpretative clause has been added defining the period as six weeks unless a different period has been stipulated in a collective agreement.

Mexico. — The part of the new Labour Code which deals with the individual contract of service safeguards the workers in many respects, but makes a point also of guaranteeing the satisfactory running of the undertaking from the employer's point of view. As section 260 of the Code says, the aim has been to " obtain equilibrium between the different factors of production, bringing the rights of labour into harmony with those of capital ". As it is impossible here to give even the briefest summary of this enormous piece of legislation—the part concerning the individual contract of service alone consists of some hundred sections—it must suffice to note certain characteristic and original features not to be found in other national Acts.

As a general rule, contracts must be drawn up in writing, but if this is not done the workers' rights are not affected. Subject to certain conditions, the Code guarantees the right to employment, and it is provided that to replace or to propose to replace a worker who has ceased to be employed, before the case has been settled by the conciliation and arbitration board, is a contravention of the said worker's rights. The same applies when a worker who has ceased to be employed by reason of sickness or *force majeure* is refused reinstatement in the post which he previously occupied.

Mexican subjects are specially protected by the Code, for employers are required to employ a minimum of Mexicans varying between 80 and 90 per cent. according to the size of the undertaking.

Organised workers are still more thoroughly protected. The

Code recognises the inclusion in collective agreements of clauses by which the employer binds himself to engage members of a certain organisation only, but this may not affect the position of workers, not members of the contracting organisation, who are already employed in the undertaking. On the other hand, workers' organisations are entitled to insist on the dismissal of any of their members who resign or are deprived of membership. The Code explicitly stipulates that it shall be among the duties of employers " other conditions being equal, to give preference to Mexicans over nationals of other countries, to persons who have served satisfactorily over those who have not so served, and to members of industrial associations over those who are not members ".

The whole of the regulations on wages is based on the principle of equal pay for equal work, and the Code declares null and void and not binding on the contracting parties any clauses which, " on grounds of age, sex or nationality, fix a wage inferior to that which is paid to another employee in the same branch of trade for work of equal skill, in the same class of employment or with the same working day ", or which fix a wage less than the minimum wage. By minimum wage the Code means " the wage deemed sufficient, in view of the conditions in each district, to satisfy the normal needs of an employee for subsistence, education and reasonable amusement, considering him in the capacity of head of a family and taking into account the fact that he must have at his disposal the necessary means of subsistence during the weekly days of rest when he is not in receipt of wages ". Wages, which " constitute the basis of the employee's property ", must in principle be paid without deduction; the minimum wage is not subject to any deduction whatever, and is not liable to judicial or administrative distress or to fines. The truck system is prohibited.

Certain of the prescribed duties of employers arise out of the nature of the country. They are, for instance, required to provide their workers with dwellings at low rentals (which the latter must quit within fifteen days, or within one month in the case of agricultural workers and miners, of the date on which the contract ceases to be operative); to establish and maintain elementary schools for the children of their workers in certain rural centres, to reserve a plot of land for the establishment of public markets, public buildings, etc., where the fixed population of a rural centre of employment exceeds 200 inhabitants, provided that the centre of employment is situated at a distance of not less than 5 kilometres from the nearest centre of population. More interesting still, any employer employing more than 400 workers is required to make suitable provision at his own expense for the technical, industrial or practical instruction at a special centre, either at home or abroad, of one of his employees or the son of an employee, or of three such persons if he employs more than 2,000 workers. On the termination of their course of study, such bursars are bound to work for a period of not less than two years for the employer who paid for their studies.

Employment and the rights connected with it are guaranteed to individual workers only in so far as they do not clash with the rights of the workers as a body, represented by the trade unions. The preferential rights of organised workers in respect of employment have already been mentioned; it should be added that contracts of service naturally cannot contain a clause constituting a renunciation by the worker of any right or privilege granted by the Code, and that the employer is explicitly required not only to take no action against workers' organisations but even to assist them. It is therefore not surprising that under the Code the exercise of certain rights arising out of the individual contract of service is frankly subordinated to trade union action such as the Code describes as lawful. The preceding sections on the right of combination and on collective agreements have dealt with the question in some detail; and it must suffice here to say that a strike, if legal, merely suspends contracts of employment for its whole duration and does not terminate them or annul the rights and obligations arising out of them. But it should be noted that workers on strike may not stop work in establishments which do not come within the scope of the industrial association to which they belong. Only if the conciliation and arbitration boards decide that a strike is unlawful can it also declare that the contracts of service are terminated. The employer is then at liberty to conclude new contracts. But in the case of a lawful strike the Code states that the rights of the community as a whole are affected if a striker is replaced before the dispute is settled, or (provided that the majority of the workers in an undertaking take part in the strike) if the minority attempts to continue or to resume work. Employers are not permitted to conclude either new individual contracts or new collective agreements during a strike. On the other hand, the strikers are bound to maintain in employment the number of workers " indispensable for the continuation of operations the suspension of which would be seriously detrimental to the resumption of work or to the safety and preservation of the workshops and establishments ".

The liberty of the employer being thus very considerably limited, the authors of the Mexican Code have thought fit to guarantee him certain rights while providing for some degree of State supervision. The suspension of contracts is one of these. Without being obliged to have recourse to a lock-out, which is a concerted act, the employer may suspend contracts or free himself from the obligations entailed, without liability, in certain cases enumerated, such as lack of raw materials in the undertaking, lack of money, over-production, the known and obvious inability of the undertaking to pay its way, *force majeure*, etc. In every case the employers concerned, before suspending work, must request the authorisation of the competent conciliation and arbitration board to put such suspension into effect, producing evidence to show that their application is justified. Suspension does not affect the date of termination of contracts. In the event of the

resumption of work the employer is bound to reinstate the workers employed before suspension in the posts which they previously occupied.

Finally, the Code includes a list of duties and prohibitions tending to safeguard discipline and the satisfactory conduct of the undertaking. The employer may cancel a contract in the case of grave fault by the worker. No period of notice is prescribed for the normal termination of contracts, but any special stipulations or customs of the industry must be observed, and in certain circumstances enumerated in the Code the worker is entitled to compensation on the termination of his contract.

Spain. — The statutory provisions which governed individual contracts of service before 1931 were somewhat brief. Various Bills had been drafted during the previous years without becoming law, the Labour Code of 23 August 1926 being the only measure which dealt at any length with the matter; and the series of provisions contained therein was far from exhausting the subject and satisfying the claims of the workers. The Act of 21 November 1931 represents the effort of the Spanish Republic to fill this gap and lay down general rules governing contracts of service without distinction of industry or type of occupation.

The Act applies in principle to all employers and all workers. For the purpose of the Act, every individual or legal person owning or directing an undertaking which entails the employment of labour is an employer, and manual workers, salaried employees, apprentices (special regulations reserved), home-workers, professional workers and all similar persons are workers. On the other hand, civil servants and the senior employees of an undertaking (managing staff, etc.), whose responsible duties, technical skill and high remuneration entitle them to be regarded as independent workers, do not come within the scope of the Act. The Act defines a contract of service as any contract, however styled, by which one or more persons bind themselves to work for one or more employers, in dependence on the latter, in return for remuneration. The subject-matter of a contract of service is thus work done for and in dependence on another party, family work and work for benevolent purposes being excluded.

The Act provides for three sources of limitation to contractual liberty, i.e. to the autonomy of the parties, namely, the Act itself, the " labour standards " laid down by the corporative organisations, and collective agreements. As a further limitation should perhaps be added the provision which declares null and void any stipulation limiting the exercise of civil and political rights to the prejudice of one party and any renunciation of rights under the Act in question to which a worker may consent before or after the conclusion of the contract.

The Act declares " works " inventions, made as a result of the methods of the undertaking and thanks to the opportunities supplied by it, when no particular inventor can be distinguished,

to be the property of the employer. The same applies to " service " inventions, made by workers specially engaged for the purpose. On the other hand, " free " inventions, which do not fall under either of the above headings and in which the personality of the worker is predominant, belong to the latter, even if made in the undertaking itself for purposes connected with it. The worker may only surrender the ownership of a free invention, whether patented or not, to the employer or a third party under a contract made subsequently to such invention. In any case, employer and employed are required to keep the invention secret, and if the application of a " service " invention brings the employer profits markedly out of proportion with the remuneration of the worker-inventor, the latter is entitled to special compensation.

The Act further confirms the right given to workers' committees, under the legislation on works councils, to collaborate in the management of undertakings. The works regulations relating to discipline, which were formerly framed by the employer alone, must in future be drafted in agreement with the staff concerned and in conformity with the Act on trade union supervision. The employer may not use his disciplinary powers to impose penalties other than those stipulated in the written contract.

The worker is bound to loyalty towards the undertaking in which he is employed, but only in so far as the real interest of the employer requires it and if the future of the worker himself is not thereby prejudiced. The worker is obliged to keep manufacturing secrets during and after his period of employment, but if he leaves the undertaking he may use them for his own profit if his habitual occupation requires him to do so.

Without the consent of the employer, the worker may neither compete with him nor carry out other work in the same industry, but consent is presumed if the employer knows of such competition or other work and does not forbid it in writing. The prohibition of competition holds good for a limited period only, and adequate compensation must be given during such period. In any case, such prohibition is only valid when justified by the genuine business interests of the employer.

The worker's obligation towards his employer is limited strictly to the work defined in the contract, or, if no such definition is made, to work in conformity with the " labour standards " or with collective agreements. Only in case of urgent necessity, of imminent danger or of accident may a worker be required to do other or longer work than that stipulated in his contract, and then only on condition that the extra work is divided equitably and that the worker receives an adequate compensation in accordance with the rates in force. During strikes, workers are not required to do other work than that contracted for, except in case of imminent danger to the undertaking or in the public interest, or with a view to protecting buildings, machines, etc., or maintaining the production necessary to the community.

Apart from his duties, has the worker the right to demand

employment from his employer ? The Spanish Act replies that in principle the employer is obliged effectively to occupy his workers if their vocational training or skill would suffer considerably from inaction.

The worker's wage, his only means of support, is safeguarded in many ways. The Act defines wages as the sum of the remuneration received by the worker in respect of his work—the direct and indirect cash payment for his exertions, any compensation for dismissal or interruption of employment, all insurance contributions paid by the employer, any benefit paid to his heirs of any other similar payment. In order to ensure that the worker shall receive a fair wage and any other payment due to him, the Act provides in detail for the different types of remuneration—time rates, piece rates, the quota system, commissions, share of profits, etc. It is impossible to go into details here, but reference must be made to one question which has been discussed in a number of countries during the past year, that of the wage rights of the worker in case of interruption of work.

The Spanish Act provides for the following cases: the worker keeps his right to remuneration if he is prevented from working either because the employer refuses to give him occupation or for a reason connected with the premises, materials or machines used, or in other circumstances for which the employer is responsible, unless it is possible to indemnify the worker by providing other work at a different time.

In case of accident or sickness for which he is not responsible, the worker is entitled to remuneration for a certain period to be laid down by statute. Moreover, he is permitted to absent himself from his employment, without loss of wages, for one day for family reasons and for the period necessary to fulfil his duties as a citizen in accordance with the law.

In case of interruption for which neither the employer nor the worker is responsible (lack of materials or of the necessary power, partial strikes, etc.), written collective agreements or contracts of service should stipulate whether the terms of contracts may be temporarily suspended, fix a minimum period for such suspension if permitted, and decide whether the worker keeps his right to remuneration.

The Act does not guarantee employment in general, but prescribes several cases which do not *ipso facto* justify dismissal. A contract of service does not terminate when the undertaking ceases to function, is transferred or sold, unless such termination is expressly stipulated in the contract. The same applies to temporary incapacity resulting from accident or sickness for which the worker is not responsible (provided its duration does not exceed the statutory maximum), to the period of military service, and to the leave accorded by law to women workers at the time of childbirth.

A strike or lock-out does not justify the cancellation of a contract, but if it is declared with the object of modifying the stipul-

ations of a collective agreement which is still valid, such cancellation is justified and the other party is entitled to damages.

Saar Territory. — By an Order of 3 December 1930, the Governing Commission introduced a system of protection for workers with more than five years' service in the same undertaking, modelled on the German Act of 9 April 1926. The Order provides for three months' notice of dismissal for workers with five years' service, four months for those with eight years' service, five months for those with ten years' and six months for those with twelve years' service. Notice may only be given for the end of a quarter of the calendar year.

Sweden. — An Act of 29 May on unfair competition defines more exactly what penalties are applicable to certain industrial offences—unfair advertising, betrayal of industrial secrets, and corruption. Workers and salaried employees guilty of such offences are liable to fines and imprisonment and are also required to make good the damages for which they are responsible.

Switzerland. — Besides the individual contract of service and the collective agreement, the Federal Code provides for another form of labour contract, the standard contract of employment. These may be drawn up by the Federal Council or the competent cantonal authority, their terms being presumed to express the will of the parties unless contrary agreements in writing exist. On 7 July the Federal Council issued a Decree establishing a standard contract for commercial travellers. This governs the rights and obligations of employers and employed, in particular as regards the payment of salaries and commissions. It does not apply to a traveller who is in the service of several independent firms at the same time unless it has been expressly recognised as valid by one of them. Neither does it apply to a salaried employee whose journeys do not constitute his principal activity.

Yugoslavia. — The Second Part of the Industrial Code of 5 November 1931 [1] covers contracts of service, and these, which were previously governed by regulations varying in different regions, are now uniform all over the country. Moreover, the new Code marks conspicuous progress over previous social legislation. The following are its most characteristic provisions.

The Code deals in principle with the whole of industry and commerce, but agriculture, certain State industries, mining, transport, family undertakings, the liberal professions, co-operative societies and certain occupations of a special nature are excepted from its scope. It provides for a double regulation of contracts of service. Chapter I lays down the general provisions to govern the contracts of service of all persons employed, and in a subsequent chapter special rules are provided for a certain group of

[1] Came into force on 9 March 1932.

persons who may be classed as salaried employees although the Code does not use that term. Apart from certain common features, the regulations thus vary according as they apply to workers or salaried employees.

After at least fifteen days' employment, the worker keeps his right to remuneration when prevented from working for a relatively short period (not exceeding one week) by sickness, accident or other good reason for which he is not responsible. This right lapses with the termination of the contract, but the latter may not be cancelled by reason of such inability to work provided it does not exceed four weeks in duration.

A salaried employee prevented from working by sickness, accident or other personal reason keeps his right to remuneration for six weeks, unless his incapacity is due to deliberate action or grave negligence on his part. After five years' uninterrupted employment the period is extended to eight weeks, after fifteen years to ten weeks and after twenty years to twelve weeks. If he is again prevented from working within a space of six months, he receives half his salary only when the sum of the periods of incapacity exceeds the appropriate limit. During this period the employee cannot be dismissed and does not lose his rights even if his contract terminates in the meanwhile.

When a wage earner is prevented from working by the fault of his employer, the latter is bound to pay him his wages, but he may deduct what the wage earner has saved by not working, what he has earned in other employment or what he has deliberately refrained from earning.

The Code provides in general for fifteen days' notice of termination of contracts, unless a stipulation more favourable to the worker has been made. The contractual notice may not, however, exceed six months and must be the same for both parties. When two different periods of notice are stipulated, the longer applies.

Salaried employees' contracts should terminate at the end of the calendar quarter with six weeks' notice. After five years' service the period of notice increases to three months, after fifteen years to four months and after twenty years to five months. Contracts may not stipulate a period of notice of less than one month or of more than six months. Contracts should terminate on the last day of the month.

After at least ten years' uninterrupted service, employees with special functions (i.e. salaried employees) receive an indemnity at the termination of their contract, varying with the length of service. After ten years this indemnity is equal to four times the last monthly salary, after fifteen years to six, after twenty years to nine, and after twenty-five years to twelve times such salary. If the employee leaves his employment before the termination of his contract without good reason or by his own fault, or if he is entitled to a pension, his right to indemnity lapses. If the contract is terminated by the death of the employee, the heirs for whose maintenance he was responsible are entitled to half his indemnity

in accordance with the provisions of civil law. If the undertaking changes hands, the employee keeps his right to indemnity unless he refuses to continue his work on the same conditions as before.

Certain of the provisions of the Code aim at alleviating the employer's economic position in case of difficulty. If the undertaking is wound up and if the employer's position is so bad that it is quite impossible for him wholly or partially to meet his obligations, he is not bound to pay indemnities. The latter may be reduced by one-half if, by reason of economic depression or crisis, the undertaking must restrict its activity and therefore dismiss a proportion of its staff, and if it cannot fulfil its obligations without risking financial breakdown.

Either party may cancel a contract of service with good reason before its regular termination or without due notice. Dismissal of the worker or premature cessation of work without good reason may entail liability for damages.

On termination of employment the wage earner may require a certificate. The entry on this certificate, in writing or by signs, of any information which may make it difficult for the wage earner to find other employment is strictly prohibited.

There are several provisions governing agreements in restraint of trade. These are not valid if the wage earner is under age when the contract is entered into, or if his wages do not exceed 50,000 dinars per year at the expiry of the contract. Moreover, the prohibition of competition is limited to the employer's occupation and may not exceed one year in duration. The application of this prohibition is not permitted to endanger the worker's livelihood. The employer cannot enforce his contractual rights if he himself cancels the contract (except for some fault on the part of the worker) or if the worker leaves his employment before the termination of the contract through the fault of the employer.

Administration of Labour Law

Contrary to what might be expected in a time of depression, the administration of labour law has been the object of comprehensive legislative reforms in some countries, while in others a wide use has been made of the existing laws.

Austria. — A Bill has been submitted to the National Council by the Austrian Federal Government to amend the constitution of the courts and their procedure with a view to economy. The Bill is noteworthy in that it provides for the establishment of courts of third instance, hitherto non-existent, for the settlement of labour disputes coming within the competence of the industrial courts. It is hoped that this measure will lead to uniform administration of justice in disputes of this kind. The proposed procedure of the industrial courts will follow more closely that of

the labour courts in Germany. In accordance with the proposed reform, the Senate of the Supreme Court, which will be the final court of appeal in labour disputes, will in future consist not only of professional judges but also of judges appointed from among the parties concerned. In view of the fact that certain circles, including the Chamber of Labour and the Law Society of Vienna, have opposed this reform on the ground that it will make the procedure unduly long and more costly, there is some doubt as to whether the Bill will be adopted.

Czechoslovakia. — The Bill mentioned in the *Annual Review*, 1930, became law on 4 July 1931. The new Act, which came into force on 1 January 1932, consolidates for the first time the legal provisions relating to the administration of labour law and is therefore of particular importance. The competence of the new labour courts, which is considerably wider than that of the former industrial courts, covers all disputes arising between a worker and his employer in connection with labour relations, hire of services or apprenticeship based on private law contract. Their powers will not extend to disputes for which special bodies have already been made competent by the legislation on works councils, district mines councils, works committees, the Elbe shipping tribunals or the legislation applying to house porters. Similarly, the labour courts have no competence in the case of disputes with State employees or employees of State undertakings arising out of their contractual relationships with the State.

The competence of the labour courts is exclusive. It is, however, possible, as in German law, for the parties to a collective agreement to provide in that agreement that any disputes between them must be settled by an arbitration board. The competence of the courts is not affected by the sum at issue.

The organisation of the labour courts is very similar to that of the former industrial courts, but the assessors are now appointed by the President of the Supreme Court and not by election as was the case under the old regulations. The central industrial associations of employers and workers play a decisive part in their nomination. Labour courts consist of a president and two assessors. The general procedure is regulated by the provisions relating to the procedure of the ordinary district courts. The engagement of advocates, which was forbidden in the industrial courts, is now authorised when the sum in dispute exceeds 1,000 Czechoslovak crowns.

The right of appeal has been considerably extended. An appeal may be lodged against any decision of a labour court when the sum at issue exceeds 300 crowns; the courts themselves may even permit an appeal when the sum is less than 300 crowns if, in the opinion of the court, a question of principle has been raised by the decision. Any judgment may be revised when the sum in dispute exceeds 2,000 crowns. The district court acts as a court of appeal and is composed of three professional judges and two

assessors. The Supreme Court acts as a court of revision and its decision is taken behind closed doors without any oral discussion with the parties but merely on the basis of all the documents in the case and the specific demands of the parties as contained in their application for revision [1].

France. — The Act of 27 March 1907 relating to probiviral courts, hitherto applicable only to industry and commerce, has been extended to agriculture by a Decree adopted by the Senate on 26 June 1931 [2]. Proposals had been made by the workers' organisations that the competence of the probiviral courts should be extended to all labour disputes affecting public servants, employees in newspaper offices, persons exercising a liberal profession, domestic staff engaged in personal services and hall porters of tenement dwellings. The Superior Labour Council has decided, though not unanimously, in favour of this extension of the competence of the courts.

Germany. — Although during the first two years following the introduction of the Act of 26 December 1926 relating to labour courts the new system gave almost complete satisfaction to employers and workers alike, many objections have been raised against the courts during the subsequent period, especially during the year 1931. Complaints have been made that the cost of proceedings, which it was expected would be reduced, is still too high. Another objection raised is that the legal principles laid down by one court in a given case are not upheld, or are even changed, by the decision of another court and that the uniform application of the law is thus undermined. Such a system obviously leads to a large number of actions. Again, the number of legal disputes settled by conciliation is not as high as is desirable and possible. The opinion has also been expressed in several quarters that the procedure of the courts is based too much on civil law, to the detriment of the requirements of labour law. In this connection the question of allowing the engagement of advocates in the courts of first instance, a system which is favoured by the employers and opposed by the workers, has again arisen.

The grounds for such criticism, which obviously vary with the standpoint of the person concerned, cannot here be discussed. Perhaps the criticism made is largely influenced by three factors, the first of which is that social legislation is at present in a period of development. To a much greater extent than civil law, it has to be formulated and created, and this task of a somewhat experimental nature has to be shouldered mainly by the labour courts. Secondly, the Act has been in force for such a short time that its application has not been sufficiently tested on all points. Thirdly, it should not be forgotten that this year has been a year

[1] Cf. *supra*, " Conciliation and Arbitration ", Czechoslovakia.
[2] Its adoption by the Chamber of Deputies seems imminent.

of deep depression which must necessarily have influenced the results of the administration of the Act and the opinions formed of them.

At the same time, it may be said that the labour courts have continued to carry out their duties and that there is no general desire for their abolition and even less for the re-establishment of the former legal system.

The number of cases dealt with by the courts has again increased, although reasons of economy have led to a reduction in the number of courts.

Italy. — Steps are being taken to organise the procedure employed by the Italian labour courts *(Magistratura del lavoro)* in connection with the settlement of individual disputes arising out of labour legislation. It will be recalled that the labour courts took over these duties from the former industrial courts which were abolished by a Decree issued on 26 February 1928 [1]. This Decree empowered the ordinary courts to act as labour courts of first instance, where necessary with the help of assessors representing the employers and workers. The present trend of opinion, which is supported mainly by the agricultural trade unions, is that the competence of these courts should be extended to individual labour disputes in which the relations between the litigants are not governed by a collective agreement.

Mexico. — The new Labour Code provides for the administration of labour law down to the smallest details, including the settlement of individual and collective labour disputes. It sets up municipal conciliation boards, central conciliation and arbitration boards, Federal conciliation boards and a Federal Conciliation and Arbitration Board. Both in conciliation and in the administration of labour law, here considered as synonymous with arbitration, the employers' and workers' representatives play a large part. Detailed provisions are included to prevent unqualified persons from sitting on the boards. The aim of the Code is to encourage the settlement of the greatest possible number of disputes by amicable agreement, and arbitration may be resorted to only when conciliation procedure fails. The central conciliation boards are also entitled to decide as to the legality or illegality of strikes and lock-outs. The Code makes no clear distinction between the procedure for disputes concerning the enforcement of the law and that for disputes arising out of its interpretation [2].

The provisions relating to the Solicitor's Office for the Protection of Labour *(Procuradoria de la defensa del trabajo)* are, as far as may be judged, unique of their kind, and deserve special attention. The Federal Executive and the Governors of the States may

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[1] Cf. *Report of the Director*, 1929, Part I, p. 282.
[2] Cf. *supra*, "Conciliation and Arbitration", Mexico.

appoint as many labour solicitors as they consider necessary for the protection of the interests of wage earners. The duties of these officials are to advise and represent workers, whenever requested, in all disputes before the competent authorities, to take the ordinary or extraordinary proceedings required for the protection of the workers, and to ensure the prompt administration of justice. The authorities are required to provide the Solicitor's Office for the Protection of Labour with the data and information which it requires for the proper performance of its duties and in general to grant it all the necessary facilities for such purpose.

The Solicitor's Office may also act as a conciliator in labour disputes; all services rendered by the staff of the Office are entirely free of charge.

Tunis. — A Bill relating to the administration of labour law in Tunis has been submitted to the French Chamber. The new courts which it is proposed to set up will be competent to deal only with disputes hitherto dealt with by the French courts, which, it will be remembered, function side by side with the native tribunals.

Yugoslavia. — The new Industrial Act of 5 December 1931, which came into operation on 5 March 1932, contains provisions relating to the administration of labour law. Labour disputes will in future be dealt with by the courts set up by the administrative authorities of first instance and styled in the Act " conciliation committees (arbitration boards) ".

These courts are composed of the chief of the administrative authority of first instance or his substitute, who must be lawyers and who are elected for four years, and two representatives appointed by the workers and employers respectively.

The courts are competent to deal with all disputes arising out of the hire of services or the evacuation of workers' dwellings, provided that the sum at issue does not exceed 12,000 dinars. Both parties are entitled to retain advocates. The president may, with the consent of both parties, settle the dispute without appealing to the assessors. The president and the conciliation committee, at a plenary sitting, must endeavour, in the first place, to arrive at an amicable settlement. If conciliation fails, the matter is settled by an arbitration award, which becomes operative eight days after it has been given. At the request of the party concerned, the award may be enforced by the administrative authority of first instance. An appeal may be lodged with a district court in the ordinary way against the decision of the conciliation committee.

Similar conciliation committees may be set up to deal with disputes between the corporations, especially the compulsory corporations, and the staff of their members.

Participation of Workers in National Economic Life

During the past year the work of the national economic councils in the various countries has become more important than ever, this being due to the urgency of the many questions facing the Governments as a result of the spread of the depression. Among the chaotic conditions prevailing in most countries, they have stood out as a possible means of reorganisation and reconstruction. The world-wide character of the crisis has extended their activities from a national to an international field, and it may be recalled in this connection that the League of Nations has decided to invoke their aid and that of the trade statistical institutions in the preparation of its report on the causes of the world crisis [1].

Belgium. — In 1930 the financial section of the National Economic Council made a study of the question of rates of interest. The industrial and agricultural section discussed, among other things, the introduction of new customs duties on sugar and oats, carried out an enquiry into the extent of unemployment in the different branches of the industry, and studied farm rents and the effects of the depression on agriculture. The commercial section carried out investigations into questions of home and foreign trade, consumption and prices.

China. — The constitutional rules of the Chinese National Economic Council were adopted by the Legislative Council on 30 May 1931. The Council, which is under the jurisdiction of the Executive, is required to take steps "to accelerate economic reconstruction, improve the people's means of livelihood and regulate national finance". *Ex-officio* members of the Economic Council include the President and the Vice-President of the Executive Council, the Ministers of the Interior, Finance, Railways, Communications, Industry and Education, as well as the responsible heads of the various central Government departments connected with economic reconstruction. The Council also includes not more than eleven other members who are nominated by the national Government on the recommendation of the *ex-officio* members.

Czechoslovakia. — The legal provisions governing the constitution of the National Economic Council have been amended and completed by the Government Decree issued on 10 July 1931. During the first six months of 1931 the Council studied the question of credit in periods of economic instability, measures to be taken to relieve the effects of the present economic disorder, the question of the proposed Austro-German Customs Union, and a number of other matters connected with the organisation of the economic

[1] Cf. *supra*, p. 33.

life of the country. The Council also examined a number of Bills submitted to it by the Ministry of Commerce, including a Bill on public employment offices and a draft Government Decree relating to the establishment of an economic committee of distributive co-operative societies. As in previous years, the Committee prepared a number of monographs dealing with conditions of production in different branches of Czechoslovak industry.

Denmark. — On 7 January 1932 the Government set up an Economic Council which is to work directly under the Prime Minister, and which can be convened to discuss any questions that may arise out of the prevailing economic situation, with special reference to matters that may affect the national currency. The members of the Council will include representatives of most of the industrial groups, employers, trade unions, co-operative organisations, economists and certain high officials.

Finland. — During 1931 the National Economic Council has published a number of studies dealing with Finland and the world economic crisis, agricultural debts, State finance for the period 1922-1929, housing policy from 1919 to 1928, and roads and railways.

France. — During the past year the French National Economic Council has continued the enquiry begun in 1929 with regard to the situation in the chief branches of the national economic system. It has also completed the examination of the vast question of " national equipment ", on which it has been engaged since 1926, and has made a number of reports on questions submitted to it for consideration by the public authorities, including one prepared at the request of the Government on " the new programme of national equipment and unemployment ".

Germany. — During 1931 the Provisional National Economic Council has continued its enquiries into home trade, and has defined the scope of certain provisions of the Decree of 21 November 1923 relating to hours of work in dangerous and unhealthy industries. It has also studied the questions of the compulsory consumption of certain agricultural products, the limitation of the number of distilleries, and the official fixing of minimum prices.

It should also be noted that, with a view to drawing up an effective economic and social programme to combat the depression, the Government set up, on 29 October 1931, a special Economic Council *(Wirtschaftsbeirat)* composed of twenty-five experts belonging to every branch of economic activity, together with six representatives of the workers' and salaried employees' trade unions. The Council has made recommendations and laid down guiding principles in connection with prices, wages, credit, banking, wage rates for public undertakings, rents, and agriculture [1].

[1] Cf. *supra*, " Collective Agreements ", Germany.

Great Britain. — The work of the Economic Advisory Council is carried out in a confidential manner and only in exceptional cases are reports published. During the year two reports have appeared, one emanating from the Committee on the Mineral Content of Natural Pastures, the other from the Dietetics Committee.

Guatemala. — A National Economic and Financial Committee was set up during 1931 to study economic problems and to propose measures for their solution to the National Congress. Among other things, the Council will enquire into the means of developing the natural resources of the country, encouraging land settlement, establishing new industries, improving the means of communication, reorganising the banking system of the country and improving tariff policy. The Council will consist of a treasury official, a director of the State Bank, a representative of the Chamber of Coffee Growers, a representative of the Chamber of Commerce, three representatives of the National Congress and a representative of the workers.

India. — A report recommending the constitution of a Central Economic Advisory Council, with similar Councils in each province, has been submitted to the Government of India by Sir Arthur Salter. The Indian Royal Commission on Labour has recommended the establishment of an Industrial Council representing the Government, employers and workers, which would be required among other things to give advice concerning the co-ordination and development of economic research.

Italy. — The general meeting of the Italian National Council of Corporations discussed the two important questions of standard contracts and tariff policy. The Council urged the trade associations to make the greatest possible use of standard contracts. Such contracts might in particularly important cases be submitted for ratification to the National Council of Corporations, which would decide in each case whether they should be made compulsory. After a long debate on tariff policy, the Council recommended a system of commercial treaties based on negotiation and a balanced exchange of trade. During the year the Council met on a number of occasions and discussed questions connected with wages and industrial concentration.

United States. — A Bill for the establishment of a National Economic Council is at present under consideration in the Senate. The Bill provides for a council of fifteen members, nominated by the President on the advice and with the consent of the Senate. The members will be chosen from lists submitted by the associations and organisations representing industry, finance, agriculture, transport and labour, not more than three members being elected from each group. The President will choose the chairman and vice-chairman from among the members. The Council will be

required to collect information relating to general economic and industrial conditions in the United States, to study the problems affecting the economic situation of the United States and American nationals, to put forward suggestions for the solution of such problems, to submit an annual report to the President and to Congress which must be accompanied whenever necessary by recommendations concerning the necessary legislative or other measures to be taken, to submit from time to time and whenever it appears necessary reports dealing with special economic questions and the necessary recommendations to the President, Congress, and the economic associations and organisations concerned.

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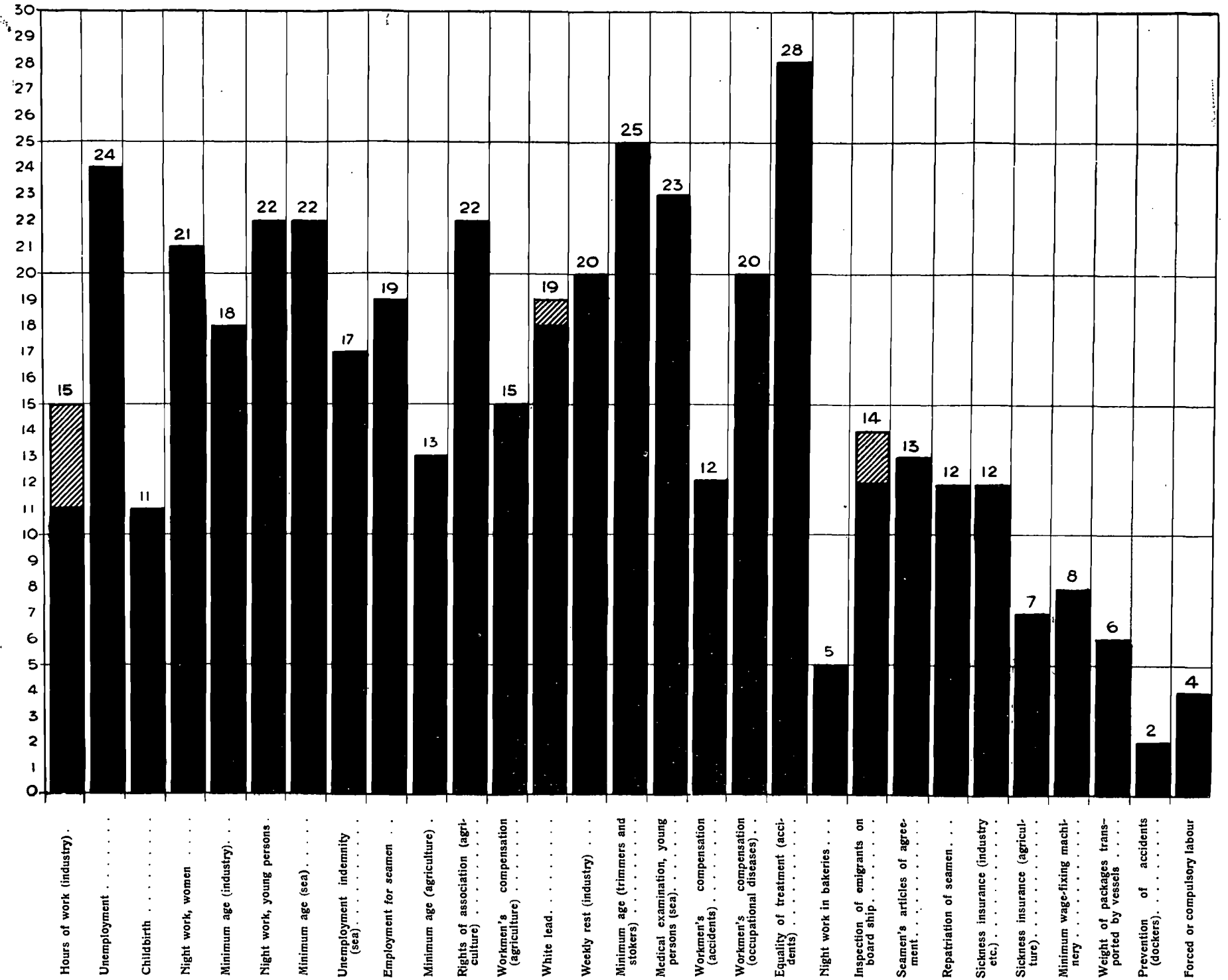
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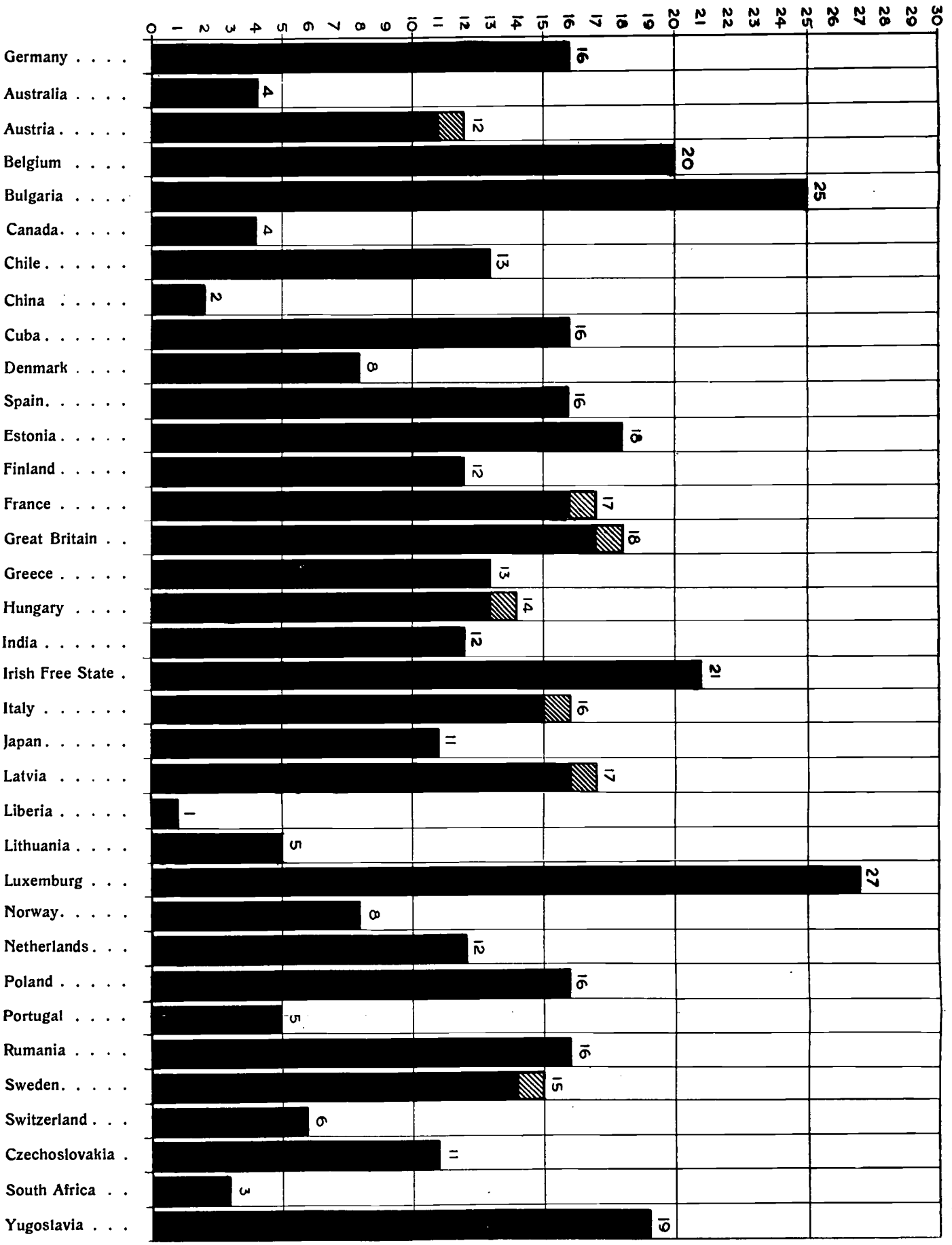
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NUMBER OF RATIFICATIONS BY CONVENTION



The shaded parts indicate conditional ratifications.



The shaded parts indicate conditional ratifications

STATE OF RATIFICATIONS (31 DECEMBER 1931)

■ Ratification registered.

▩ Conditional ratification registered.

O Ratification approved by the competent authority.

O Ratification adjourned by the competent authority.

O Ratification rejected by the competent authority.

△ Convention submitted to the competent authority with proposal for ratification.

△ Convention submitted to the competent authority *proposing adjournment or reservation of ratification.*

△ Convention submitted to the competent authority proposing no ratification.

△ Convention submitted to the competent authority with no proposal.

No official information which can be indicated in this table has been received by the International Labour Office from the following Members of the Organisation :

Bolivia
Dominican Republic
Ethiopia
Guatemala
Haiti
Honduras
Mexico*
Nicaragua
Panama
Persia
Peru
Salvador

* Mexico became a Member of the Organisation in September 1931.

STATES	1st Session (1919)						2nd Session (1920)			3rd Session (1921)							7th Session (1925)				8th Session (1926)	9th Session (1926)		10th Session (1927)		11th Session (1928)	12th Session (1929)		14th Session (1930)		15th Session (1931)	Total number of ratifications	Ratifications registered since last Report
	Hours of work (industry)	Unemployment	Childbirth	Night work, women	Minimum age (industry)	Night work, young persons	Minimum age (sea)	Unemployment indemnity (sea)	Employment for seamen	Minimum age (agriculture)	Rights of association (agriculture)	Workmen's compensation (agriculture)	White lead	Weekly rest (industry)	Minimum age (trimmers or stokers)	Medical examination, young persons (sea)	Workmen's compensation (accidents)	Workmen's compensation (diseases)	Equality of treatment (accidents)	Night work in bakeries	Inspection of emigrants on board ship	Seamen's articles of agreement	Repatriation of seamen	Sickness insurance (industry, etc.)	Sickness insurance (agriculture)	Minimum wage-fixing machinery	Weight of packages transported by vessels	Prevention of accidents (dockers)	Forced or compulsory labour	Hours of work (commerce and offices)	Hours of work in coal mines		
Albania	△	△	△	O	O	O	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△			
Germany	△	■	■	△	△	O	■	■	■	△	■	■	△	△	■	■	△	■	■	△	O	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△		16	
Argentine Repub.	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△																	
Australia	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	■	■	△	O	△		4	1
Austria	▩	■	△	■	△	■	△	△	△	■	■	△	■	△	△	△	△	■	■	△	■	△	△	■	■	△	△	△	△	△		12	
Belgium	■	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■	■	■	■	■		■	■	■									20	
Brazil	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△					
Bulgaria	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■				△	△		25	
Canada	O	O	O	O	O	O	■	■	O	O	O	O	O	O	■	■	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	△	△	△	△	△	△	△		4	
Chile	■	△	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	■	■	■	△	△	■		■						■	■							13	5
China										△	△	△	△	△	△	△					△	△	△			■	■					2	1
Colombia	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O							
Cuba	O	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	■	O	■	■	■	■	■	■	O	■	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△		16	
Denmark	△	■	△	△	■	■	■	△	△	△	■	■	△	△	■	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	O	△	△	8	
Spain	■	■	■	△	△	△	■	■	■	△	△	■	■	■	■	■	■		■			■	■			■						16	1
Estonia	△	■	O	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	O	O	■	■	O	■	■	O	O	△	O	△	O	O		18	
Finland	O	■	O	O	O	O	■	O	■	O	■	O	■	■	■	■	O	■	■	■	■	O	O	O	O	O	△	△				12	
France	▩	■	△	■	△	■	△	■	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	■	■	△	O	■	■	△	△	■						17	1
Great Britain	△	■	O	■	■	■	■	■	O	O	■	■	△	O	■	■	△	■	■	△	▩	■	△	■	■	■	△	△	■	O	△	18	1
Greece	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△			△									13	
Hungary	O	■	■	■	O	■	■	O	O	■	O	O	▩	O	■	■	■	■	■	△	■	O	O	■	△	△						14	
India	■	■		■	O	■	O	O	O	O	■	O	O	■	■	■	△	■	■	△	■	O	O	O	O	O	■	O	O	O		12	1
Irish Free State	△	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	△	■	■	■	△	■	■	■	△	■	■	△	■	■	■	△	△	■	■	■	■	△	△	21	
Italy	▩	■	O	■	O	■	O	■	■	■	■	■	O	■	■	■	O	O	■	O	△	■	■	△	△	■	△	△	△	△		16	
Japan	O	■	O	O	■	O	■	O	■	■	O	O	O	O	■	■	O	■	■	O	■	O	O	O	O	O	■	O	△	△		11	1
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Liberia																													■			1	1
Lithuania	■	△	△	■	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	5	5
Luxemburg	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	■	■				27	2
Norway	O	■	O	O	O	O	■	O	■	O	■	O	■	O	■	O	O	■	■	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	△	△	△	△		8	
New Zealand	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△		
Paraguay	△	△	△	△	△	△																											
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Poland	△	■	△	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	△	■	△	△	■	■	△	△	△	△			△		16	2
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Rumania	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	O	■	■	■	■	△	△	△	△	O	O	O	■	O	O	△	△				16	
Siam	△	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	△	△	△	△	△	△	△			△	△	△	△	△	△		
Sweden	O	■	O	O	O	O	■	O	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	O	▩	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	■	O		15	2
Switzerland	O	■	O	■	■	■	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	■	■	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	△	△	△	△		6	
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Union of South Africa	△	■	△	■	△	△				△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	■	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△		3	
Uruguay	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	△	O	O	O	△	△			
Venezuela	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O		O	O	O	O	△	△	△										
Yugoslavia	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	■	△	■	■	■	■	■	■	■	△	O	■	■	■	O	O	△	△	△	△		19	
Total number of ratifications	15	24	11	21	18	22	22	17	19	13	22	15	19	20	25	23	12	20	28	5	14	13	12	12	7	8	6	2	4			449	25
Ratifications registered since last Report	1			2		1						1		2	1		1	1	1		1	1	1	2	1		4	1	3			25	